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ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA;

OR,

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY OF KNOWLEDGE,

On an Original Plan:

COMPRISING THE TWOFOLD ADVANTAGE OF

A PHILOSOPHICAL AND AN ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT,

WITH APPROPRIATE ENGRAVINGS.

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VOLUME XIV.



[MISCELLANEOUS AND LEXICOGRAPHICAL, VOL. I.]

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CONTENTS TO VOL. XIV.

THE LEXICON.

GEOGRAPHY.

BOTANY.

ZOOLOGY.

MINERALOGY.

LAW.

ACADEMY, AERONAUTICS, ALCORAN, ALIMENT, ANABAPTISTS, ANGLING, ANIMAL STRENGTH,
ANNUITIES, ANTEDILUVIANS, ARTILLERY, &c.

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TO

THE ENGLISH LEXICON,

INTERWOVEN WITH THIS DIVISION.

Advertisement. IN the performance of the first task of a lexicographer—the collection of his English Lexicon. vocabulary, with the authorities upon which he relies ;—diligence and accuracy are the only merits to which he can attain.

When he directs his exertions to ascertain the meaning of words, from a careful examination of the authorities collected, and a vigilant research into the stores of etymology, which the labours of the more distinguished writers have already accumulated, his pretensions may be allowed to assume a higher character.

Again, with humble industry he must proceed to select such instances as he may deem requisite to be exhibited, of the various applications of each word, which have been introduced and established in the language.

Thus concisely may be stated, and in so small a compass may be described, the very arduous enterprise which a compiler of a Dictionary should undertake to accomplish.

It is necessary, however, to proceed, and with all possible plainness, to the more Principles.

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general principles which should be pursued in the construction and arrangement of a Dictionary of the English Language. English Lexicon.

The meaning of a word is never known until we discover the sensible object of which it is the name. This meaning may be called the *literal*.

The first extension of the use of words, from the literal denomination of sensible objects, or actions or operations, is to suppose similar or corresponding objects, or actions or operations in the human mind. This may be called the *metaphorical application* of the literal meaning. It is not a new or different meaning.

Very various indeed are the applications which are made of words; and the reason of every application should be manifest from the explanation of the literal meaning.

Illustration.

It will be proper to illustrate these principles by an instance of the manner in which they may be reduced to practice :—

To Abandon. The etymologist may conclude his researches, when he has traced it to the past participle of the Anglo-Saxon verb *Abannan* : which past participle, to support the etymology, he must give in all the different forms in which it is written. He sufficiently explains its meaning, when he has said that it means “ To band, or bind ; or put in bondage ; to leave in, or give up to, to stay or remain in, a state of bondage or entire subjection *.”

Application of words.

Words very different in their origin will bear the same application, though the reason of that application will be different. It will, therefore, be expedient to enumerate the principal words, commonly called synonymous, or which will admit of such similar application. After the above explanation of the word *Abandon*, must be added, as synonymous, “ To resign, to quit, to desert, to forsake.”

In the present instance it must be observed, that the word, when thus applied, is used simply ; that is, without reference to the state of the object resigned, quitted, deserted, forsaken.

Here also will be found an application of the word consequent or inferred from the meaning. That which we *abandon*, resign, &c., we may be said “ To reject or cast away, to repel or drive away, to banish.”

It will sometimes also appear, that the words of similar application literally, will be different from those admitted metaphorically.

To Abase, for instance: As a synonym to this word when used *literally*, we employ “ To lower, to depress ;” when used *metaphorically*, “ To lower, to degrade, to humble, to disgrace.” Abase your lance. His pride shall be abased.

* Wisdom of Solomon, c. x., v. 14. She left him not in bonds, &c.

Advertisement.

English Lexicon.

A consequent application will sometimes be inferred from the metaphorical usage, which cannot be inferred from the literal.

"To *admit* an opinion, to *admit* the propriety or force of an apology, excuse, argument, &c.," is, consequently, "To grant, to concede, to agree, to assent."

These are the main divisions which it will be incumbent upon the lexicographer to observe in the explanation of different words; and they may be thus methodically disposed:

1. The etymology, with the literal meaning, applied literally or to material objects: with the words similarly applied.
2. The metaphorical application of this meaning to the human mind; and the words similarly applied.
3. The application consequent, or inferred from the literal meaning.
4. The application consequent, or inferred from that which is metaphorical.

But the greater portion of language will admit of this comprehensive yet simple distribution:—

The etymology, and literal meaning, literally and metaphorically employed; with the words of similar application.

Whatever divisions, however, may occur, each must be attended by proper authorities; those for the literal meaning (whenever they can be produced) will claim the first place; those for the metaphorical and consequent usage, must take their stations in due succession.

A few words are required to explain the manner of proceeding with compound words; and this may be done most clearly by examples in illustration from those which we have derived immediately from the Latin. Take the compounds of *Duco*, and *Traho*.

To *abduce*, *adduce*, *conduce*, *deduce*, *induce*, &c.

To *abstract*, *attract*, *contract*, *detract*, *distract*, &c.

The difference of meaning, it is obvious, arises from the different preposed or prefixed words; *ab*, *ad*, *con*, *de*, *dis*, *in*. The Latin compound, then, should be separated into its component parts; each part should be rendered into equivalent (or rather equivocal) English, and no other difference be allowed in the explanation than the prefix itself expresses.

To *abduce* : v. — *ab* : *duco* : to lead from.

adduce : v. — *ad* : *duco* : to lead to.

To *abstract* : v. — *ab* : *traho* : to draw from.

attract : v. — *ad* : *traho* : to draw to.

Advertisement.

And so with the rest : then in each case must of course (to use the word of an old chronicler*), *subsecute* the words synonymously applied.

English
for accents.

To revert to the authorities : The writers, from whose works citations are to be made, may advantageously be classed into periods ; and each word, when it is possible, should be supported by authorities within each period.

Periods of
the Lan-
guage.

The first period must commence with the rhyming chronicles of Robert of Gloucester, and Robert of Brunne ; and terminate with the writers, whose powers were invigorated by their exertions in the struggle with the see of Rome, during the reign of Henry VIII. and his two immediate successors.

The second will extend from the accession of Elizabeth, to the return of Charles II. ; or from Hooker and Shakespeare, to Milton and J. Taylor.

The third, from the Restoration to the establishment of the House of Hanover upon the throne ; or from Waller and Barrow, to Pope and Samuel Clarke.

The fourth, from the time of George II., through that of his present Majesty (in itself a period of nearly sixty years) :—the great names of Cowper and Paley, of Horsley and Watson, will close the catalogue. All living writers must submit to a bar of exclusion.

The first period, as the least explored, and the longest in duration, seems not only to permit, but to demand that citations should be adduced with a hand so lavish, as sometimes to risk the imputation of wasteful liberality ; and in every period, fulness and freedom will be considered as the more pardonable error, if it be an error at all to prefer dulness to a dearth of information ; and to expose those who are in search of knowledge to some degree of tediousness, when there is no other path to the knowledge they are or pretend to be desirous of acquiring.

Advantages of
Chronological
citations.

By the arrangement of the citations chronologically, some view may be taken of the progressive changes of the language ; and more particularly so by the use of early and succeeding translators : among whom, the translators of the Bible stand pre-eminent.

It will contribute much to the more effectual attainment of so useful an object, if translations of the same passages are produced ;—that we may consider the manner in which writers of different ages endeavoured, according to the changes which had been made in the language, to signify the same ideas.

* Hall, p. 404.

Advertisement.

The word explained, and its immediate derivatives, may be classed together: of such derivatives no explanation is necessary. Thus:

English Lexicon.

Aband. v.

Abandon. v.

Abandon. n.

Abandoner, n.

Abandoning.

Abandonment.

It is perfectly useless to inform the reader, that *Abandonment* is "the act of *abandoning*;" that *Abandoner* is, "one who forsakes."

A general Preface must ascertain the force of the terminations. It is upon the force of terms, or the number of ideas they are employed to denote, that the lexicographer, in his peculiar province, must bestow his labour: the grammarian must settle their manner of signification.

By thus classing the words with their immediate derivatives together, a Derivatives glance will acquaint us with the barrenness or fertility of the parent branch; some abuses, which have been admitted in the process of composition, will be, with little difficulty, distinguished; and some guide will also be presented to direct our efforts for the improvement of our native tongue by the accumulation of new terms.

Thus, from a comparison of the words *Reduce* and *Educe*, words formed from the same root, it will be seen that we have supplied ourselves much more abundantly with the immediate derivatives from the former, than the latter compound.

Enough, however, has been said for the present purpose; which was barely this:—to lay down with clearness, the broad principles upon which a Dictionary of the English language may be so constructed as to accomplish a decisive advancement in lexicographical learning; and to note a peculiarity or two in the manner of execution.

And is it a very culpable degree of presumption to assert—that by a Dictionary composed with all possible observance of such principles, copiously and (may it prove) judiciously illustrated, such decisive advancement will be indisputably accomplished?

In an effort will be made to establish and to exemplify the just principles of etymology; and to mark and preserve that wide and most important distinction, which the Coryphæus of modern philology has so satisfactorily proved

Advertisement. to subsist, between the meaning and the application of words. By commencing Lexicon. English.
with authorities, wherever they can be detected, from the earliest periods of English composition, and continuing them successively through the different stages by which it has arrived at its present state of copiousness and refinement;— it will aspire to the pretension of exhibiting to the English reader, a sketch at least of some very interesting and instructive portions of a history of his own language.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA;

OR, THE

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY OF KNOWLEDGE.

ON AN ORIGINAL PLAN.

Fourth Edition.



MISCELLANEOUS AND LEXICOGRAPHICAL.

A.

A is the first letter and first vowel of the alphabet, in all the modern, and in most of the ancient languages.

To the letter *A* three names may be given to distinguish its different sounds; and these names and sounds have been thus exhibited:

Name.	Short.	Long.	Examples.	Sound as commonly spelt.
1. <i>aw</i> .	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>Sal</i> , <i>Sal</i> .	<i>Saah</i> .
2. <i>ah</i> .	<i>a</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ban</i> , <i>ban</i> .	<i>baam</i> .
3. <i>a</i> .	<i>e</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>pen</i> , <i>pen</i> .	<i>pane</i> .

A: the English article means *One*, in A. S. *An*. In A. S. *On* means *In*; and has been corrupted in English to *An* before a vowel; and to *A* before a consonant; and in writing and speaking it has been connected with the subsequent word: hence a numerous race of adverbs.

From *On hwe*, *On niwe*, *On lenge*, *On hwarbe*, *On hwe*, *On lanbe*, *On lise*, *On missan*, *On niwe*, *On tye*, *On we*: we have *Aday*, *Anight*, *Along*, *Abroad*, *Aback*, *Aland*, *Alice*, *Amid*, *Arigh*, *Atwo*, *Away*.
Tooke, v. i. p. 524.

A, so originating, is also a common prefix to many nouns and verbs. To *Acknowledge* is a word of comparatively modern usage. The old English word is *Knowleche* or *Knowledge*. Its progress is *Knowleche*, *Knowledge*, *Aknowledge*, *Aknowledge*. This is the simple history of the prefix *Ac*. Dr. Johnson thought the word *Acknowledge* was formed between the Latin and English, from *agnosco*, and *knowledge*. *Aknow* is not uncommon in our older writers.

A, in such expressions as *a-hunting*, *a-begging*, *a-going*, admits of a similar explanation.

In the A. S. the prefix *A* to words in use without it, is of constant occurrence. In some words, which have descended from that language, the word with this prefix is preserved; e. g. *to Abide*, *Abint*, *Ashamed*. In a far greater number the prefix is dropped, e. g. in

Abeodan, to bid; *Abitan*, to bite; *Acelan*, to keel or cool.

Joins points out the following usages of the expression *A per se* (*A* by itself) in Chaucer and Douglas, as denoting pre-eminence.

O faire Cresside, the flour and A per se
Of Troye and Grece, how were thou fortunate,
To change in filthe al thy feminite,
And be with fleschly lust so maculate.

Testament of Cresside, v. 78.

Among these other folke was Cressida
In widowes habite blake: but natheles
Right as our first letter is now an *A*,
In tounste first so vnde she maketh
Maist Reverend Uigil, of Latine poetis prince.
Gem of ingyne, and flud of eloquence,
Thou peries perle, patron of poetry,
Ruia, register, palme, laurene, and glory.
Chosen carthunkill, chief floure and cedar tre.
Lanterne, lantern, myrrour and *A per se*.

Douglas, Pref. p. 3.

AA, the name of several rivers; one in Dutch Brabant, another in the United Provinces, a third in Westphalia, a fourth in France, a fifth in Courland, a sixth in Switzerland.

AAIN-CHARIN, a village near Jerusalem, said to be the place where Zacharias lived, and much frequented by pilgrims.

AALBURG, or **AALBORG**, the capital of a diocese in North Jutland, of the same name, and a bishop's see. Next to Copenhagen, it is the most opulent and best built city in Denmark, containing 14,500 inhabitants. E. lon. 5° 46'. N. lat. 56° 50'.

AAM, or **HAAM**, a Dutch liquid measure in common use, containing 128 measures called mingles, each weighing about 36 ounces avoirdupois; consequently the *Aam* contains 288 English, and 148½ pints Paris measure.

AARHUUS, the capital of a diocese of the same

A.
AAR-
HUUS.

AAR-
RUCS.
ABACK.

name in North Judah, extremely fertile, woody, and well watered by several lakes and rivers. The town is large and populous, having a university, a free-school, and a well endowed hospital. The inhabitants of the diocese are estimated at 117,942. E. lon. 10° N. lat. $56^{\circ} 6'$.

AASAR, an ancient town of Palestine, in the tribe of Judah, situated between Azotus and Ascalon.

AAVORA, the fruit of a large palm-tree in the West Indies and Africa, about the size of a hen's egg, and included, with several others, in a large shell. It has a nut in the centre, containing a white almond, very stringing and proper to check a diarrhoea.

AB, the fifth month of the ecclesiastical year of the Jews, and the eleventh of their civil year. It answers to the moon of July; which includes July and part of August; and consists of thirty days. The Jews fast on the first of this month, in memory of Aaron's death; and on the ninth, because both the temple of Solomon, and that erected after the captivity, were burnt on that day. This day is also remarkable, among the Jews, for Adrian's edict, wherein they were forbidden to continue in Judea, or even to look towards Jerusalem, to lament its desolation. The 18th of the same month is a fast among the Jews, because the lamp in the sanctuary was extinguished that night, in the time of Abaz: the 21st is the feast called Xylophoria; and on the 24th, another is celebrated in commemoration of the abolishing of a law, by which both sons and daughters should alike inherit the estates of their parents.

AA, in the Syriac calendar, is the last summer month. The first of this month they called Suum-Miriam, or the Fast of the Virgin, because the eastern Christians were accustomed to fast from that day to the fifteenth, which was therefore called Fath-Miriam, or the cessation of the Fast of the Virgin.

ABA, or Anz, in Ancient Geography, a town of Phocis in Greece, adjacent to Heli-con; famous for an oracle of Apollo, more ancient than that at Delphi; and for a rich temple which the Persians plundered and burnt.

ABAA, a river in Thessaly, supposed by some to be the Peneus of the ancients.

ABACA, a kind of flax, or hemp, gathered in the Philippine islands. It is of two kinds, the white and the grey:—the former is used for fine linen, the latter only for cordage.

ABACAY, a name given by the Philippine islanders to a species of parrot.

ABACH, a market-town of Lower Bavaria, seated on the Danube, 12 miles S. W. of Ratibon. It is remarkable for Roman antiquities, and for springs of mineral waters. Henry II. is said to have been born in the castle. E. lon. $11^{\circ} 56'$. N. lat. $48^{\circ} 55'$.

ABACINARE, or ABACINARE, in writers of the middle age, a cruel punishment, which consisted in blinding the criminal, by holding a red-hot basin, or bowl of metal, before his eyes. *See Cange.*

ABACK. On back. Backwards. *See BACK.*

So that the white was above, as the folk y saye.

And that the rote al whed out of the put key.

The rode, as for a-wene, by turned hym atten ende

And assailed the wyte, and made hym abek weide.

R. Gloucester, p. 131.

Judas seith to hem I am, and Judas that betrakele him stood with hem, and whanne he seide to hem, I am, thei wenten abak and

felden down on the erthe and eft he axide hem whom seken ghe? **ABACK.**
and thei seiden jhesus of nazareth.

Wiclif, Jon. chap. xviij.

From hiffis handis to toum all thare cunctia.

Quibam so hir list, and bynd othre sum also.

In languam amurra, vehement paze and wo:

The frysing frodis thare waster stop gas scho mak,

And sik the sternes turne that cours abak.

But both the fruit from hand, and floud from mouth.

Did the abek, and made him vainly awake:

The while he sterd with hunger and with drowth:

He daily dyde, yet never througly dyen couth.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, page 91.

Yet Albert new resources still prepares.

Conceals his grief, and doubles all his cares;

"Away them! lower the mizen-yard on deck,"

He calls, "and looses the foremost yards abek!"

Falstow's Shipwreck.

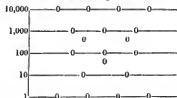
ABACK, a term in Naval Tactics, to express the situation of the sails when the surfaces are flatted against the masts by the impulse of the wind. The sails are said to be 'taken aback' when they are brought into this situation, either by a sudden change of the wind, or an alteration in the ship's course. They are 'laid aback,' to effect an immediate retreat, without turning to the right or left; or, to give the ship 'stern-way.' In order to avoid some danger in a narrow channel, or when she has advanced beyond her station in the line of battle, or otherwise. The sails are placed in this position by slackening their lee braces, and hauling in the weather ones. It is also usual to spread some sail aback near the stern, when a ship rides with a single anchor in a run, in order to prevent her from approaching it so as to entangle the flukes of it with her slackened cable.

ABACOT, an ancient cap of estate worn by the kings of England; at which the upper part was in the form of a double crown.

ABACTORS, or ABACTORAS, those who drive off cattle by herds, and are therefore distinguished from lures or thieves.

ABACUS, (the word is formed from the Greek $\alpha\beta\alpha\kappa\upsilon\varsigma$) among the ancient mathematicians, a table strewed with dust, on which they drew their diagrams.

ABACUS is likewise the name of an ancient arithmetical instrument, consisting, at first, of a smooth table, covered with dust, on which the first diagrams and calculations were traced. The following is a representation of that which is in most general use.



A counter placed on the uppermost line signifies 10,000; and two counters $2 \times 10,000$, or 20,000. A counter on the second line signifies 1000; on the third line, 100; on the fourth, 10; and so on the fifth, 1. When placed in any of the spaces between the parallel lines, it denotes one-half of what it would signify if it were in the line immediately above it; or five times

ABACUS. what it would signify, if on the line immediately below it. Brass wires and ivory balls are frequently substituted for parallel lines and counters. See *Hist. Acad. Inscript.* tom. iii., p. 390. **WOLFFI** *Lex. Math.* p. 171, *Phil. Trans.* No. 180. An ingenious abacus has been invented by Perrault, which is adapted to facilitate these arithmetical operations.

The Grecian *Alphabeta* was an oblong frame, over which were stretched several brass wires, strung with little ivory balls, like the beads of an ocellus; and by the various arrangements of these beads, all kinds of computations were easily made. The Roman *Alphabeta* was a little different from the Grecian, having pins sliding in grooves, instead of beads. A description of the ancient Roman *Alphabeta*, with a drawing, may be seen in F. USUIN, *Epitaph. Insar. Duilliane*, and in ANT. AUGUSTIN, *Numism. Dial. 9*. The Chinese *Alphabeta*, or *Shwan-pun*, like the Grecian, is composed of several series of beads strung on brass wires, stretched from the top to the bottom of the instrument, and divided in the middle by a cross piece from side to side. In the upper space every string has two beads, which are each reckoned for 5; and in the lower space every string has five beads, of various values, the first being reckoned as 1, the second as 10, the third as 100, and so on.

ABACUS Pythagoricus, the common multiplication table, so called from its inventor Pythagoras.

ABACUS *Logisticus*, a rectangled triangle, whose sides, forming the right angle, contain the numbers from 1 to 60; and its area, the facts of each two of the numbers perpendicularly opposite. It is also called a *cason* of sexagesimals.

ARABUS et Palmulæ, in Ancient Music, denoted the machinery, the strings of the polyplectra, were struck with a plectrum of quills.

ABACUS Harmonicus, the structure and disposition of the keys of a musical instrument, whether to be touched with the hands or the feet.

ABACUS Major, in metallurgic operations, the name of a trough used in the mines, in which the ore is washed.

ABADA, a wild animal in Benguela, Africa, about the size of a half grown colt, shy, and swift-footed, having a horn in its forehead, and another in the nape of the neck. The head and tail resemble an ox, and its feet are cloven. Medicinal virtues are attributed to the front horn by the natives.

ABADDON, a Hebrew word; in Greek Ἀβδδων, i. e. a *destroyer*; the name which St John, in the Revelations, gave to the king of the locusts and angel of the bottomless pit. Some suppose him to be Satan, or the devil; and the locusts which came out of the abyss, to be the zealots and robbers that infested Judea, and laid it waste, before Jerusalem was taken by the Romans. They identify Abaddon, the king of the locusts, with John of Gischala. Others think it was Mahomet who issued from the cave of Hira; and Bryant supposes it to be the name of Ophite, or the serpent deity anciently worshipped.

ABADIR, a title given by the Carthaginians to gods of the first order. In the Roman mythology, it is the name of a stone which Saturn swallowed, by the contrivance of his wife Ops, believing it to be his new-

born son Jupiter: hence it became the object of religious **ABADIR** worship.

ABAFEDE, a mountain in Egypt, where the magi are said to have resided. It was afterwards inhabited by Christian devotees, who lived in caves cut out at the foot.

ABAFT, the hinder part of a ship, or all those parts both within and without which lie towards the stern, in opposition to **AFORE**.—*Abaft*, is also used as a preposition, and signifies 'further aft,' or 'nearer the stern.'

ABAISSE, **ABAISSE**, in Heraldry, an epithet applied to the wings of eagles, &c., when the tip looks downwards to the point of the shield, or when the wings are shot : the natural way of bearing them being extended.

ABALUS, an island, as the ancients supposed, in the German ocean, called by Timæus, Basilin, and by Xenophon Lampacenus Bultia; now the peninsula of Scandinavia. Here, according to Pliny, some imagined that amber flowed from the trees. *Hist. Nat.* tom. 2, p. 770. ed. Hard.

ABAND', v. } Sax. *Bannan*: *Abannan*: past
 ABAND'ON, v. } participle, *Abanned*: *Band*,
 ABAND'ON, n. } *Bond*, *Bandou*, *bandoun*,
 ABAND'ONER. } *bouden*, *boudou*. From this
 ABAND'ONING. } past participle we have formed
 ABAND'ONMENT. } the verb *Abandon* (in Spenser
 written *Aband*), to band or bind, or put in bondage:
 to stay or remain in, to leave in, or give up to, a state
 of bondage or entire subjection.

To resign, to quit, to desert, to forsake; and consequently,

The barons of this land,
For him transailed seas, and brought him out of bond.
R. Bruce, p. 201.

When he of bond was brought for ransom that was riche.
Id. p. 201.

He saie Merlyn, in his deuyne, of him has said,
That three regions in his bewitch walle be laid.

Selcoathly he ends the man that is false
If he trust on his friends, thei begile him als
Begiled is William, taken is and londea.

Abundant, will be ought to be borne that is borne.
Garus and Got, 1, 12, in Jamieson.

Is this ganand, that I my purpos fallis
As cleue overcam, and may not fra ita
Withhold this king of Troy and his anays ?
Am I obsoled with so hard a destiny ?
Sun Pallan mycht on Grekes tak sic wraik
To turn thare achievis.

Douglas, books I, p. 14.
He that dredeth God, spareth not to do that him ought to do;
and he that loveth God, he wol do diligence to please God by his
werkis, and abandon himself to his might wel for to do.
Chaucer, The Prioress's Tale, vol. ii, p. 316.

Certes thus hath riches with flickering sight annoyed many: and
often when there is a throw out throw, hee cometh all the gulf,
all the precious stones y^e mowen be founde to haue in his bosom.
he wenth no wigt be worthy to haue soche things but he alone.

For he that _____
 Yare whole his hart, in will and thought
 And to himselfe kepeth right sought
 After this swift it is good reason
 He yare his good in abondan.

Answer, The Rymant of the Rose, fol. 1-27, col. 2

ABAND.
—
ABAN-
TIAS.

Moris his scene was coron'd,
Which so forlornly was abandon'd
To Christes loth, that met him by calle
Moris the christen of all.

Greene, h. ii.

Further John a man of perfecte holines, perceiving the envious
affections of his disciples, to thurst that he might heale their
weakness and abandon them from him and deliver them to Jesus:
he chose out of them two and sent them to Jesus.

*Erasmus's Paraphrase of N. T. by P. Uitali, an Mathew,
chap. x, fol. 48. c. 2.*

— those forerunners, which came from farre,
Grew great, and got large portions of land.
Tost in the realm as long they stronger were,
Then they which sought at first their helping hand,
And Vorberger enforce the kingdom to abound.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, h. ii. canto 10.

Reg. Madame wife, they say that I have dream'd,
And slept above some fiftene yeare or more.

Loef. I, and the time seems thirty yere now,
Being all this time abandon'd from your bed.

Shakespeare, Tem. of S. p. 210, act i. scena 1.

Emil. Oh sacred, shadow, cold, and constant queen,
Abandoner of revells, mirth, comtemplative.

*Brannont and Fletcher's Two Noble Kinsmen, act v. scena 1,
p. 445, fol. edit. MDCCLXXIX.*

Arrel. ——— You form reasons,
Just ones, for your abandoning the storm:
Which threaten your own ruin; but propose
No shelter for her bosom.

Ford's Lady's Tril, act i. scene 1.

See how he lies at random, carelessly diffused,
With languish'd head unprop'd,
As one just hope, abandon'd,
And by himself given over.

Milton's Samson Agonistes.

According to God's infallible judgment, we are very consider-
able; that our souls are capable of high regard; that it is a great
pity we should be lost and abandoned to ruin.

Burrows's Sermons.

Nor let her tempt that deep, nor make the shore,
Where our abandon'd youth she sees,
Shipwreck'd in luxury, and lost in ease;
Whom our Britannia's danger can alarm,
Nor William's exemplary virtue warn.

Prue.

He that *abandon* religion must act in such a contradiction to
his own conscience and best judgment, that he abuses and spoils
the faculty itself.

Hutch's 91 Sermons.

She loses all her influence. Cities then
Attract us, and neglected Nature places
Abandon'd, as unworthy of our love.

Corper's Task.

When thus the beam of justice is abandoned, an universal *abandon*-
ding of all other ports will succeed.

Burke.

ABANO, a village near Padua, in the republic of
Venice, famous among the ancients for its hot baths.
E. lon. 10°. 47'. N. lat. 45°. 30'.

ABANTES, a warlike people, originally from Thrace,
who settled in Phocæa, a country of Greece, where
they built a town, which they called Aba, after the
name of their leader. Some ancient authors say, the
Abantes went afterwards into the island Eubœa,
now called Negropont: others say the Abantes of
Eubœa came from Athens.

ABANTIAS, or ABANTIS, in Ancient Geography, a
name of the inland Eubœa in the Egean sea, extending
along the coast of Greece, from the promontory Sunium
in Attica to Thessaly, and separated from Boœtia by a
narrow strait called Euripus. The island was formerly
called Mæria, from its length; afterwards Abœnia
or Abantia, from the Abantes, a people originally of
Thrace, termed by Homer *αὐαντες Κορινθιοί*, from
wearing the hair long behind. They were called Curetes

from cutting their hair before, Reineccius supposes they
were Arabians who followed Cadmus into Eubœa.

ABAPTISTON, or ABAPTISTA, in Surgery, the
shoulder, or perforating part of the instrument called a
Trepan. This instrument, which is mentioned by Galen,
Fabricius ab Aquapendente, and others, was a conical
saw with a circular edge: modern surgeons, however,
prefer the cylindrical form. Various contrivances have
been recommended to obviate the danger that may
arise from want of dexterity, in performing the operation
of trepanning; and a new instrument has been lately
invented for this purpose, by Mr. Rodman, surgeon in
Paisley. It is so contrived, as to cut any thickness
of bone, without danger of injuring the brain; and as
no centre-pin is necessary, the accidents which have
sometimes happened by not removing it, when the
instrument in common use is employed, are completely
prevented. (*Philosoph. Mag.* April, 1800.)

ABARCA, an ancient kind of shoe used in Spain
for passing the mountains. It was made of raw hides,
and bound with cords, to secure the feet against the
snow.

ABARIM, high and steep mountains, opposite
Jericho, separating the country of the Ammonites and
Mosabites from Canaan. Nebo and Pithag were parts
of these mountains. (*Wald's Geog.* vol. ii. p. 152.)

ABARIMON, a valley of Scythia, at the foot of
mount Imaus, whose inhabitants, according to Pliny,
were Anthropophagi, little superior to wild beasts.
Their feet were turned backwards. (*Plin. Hist. Nat.*
tom. i. p. 370.)

ABAS, a Persiao weight for weighing pearls; one-
eighth less than the European carat.

ABAS, in Mythology, the son of Hypothoon and
Meganira, who entertained Ceres, and offered a sacri-
fice to her; but Abas ridiculing the ceremony, and
giving her opprobrious language, she sprinkled him
with a certain mixture she held in her cup, on which
he became a newt or water lizard.

ABASCIA, or ARCAHIA, the northern district of
the western division of Georgia in Asia. The inhabi-
tants are poor, thievish, and treacherous. They trade
in furs, buck and tiger skins, linen yarn, beewax,
and bees' wax: but their principal traffic consists in
the sale of their own children to the Turks, to whom
they are tributary; and to one another. They are
destitute of many necessities of life, and have nothing
among them that deserves to be called a town. They
are Christians only in name. The men are robust and
active, and the women remarkably beautiful. Anæsopea
is the capital. E. lon. from 39° to 43°. N. lat. from
43° to 45°.

ABASE,

ABASINO, s.

stand, go; the lower part of the

ABASEMENT, } foot; any thing low. (See ABASH.)

1. To put or bring low, to lower, to depress.

2. To lower, to degrade, to humble, to disgrace.

Our hynde hath do this thing amiss,
So to desert his minster;
That every man it might see,
And humbled him in such a wise
To them that were of none empire.

Greene.

This example was shewed to teach us, how the teachers of Gods
words should not grudge to descend from their highnes or perfec-
tion, and abuse themselves even to the lowliness of the weak,
thereby to wyne very many to thyrry Lorde.

Erasmus's Paraphrase of N. T. by P. Uitali, on S. Marke, ch. ii.

ABASE.—
ABASH.

And will she yet *abase* her eyes on me,
That crop the golden prime of this sweet prince.
And made her widow to a woful bed?

Shakespeare, Rich. III. act. i. sc. 2.

At this time also, the king's maester, with the advice of his
privy counsaile, did now purpose not onely the *abasing* of the sayd
copper monies, but also meant wholly to reduce them to bullion, to
the intent to deliver fine and good monies for them.

Grafton's Chronicle.

Her either cheek resembled blushing morn;
Or roses gules in field of lilacs burn;
Twist which an ivory wall so fair is raised,
That it is but *abased* when it's prais'd.

Drammoud.

If he that *abases* the prince's coin deserves to die, what is his
desert, that instead of the tried silver of God's word, stamps the
name and character of God upon base brass stuff of his own?

Hale's Golden Remains.

There is an *abasing* made of glory, and there is that lifeth
up his head from a low estate

Eccles. c. xx. v. 2.

It is a point of cunning to wait upon him with whom you speak
with your eye; as the Jewitis give it in precept; for there may
be many wise men that have secret hearts and transparent countenances:
yet this should be done with a demure *abasing* of your eye.

Lord Bacon's Essay on Canning.

Behold every one that is proud and *abases* him. Look on every
one that is proud and bring him low: and tread down the wicked
in their place.

Joh. el. 11, 12.

Heaven was to be earned only by penance and mortification; by
the austerities and *abasing* of a monk, not by the liberal, gener-
ous, and spirited conduct of a man. *Smith's Wealth of Nations.*

Abash'd it that immensity I see,
I shrink *abash'd* and yet aspire to Thee.

Cooper.

ABASH', v. } The past tense and past part
ABASHMENT. } of *Abase* was so anciently written
Abasit, Abaschid; whence the word *Abash* appears to
be formed; and is applied to the feelings of those who are
abashed, depressed, disgraced. In Wiclif it is
applied to the feelings which overpowered, abduced,
the witnesses of the miraculous restoration of
the damsel by Christ. *Abashe* is found in Gower, used as
a substantive. (p. 41.)

Now in Berwick born down, *abash* is that cunste
Joo gets the corow, thou lous the digwite.

R. Brunne, p. 272.

And he helde the hond of the damysel and seyde to his Tabita
cunty, that is to seyn, damysel. I seye to thee sarye. And anon
the damysel rose and wakide: and sche was of twelve year, and
then was *abashed* with a great stonoring.

Wiclif, Mark, chap. v.

Quill that the figur of Cereus and goist,
Of fer men stature then are quene sche was leist
Before me catus his sekand apperit thase.
Abasit I wot and woldeneynys start my hare.
Bykne mycht I sek, the vice in my helle as etek.

Douglas, booke ii. p. 64.

The town restlesse with fure as I sought,
Th' unlucky figur of Cereus goest.
Of stature more than wot, stood fore mine eyes.
Abashed then I wane: therewith my heave
Gan start right up: my voice stuck in my throte.

Surrey.

For the beo nat a lookend, to bydda and to be needy
Eke be that wrothe at the woude, be wilfulliche needy
Neres son ne needy, na non so pears deydle.

Fanon of Pierre Planchine, repr. 1813, p. 394.

And so the new *abashed* Nightingale,
That sunest first, when she beginneth sing
Who that she heareth say herdes tale,
Or is the judges any right steering,
And after other death her voice out ring.

Chaucer. Third book of Troilus, fol. 173, col. 2.

But the water kepte his course, and wette, at length the synages
[Carate] thyes: wherwith y' kynges *abashed*, steris backe and
sayde, all erlyly kynges may knowe that theyr powers be vayne,
and that noon is worthy to have the name of a kyng, but he that
has all thynges subiecte to his bestes.

Folys, repr. 1811, p. 219.

The kynges daughter, whiche this sight,
For pure *abashed* drew hir adring
And hidde her cleue vnder the bough,
And let hem still ride enogh.

Gower, Cent. d. bk. 4.

— Why then, (you princes)
Do you with cheekes *abash'd* behold our works,
And thinke then *abash*, which are (indeed) nought else,
But the protraction trials of great foes,
To finde penitence constance in men.

Shakespeare, Tro. & Orr. p. 81.

Yet all that could not from offright her hold,
Ne to recumfirt her at all prevail'd;
For, her fast heart was with the frozen cold
Besom'd so only, that her wit nigh fail'd,
And all her staves with *abashed* quite were quail'd.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, p. 164.

He that saw her words written in the plain table of her fair
face, thought it impossible there should therein be contained de-
ceit: and, therefore, so much the more *abashed*.

Silvery's Works.

They heard and were *abash'd*, and up they sprang
Upon the wing: as when men wot to watch
On duty, sleeping found by whom they dread,
Rouse and bestir themselves ere well awake.

Milton's Paradise Lost.

Baseness of birth is a great disengagement to some men, espe-
cially if they be wealthy, lear office, and come to prominence as a
common-wealth; then, if their birth be not answerable to their
calling, and to their fellows, they are much *abashed* and ashamed
of themselves.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

But when she Venus view'd without disguise,
Her shining neck beheld, and radiant eyes,
Awe'd and *abash'd* he turn'd his head aside,
Attempting with his robe his face to hide.

Congreve's Trance of Homer's Ulysses to Venice.

And harsh austerity, from whose rebuke
Young love and smiling wonder *abash* away
Abash'd and chill of heart, with sager frowns
Condemns the fair enchantment.

Abashe's Pleasures of Imagination.

ABASKAJA, a town in Siberia, on the river Ischim.
E. lon. 69°, S. N. lat. 50°, 10'.

ABASSA, ARABIA, or ABBAS, a province of the
Russian empire in Asia, divided into two districts,
called the GREATER and SMALLER ABASSA, and sup-
posed to contain a population of 150,000 souls. An
excellent breed of horses is found here. It is bounded
on the north and north-east by Circassia, on the south
by Miogrelia, and by the Black sea on the south-west.
The inhabitants are chiefly of Circassian origin; wild
and warlike in their manners; their language is said
to differ essentially from all the other Asiatic dialects;
and many of their customs are peculiar. If a wife at-
tain the age of thirty without children, or be unfruitful
for five consecutive years, she is repudiated. Christiani-
ty was once the professed religion of the country, but
the few traces of any religion, that now remain, are
Mahomedan. The soil is luxuriantly fertile, but very
ill cultivated.

ABASSI, or ABASSES, a silver coin in Persia, worth
two mamosoudis, or four chazes; being equivalent in
value to about sixteen pence of our money. It derives
its name from Schah Abbas II. king of Persia, under
whom it was struck.

ABATE.

ABATE', v.

A. S. *Bentan*, to beat. The word ex-ABATEMENT. } *ABATE* without the prefix *A*; though

ADA'TED. } more limited by modern usage in its

application. See *HABE*.

To beat or press down; to lower, to depress; to lessen, to diminish.

And reide two nonnyes, Worset that one was,
 And Ambrosius that other, to lede the troopes,
 An adle gaine off God wolde, for yowre vor to lede,
 And come to gode amendement, as heu that lyf lede.
Chaucer. The Personer's Tale, vol. ii. p. 231.

The kyng did saven his men, to abate Greyff's pride,
 And Hauld than lettaut agayne the Walach to ride.
Id. p. 63.

As God saith, the horrible direch abel gon and come upon the
 bedes of dampned folk; and this is, for as moche as the higher
 that they were in this present lif, the more shal they be abated
 and detouled in helles.
Id. p. 291.

He [the horse] broketh the ground with the hufes of his feet
 cheerfully in his strength, and ninthly to meet the harness mee.
 He layeth aside all fears, his stomach is not abated, other start-
 eth he a back for any wrong.
Bible, London 1539. Job, chap. xxxix.

And when the same hath eke the duske appost,
 And brought the day, it doth nothing abate
 The troubles of mine endless smart and paine. *Surry.*
 For that abatement he challenges thogh right,
 Edward thider had sent many a hardy knight.
Id. *Henry*, p. 278.

Hail, O weary night, O long and tedious night,
 Abate thy furies, shine comforts from the East,
 That I may hark to Athens by day-light,
 From these, that my poore company detest.
Shakspeare, Mid. Night's Dream, p. 156, act iii. sc. 2.

KNIGHT. My lord, I know not what the matter is, but to my
 judgement, your Highness is not satisfied with that ceremo-
 nious affection as you were wont; there's a great abatement
 of kindness appears as well in the general denials, as in the
 duke himself also, and your daughter.
Id. *Leor*, p. 287, act i. sc. 4.

Will come a day (hear this sad quake ye potent great ones)
 When you yourselves shall stand before a judge,
 Who in a pair of scales will weigh your actions,
 Without abatement of one grain.
Brommell and Fletcher's Plays.

Impiety of times, charity's abater,
 Falshood, when in thyself thyself deniest;
 Treason to counterfeit the seal of nature,
 The stamp of heaven, impressed by the highest.
Daniel's Complaint of Rosmond.

If we could arrest time, and strike off the sible wheels of his
 chariot, and like Joshua, bid the sun stand still, and make oppor-
 tunity tarry as long as he had occasion for it; this were something
 to excuse our delay, or at least to mitigate or abate the folly and
 unreasonableness of it.
Tillotson's Works.

Government may be too secure. The greatest tyrants have
 been those, whose titles were the most unquestioned. Whenever,
 therefore, the opinion of right becomes too predominant and super-
 stitious, it is abated by breaking the custom.
Fully's Moral Philosophy.

To ABATE, a nuisance, to ABATE a cattle, is, in
 English common law, to beat down or remove it; to
 ABATE a writ, is, by some exception, to defeat or
 overthrow it. Thus 'the writ of the demandant shall
 abate' that is, shall be disabled, frustrated, or over-
 thrown. 'The appeal abateth by covin'; that is, the
 accusation is defeated by deceit.

ABATE, in Horsemanship, implies the exact per-
 formance of any downward motion. A horse is said to
 abate, or take down his curvets, when he puts both his
 hind legs to the ground at once, and observes in all
 the times the same exactness.

ABATEMENT, in Heraldry, some figure introduced
 into coats of arms, to denote a dishonourable action,
 or the suppression of some mark of dignity originally
 belonging to them.

ABATIS, or ABATTIS, from the French *abattre*; a
 military fence, or obstruction, made of felled trees, or
 small wood, to prevent the approach of the enemy,
 while it serves as a breastwork to the defendants.

ABATOR, in Law, is applied to a person who
 takes possession of a house or lands, void by death,
 before the true heir.

ABATOS, in Ancient Geography, an island in the
 lake Moeris, celebrated for its papyrus, and as the
 burial place of Osiris.

ABBA, ABBAT, ABBOT, in Chaldee and Syriac,
 (ON, Father.) Titles of honour and authority, first de-
 rived from the literal signification of the word. In
 scripture ABBA is once used by Jesus Christ in prayer,
 and twice in the epistles, having in each place the ex-
 planation *πατήρ* attached to it. The Jews are said to
 have forbidden their slaves to use this title to their
 masters, while it was commonly adopted among them-
 selves as expressive both of honour and affection. In
 the eastern churches it was given at a very early date
 to their bishops;—and *Baba, Papa, Pope*, had their
 origin from the same root.

ABBAT, or ABBOT, in the fourth and fifth centuries
 was gradually, and at last distinctively, applied to the
 heads of those religious orders who then began to ex-
 clude themselves from the world. They were endowed
 with such opulence, and were so famed for their sancti-
 tude, that bishops were frequently chosen from their
 number; for in the first instance they assumed to
 themselves no active share in the government of the
 church, and were considered as the humblest of hy-
 men. At length the abbot, or archimandrite, became
 the priest of the house, and from the decrees of the
 councils held in the fifth century, were evidently at
 that time adopted among the clergy, and subject to the
 bishops and councils alone. They cultivated learning
 with considerable success, and gradually engrossed
 within their different establishments, its most impor-
 tant documents. In the seventh century they were
 made independent of episcopal jurisdiction, assumed
 the mitre, and bore the pastoral staff.

Through the whole of the dark ages riches and im-
 munities were heaped upon them. Kings, and dukes,
 and counts, abandoned their thrones and honours to
 submit to their sway; or themselves assumed the title
 of abbot, as amongst the highest civil distinctions.
 Hugh Capet, the founder of the third race of the French
 dynasty, was styled Hugh l'Abbe, or Hugh the Abbot.
 Many offices in the state were now acquired after by the
 abbots: we find them performing the functions of am-
 bassadors, and ministers, and occasionally adorning
 with their talents the highest stations. To their watch-
 fulness over the manuscripts and other monuments of
 antiquity, now almost wholly in their hands, it is but
 just to record, the whole Christian world became
 indebted. Their ambition, however, and their vices
 knew no bounds. Gregory VII. who was eagerly bent
 upon humbling the bishops, and transferring their pri-
 vileges to the Roman see, granted them exemptions both
 from the temporal authority of their sovereigns, and all
 other spiritual jurisdiction, besides that of Rome, before
 unknown. They assumed the titles of universal abbots,

ABATE.

AURA

AURA

ABBA. abbots-sovereign, abbots-general, &c. and 26 lords-abbots sat in the English parliament. With the history of MONACHISM at large, that of the various orders of abbots is more properly associated, and to that articles we therefore refer the reader. *Mosheim's Eccl. Hist. &c.*

ABBOTS REGULAR, those which take the vow, and wear the habit of their order.

ABBOTS IN COMMENDAM, seculars who have received tonsure, but are obliged by their bulls to take orders when of proper age.

ABBOT is also a title given to bishops whose sees were formerly abbays; and sometimes to the superiors or generals of some congregations of regular canons, as that of St. Genevieve at Paris, and of Montreal in Sicily. It was likewise usual, about the time of Charlemagne, for several lords to assume the title of count-abbots, *abbas committes*; as superintendents of certain abbays.

ABBACY, n. *Abbas* was introduced (says Skinner) into Europe from Syria with the Christian Religion. It is derived from the Syriac *Abbas*, Father. The application of the name to persons in monasteries was resisted by St. Jerome, as no infringement of the command to "call no man Father, upon the earth."

Dessein he adds al so, Cecily that that on

The eldest, that was at Carus house and abbas.

R. Gloucester, p. 370.

To chynche and to pover men he xof wret, as he wold

To abbeyes and to pover men laryche of hys gode.

A. p. 383.

For the abbot of Engelonds, and the abbas in men,

Shullen have a knok on here crownes and incurable the woods.

Finn of Pierr Plucknon, repr. 1613, p. 24.

And in this time was given unto the kyng by the consent of the great and fatte *Abbot*, all religious houses that were of the value of three hundred marks and under, in hope, that their great monasteries should have continued still; but even at that time one sayde in the parliament house, that there were as thornes, but the great *Abbot*es were purtyfyed old oaks, and they must needes folowe.

Greffon, vol. ii. p. 454.

The sovereigns in the different states of Europe endeavoured to recover the influence which they had once in the disposal of the great benefices of the church; by procuring, to the deans and chapters of each diocese, the restoration of their ancient right of electing the bishop; and to the monks of each *abbey*, that of electing the *abbot*.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

ABBÉ, a kind of secular clergyman, once popular in France; and amongst whom arose several men of great literary merit. They enjoyed certain privileges in the church, but no fixed station; being considered as professed scholars and academicians, and were principally occupied in public and private tuition. Some of them have risen to eminence in the state.

ABBESS, the superior of an abbey or convent of nuns, over whom she exercises nearly the same rights and authority as the abbots regular over their monks. Their powers were formerly very extensive; they are said to have assisted at ecclesiastical councils, and even to have been sometimes called to the English Wittenagemote, before the Conquest. Some abbesses have had the right of ordination a priest to act for them in those spiritual functions which their sex would not permit them to exercise; they have occasionally confessed their own nuns; and are allowed, by St. Basil, always to be present when the priest shall confess them. In

the Russian church, the abbess is called *Hegumina*; a secular priest performs divine service in the chapel of the house, but the nuns read the lessons and sing the hymns. "The nunneries in Russia, at present," says Mr. Pinkerton, "are properly nothing but asylums for aged or unfortunate females, who thus spend the remainder of their days in retirement; most of them usefully employed; and it were altogether incongruous with truth and justice to consider them as belonging to those retreats of licentiousness and vice, of which we have so many shocking accounts in ecclesiastical history." *Present State of the Greek Church.*

ABBAY, sometimes written *ABBATHRY*; a religious house, governed by a superior, under the title of abbot or abbess.

The jurisdiction of *Abbaye* was first confined to the immediate lands and buildings in possession of the house. As these establishments increased in importance, and were brought into the neighbourhood of cities and populous towns, they exercised extensive powers over their respective neighbourhoods; and in some cases issued coins, and became courts of criminal justice. In other instances they gave birth to towns and cities. Abbays, priories, and monasteries, differ principally in the extent of their particular powers and jurisdiction. All these establishments in the Greek church follow the rule of St. Basil. The Russian abbays and nunneries have been an object of peculiar attention in the policy of that government since the time of Peter the Great, who brought the whole discipline of them under such peculiar restrictions, as have effectually remedied their grosser inconveniences. The rage for entering into these retreats no longer exists; and, as all the higher ranks of the Russian clergy are taken from amongst them, it is a matter of just anxiety with the government, that such men only should be suffered to enter the order as may afterwards prove worthy of their important designation. Both the male and female establishments are divided into three classes, *Stauropegia*, *Cenobis* and *Laura*. The first two are directly under the government of the holy synod, and the last under that of the archbishops and bishops of their respective dioceses.

ABBEVILLE, a city of France, the former capital of Ponthieu, and now of the *arrondissement* of Abbeville (which comprises the ancient counties of Ponthieu and Vimeux), in the department of the Somme, a noble river which runs through the town. Its situation is beautiful, and highly adapted to the extensive trade it carries on in cloths of all descriptions, velvet, cord, and soap; besides its exports of grain, oil, hemp, and flax, which abound in the neighbourhood. Here are cotton-mills, bleaching, and dyeing grounds; and a celebrated manufactory of fine woollen cloth, established in 1663 by M. Von Robais (a Dutchman, patronised by Colbert), whose family still conduct it. Abbeville contains upwards of 30,000 inhabitants. Before the Revolution its ecclesiastical establishments were extensive and flourishing. It had a collegiate church, an abbey, a college with a public library, and thirteen parish churches. The college is still of some celebrity. It is about 85 miles N.W. of Paris, 52 S. of Calais, and 16 E. of the British Channel, from whence vessels of large burden can be worked close up to the town. E. lon. 2°. 6'. N. lat. 50°. 7'.

ABBACY.

**—
ABBEVILLE.**

ABBREVIATE.

ABBREVIATE, v.
 ABBREVIATE, n.
 ABBREVIATION,
 ABBREVIATION,
 ABBREVIATURE.

Ital. Abbreviare, from Lat. Brevis, which is from the Greek Βρεγος, Anglo-Saxon Breacan, to break.

To break or make short, to shorten, to abridge, to bring or reduce to a smaller space or compass by breaking off, or removing parts.

In all their writings, [the French] when they come to any matter that soundly any thing to their honour, it is written in the longest and mooste shewyng measure to their honour and worship. But if it sounde any thing to their dishonour, than shall it be *abridged* or *lyd*, that the trouble shall not be known.

Folger, repr. 1811, p. 333.

Of this Joseph, Troguus Pompeius, and also his *abreviator* Justinus do write in this manner: Joseph was the youngest among the brethren, whose excellent wit they fearing, soide him into egypte merchants, by whome he was brought into Egypt.

Grosvenor, vol. i. p. 17.

He that means to have his sickness turned into safety, and life into health and virtue, must make religion the employment of his sickness, and prefer the employment of his religion. For there are certain compendiums or *abreviators*, and shortenings of religion, fitted to several states.

Taylor's Holy Living and Dying.

At the creation the original of mankind was in two persons, but after the flood, their propagation issued at least from six; against this we might very well set the length of their lives before the flood, which were *abreviated* after, and in half this space contracted into hundreds and threescores.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The following collection of ABBREVIATIONS most commonly found on the Roman monuments and coins, will be useful in reading ancient inscriptions:

A.

A. Absolvo, absolotio, niant, aliquando, ager, albo, annos, argentum, Augustos, &c.

A. A. Auro argento.

A. A. A. F. F. Auro argento are fiendo feruenda.

A. A. S. L. M. Apud assum sibi legavit monometum.

Apud agrum sibi locum monumenti.

AB. Abdicavit.

AB. AUG. M. P. XXXXI. Ab Augustâ millia passuorum quadraginta uorum.

AB. AUGUSTOB. M. P. X. Ab Augustobrigâ millia passuorum decem.

A. B. M. Anima bene merenti.

ABN. Abnepos.

A. CAMB. M. P. XI. A Camboduno millia passuorum undecim.

ACCENS. COS. Accensus consulis.

A. COMF. XIII. A Compluto quatqor decem.

A. C. P. VI. A capite, vel ad caput pedes sex.

A. D. Ante diem. Agrius daodis.

ADJECT. H. S. IX. æ. Adjectis sestertis novem mille.

A. D. P. Ante diem pridie.

ADQ. Adquiescit vel adquisita pro acquisita.

ÆD. II. T. VIR. II. Ædilis iterum, duomvir iterum.

ÆD. II. VIR. QUINQ. Ædilis duomvir quinquennalis.

ÆD. Q. II. VIR. Ædilis quinquennalis duomvir.

ÆL. Ælius. Ælia.

ÆM. vel AIM. Æmilius. Æmilia.

ÆR. Ærarium Arum, pro stipendio.

A. K. Aote kalendas.

A. G. Aotio grato: Aulus Gellius.

AG. Ager, vel Agrippa.

ALA. I. Ala prima.

A. L. P. Animo libens posuit.

ABBREVIATION.

A. L. V. S. Aotio libens votum solvit.

A. MILL. XXXV. A millari triginta quique, vel ad millaria triginta quique.

A. M. XX. Ad milliare vigesimum.

AN. A. V. C. Anno ab urbe condita.

AN. C. H. S. Aono cent. hic situs est.

AN. DCLX. Aono sexcentesimo sexagesimo.

AN. II. S. Annos duos semis.

AN. IVL. Annos quadraginta sex.

AN. N. Aonos natus.

ANN. LIII. II. S. E. Aonorum quinquaginta, trium hic situs est.

ANN. NAT. LXVI. Aonos natus sexaginta sex.

ANN. P. Annoque prefectus.

ANN. PL. M. X. Aonos vel annis plus minus decem.

AN. G. XVI. Aono defunctus decimo sexto.

AN. V. XX. Aonos vixit viginti.

AN. P. M. Aonorum plus minus.

A. XII. Aois duodecim.

A. N. TR. Argentum novum Treverense.

AN. P. M. L. Aonorum plus minus quinquaginta.

AN. P. R. C. Anno post Romanum cooditum.

AN. V. P. M. II. Aois vixit plus minus duobus.

AN. XXV. STIP. VIII. Aonorum viginti quique stipendi, vel stipendiorum octo.

A. P. M. Amico posuit monumentum.

A. P. T. Amico posuit titulum.

A. P. V. C. Aonorum post urbem conditam.

APVD L. V. CONV. Apud lapidem quintum conveniunt.

A. RET. P. III. S. Ante retro pedes tres semis.

AR. P. Aram posuit.

ARG. F. X. Argenti pondo decem.

A. RION. A rationibus.

A. V. B. A viro bono.

A. V. C. Ab urbe condita.

A. V. L. Aonos vixit quinquaginta, animo vivit libens.

AVSP. S. Auspicante sacrum.

A. XX. II. EST. Aonorum viginti hic est.

B.

B. pro V, berna pro verba, bixit pro vixit, bibo pro vivo, biator pro victor, bidua pro vidua.

B. A. Bixit anais, bonus ager, bonus amabilis, bona aurea, bonum aureum, bonis auguriis, bonis auspiciis.

B. B. Bona bona, bene bene.

B. DD. Bonis deabus.

B. F. Bona fide, bona femina, bona fortuna, bene factum.

B. F. reversed thus, B. G. Bona femina, bona filia.

B. H. Bona hereditaria, bonorum hereditas.

B. I. I. Boni iudicis iudicium.

B. L. Bona lex.

B. M. P. Bene merito posuit.

B. M. P. C. Bene merito ponendum curavit.

B. M. S. C. Bene merito sepulcrum condidit.

BN. EM. Bonorum emptores.

BN. II. I. Bona hic invenies.

B. RP. N. Bono reipublice natus.

B. A. Bixit, id est, vixit anais.

BIGINTI. Viginti.

BIX. ANN. XXXI. M. IV. D. VII. Vixit annis octoginta onum, mensibus quatuor, diebus septem.

BX. ANUS. VII. ME. VI. DI. XVII. Vixit annos septem, menses sex, dies septem decem.

ABBREVIATION.

C.

- C. Cesar, Caio, Caius, censor, civitas, consul, condemnatio, conscriptus, conjux.
 C. C. Carissimae conjugi, calumniae causa, consilium cepit.
 C. C. F. Caius Cili filius.
 C. B. Commune bonum.
 C. D. Comitialibus diebus.
 C. H. Custos horarum vel heredium.
 C. I. C. Caius Julius Cesar.
 CC. VV. Clarissimi viri.
 CEN. Censor, centuria, centurio.
 CERTA. QUINQ. ROM. CO. Certamen quinquennale Romae conditum.
 C. F. C. clavi figendi causa.
 CL. Claudius.
 CL. V. Clarissimus vir.
 CH. COH. Cohors.
 C. M. vel C. A. M. Causa mortis.
 C. D. Civitas omnia.
 COH. I. vel II. Cohors prima vel secunda.
 COS. ITER. ET. TERT. DESIG. Consul iterum et tertium designatus.
 COS. TER. vel QUAR. Consul tertium vel quartum.
 COSS. Consules.
 COST. CUM LOC. H-S. \propto D. Custodiam cum loco sestertis mille quingentis.
 C. R. Civis Romanus.
 CS. IP. Cesar imperator.
 C. V. Centum viri.

D.

- D. Decius, decimus, decuria, decurio, dedicavit, dedit, devotus, dies, divus, Deus, dii, Dominus, domus, donum, datum, decretum, &c.
 D. A. Divus Augustus.
 D. B. I. Diis bene junctibus.
 D. B. S. De bonis suis.
 DCT. Detractum.
 DDVIT. Dedicavit.
 D. D. Donum dedit, datis datio, Deus dedit.
 D. D. D. Dono dederunt vel datum decreto decurionum.
 D. D. D. D. Dignum Deo donum dedicavit.
 DDDP. Depositum.
 D. N. Dominus noster. D. D. N. N. Domini nostri.
 D. D. Q. O. H. L. S. E. V. Diis desubusque omnibus huic locum sacrum esse voluit.
 DIG. M. Dignus memoria.
 D. M. S. Diis manibus sacrum.
 D. O. M. Deo optimo maximo.
 D. O. A. Deo optimo eterno.
 D. PP. Deo perpetuo.
 DR. Drusus.
 DR. P. Dare promittit.
 D. RM. De Romanis.
 D. RP. De republica.
 D. S. P. F. C. De sua pecunia faciendum curavit.
 DT. Duxerat.
 DVL. vel DOL. Dulcissimus.
 DEC. *XIII. AVG. XII. POP. XI. Decurionibus densis tredecim, augustalibus duodecim, populo undecim.
 D. II. ID. Die quarta idus.
 D. VIII. Diebus novem.
 D. V. ID. Die quinta idus.

E.

- E. Ejus, ergo, esse, est, erexit, exactum, &c.
 E. C. F. Ejus causa fecit.
 E. D. Ejus domus.
 ED. Edictum.
 E. E. Ex edicto.
 EE. N. P. Esse non potest.
 EG. Egredi, egregius.
 E. H. Ejus heres.
 EID. Idus.
 EIM. Ejusmodi.
 E. L. Ea lege.
 E. M. Elexit vel erexit monumentum.
 EM. Q. Equitum magister.
 EQ. O. Equitum ordo.
 EX. A. D. K. Ex ante diem kalendas.
 EX. A. D. V. K. DEC. AD. PRID. K. IAN. Ex ante diem quinto kalendas Decembris ad pridie kalendas Januarii.
 EX. H-S. X. P. F. I. Ex sestertis decem parvis fieri jussit.
 EX H-S. GLY. N. Ex sestertis mille nummum.
 EX H-S. \propto \propto \propto Ex sestertis mille nummum.
 EX H-S. N. CC. L. \propto D. XL. Ex sestertis nummorum ducentis quinquaginta millibus, quingentis quadraginta.
 EX H-S. DC. \propto D. XX. Ex sestertis sexcentis millibus, quingentis viginti.
 EX KAL. IAN. AD KAL. IAN. Ex kalendis Januarii ad kalendas Januarii.

F.

- F. Fabius, fecit, factum, faciendum, familia, famula, fastus, Februarius, feliciter, felix, fides, fieri, fit, femina, filia, filius, frater, finis, flamen, forum, fluvius, fanatum, fuit.
 F. A. Filio amantissimo vel filiae amantissimae.
 F. AN. X. F. C. Filii vel filiae auctorum decem faciendum curavit.
 F. C. Fieri vel faciendum curavit, fidei commissum.
 F. D. Flamen Dialis, filius dedit, factum dedicavit.
 F. D. Fide jussor, fundum.
 FEA. Femina.
 FE. C. Fenne centum.
 FF. Fabre factum, filius familias, fratris filius.
 F. F. F. Ferro, flamma, fame, fortior, fortuna, futo.
 FF. Fecerunt.
 FL. F. Flavii filius.
 F. FQ. Filiis filiabusque.
 FIX. ANN. XXXIX. M. I. D. VI. HOR. SCIT. NEM. Vixit annos triginta novem, mensem unum, dies sex, horas scit nemo.
 FO. FR. Forum.
 F. R. Forum Romanum.

G.

- G. Gellius, Gaius pro Censu, genius, gens, gaudium, gesta, gratia, gratis, &c.
 GAB. Gabinus.
 GAL. Gallus, Gallerius.
 G. C. Genio civitatis.
 GEN. P. R. Genio populi Romani.
 GL. Gloria.
 GL. S. Gallus Sempiternus.
 GN. Gneus pro Censu, genius, gens.

ABBREVIATION.

ABBR- GNT. Gentes.
VIATION GRA. Gracchus.
GRC. Græcus.

H

H. Hie, habet, hastatus, hæres, homo, hora, hostis, herus.
H. A. Hoc anno.
H.A. Hadrianus.
H.C. Hunc, huius, hic.
HER. Heres, hereditas, Herennius.
HER. *vel* HERC. S. Herculi sacrum.
H. M. E. II-S. CCLXXX. CCXXX. IXXX. M. N. Hoc monumentum erexit sestertius viginti quinque mille nummum.
H. M. AD. H. N. T. Hoc monumentum ad hæredes non transit.
H. O. Hostis occisus.
HOSS. Huxes.
H. S. Hic situs *vel* situs, sepultus *vel* sepulta.
H-S. N. IIII. Sestertius nummum quatuor.
H-S. CCCC. Sestertius quatuor centum.
H-S. 0. N. Sestertius mille nummum.
H-S. 0. CCLXXX. N. Sestertius novem mille nummum.
H-S. CCLXXX. CXXX. Sestertius viginti mille.
H-S. XXX. N. Sestertius viginti mille nummum.
H. SS. Hic supra scriptis.

I

I. Janius, Julius, Jupiter, ibi, id est, immortalis, imperator, inferi, inter, invenit, invictus, ipse, iterum, iudex, iussit, ius, &c.
IA. Istra.
I. AG. In agro.
I. AGI. In angulo.
IAD. Jamdudum.
IAN. Janus.
IA. RI. Jam respondi.
I. C. Curia consultus, Julius Cæsar, iudex cognitionum.
IC. Hic.
I. D. Inferis diis, Jovi dedicatum, Isidi deæ, iussa deæ.
ID. Idus.
I. D. M. Jovi Deo magno.
I. F. *vel* I. FO. In foro.
I. F. Interfuit. IFT. Interfuerunt.
I. FNT. In fronte.
IG. Igitur.
I. H. Jacet hic.
I. I. In iure.
IM. Imago, immortalis, Imperator.
I. M. CT. In medio civitatis.
IMM. Immolavit, immortalis, immunia.
IN. Inimicus, inscriptis, interea.
IN. A. P. XX. In agro pedes viginti.
I. R. Jovi regi, Junoni reginæ, jure rogavit.
I. S. *vel* I. SN. In senatum.
I. V. Justus vir.
IVV. Juventus, Juvenalis.
IIV. Duum-vir, *vel* duum-viri.
III. V. *vel* III. VIR. Trium-vir, *vel* trium-viri.
IIII. VIR. Quatuor-vir, *vel* quatuor-viri, *vel* quatuor viratus.
IIIII. V. *vel* VIR. Sextum-vir, *vel* se-vir, *vel* sex-vir.
IDNE. *vel* IND. *aut* INDICT. Indictio, *vel* indictione.

K

K. Cæso, Caius, Cæio, Cælius, Carolus, calumnia, can-

didatus, caput, carissimus, clarissimus, castra, co-
hens, Carthago, &c.

KARC. Carcer.
KK. Carissimi.
KM. Carissimus.
K. S. Carus suis.
KR. Chorus.
KR. AM. N. Carum amicis noster.

L

L. Lucius, Lucia, Lælius, Lollus, latus Latinus, latum, legavit, lex, legio, libens *vel* libens, liber, libera, libertus, liberta, libra, locavit, &c.
L. A. Lex alia.
L.A. C. Latini coloni.
L. A. D. Locus alteri datus.
L. AG. Lex agraria.
L. AN. Lucius Annus, *vel* quinquaginta annis.
L. AP. Ludi Apollinares.
LAT. P. VIII. E. S. Latum pedes octo et semis.
LONG. P. VII. L. P. III. Longum pedes septem, latum pedes tres.
L. ADQ. Locus adquisitus.
L. D. D. D. Locus datus decreto decurionum.
LECTIST. Lectisternum.
LEG. I. Legio prima.
L. E. D. Lege ejus damnatus.
LEG. PROV. Legatus provincie.
LIC. Licinius.
LICT. Lictor.
LL. Libentissimè, liberi, libertas.
L. O. Lingua orientales.
LVD. SEC. Ludi sæculares.
LVPERC. Lupercales.
LV. P. F. Ludos publicos fecit.

M

M. Marcus, Marca, Martius, Mutius, maceria, magister, magistratus, magnus, manes, mancipium, marmoreus, Marti, mater, maximus, memor, memoria, mensis, meus, miles, militavit, militis, mille, missus, monumentum, mortuus, &c.
MAG. EQ. Magister equitum.
MAR. VI. T. Mars ultor.
MAX. POT. Maximus pontifex.
MD. Mandatum, mille quingenti.
MED. Medicus, medius.
MER. Mercurius, mercator.
MERK. Mercurialis, mercatus.
MES. VII. DIEB. XI. Mensibus septem, diebus undecim.
M. I. Maximo Jovi, matri Idæe *vel* Isidi, militia jux, monumentum jussit.
MIL. COH. Miles cohortis.
MIN. *vel* MINER. Minerva.
M. MON. MNT. MONET. Moneta.
M. *vel* MS. Mensis *vel* menses.
MNF. Manifestus.
MNM. Munusculum.
M. O. P. Marito obsequens posuit.
M. P. II. Milia passuum duo.
MV. MN. MVN. MVNIC. Municipium *vel* municeps.

N

N. Neptunus, Numerius, Numeria, Nonius, Nero, nam, non, natus, natio, nefastus, nepos, neptus, niger, nomen, noster, numerarius, numerator, numerus, nummus *vel* numisma, nomen.

ABBRE-
VIATION.

NAV. Navis.
N. B. Numeravit hirus pro vivis.
NB. vel NHL. Nobilis.
N. C. Nero Caesar, vel Nero Claudius.
NEG. vel NEGOT. Negotiator.
NEP. S. Neptuno sacrum.
N. F. N. Nobili familia notus.
N. L. Non liquet, non licet, non longe, nominis Latini.
N. M. Nonius Macrinus, non malum, non minus.
NN. Nostri.
NNR. vel NR. Nostorum.
NO. Nobis.
NOBR. November.
NON. AP. Nonis Aprilis.
NQ. Namque, nunquam, nunquam.
N. V. N. D. N. P. O. Neque vendetur, neque donabitur, neque pignori obligabitur.
NVP. Nuptiae.

O

O. Officium, optimus, olla, omnis, optio, ordo, onsa, ostendit, &c.
OB. Obiit.
OB. C. S. Ob civis servatos.
OCT. Octavianus, October.
O. E. B. Q. C. Osa ejus bene quiescant condita.
O. H. F. Omnibus honoribus functus.
ONA. Omnia.
OO. Omnes, omnino. O. O. Optimus ordu.
OP. Oppidum, opiter, oportet, optimus, opas.
OR. Ornamentum.
OTIM. Optimus.

P

P. Publius, passus, patria, pecunia, pedes, perpetuus, pius, plebs, populus, pontifex, posuit, potestas, praeses, praetor, pridie, pro, post, provincia, puer, publicus, publice, primus, &c.
PA. Pater, Patricius.
PAE. ET ARR. COS. Peto et Arrio consultius.
P. A. F. A. Postulo an fas auctor.
PAR. Parens, Parilia, Parthicus.
PAT. PAT. Pater patrie.
PBLC. Publicus.
PC. Procurator.
P. C. Post consultum, patres conscripti, patronus coloniae, pondum curavit, praefectus corporis, pactum convectum.
PED. CXVS. Pedes centum quindecim semis.
PEG. Peregrinus.
P. II. α. L. Pondo duorum semis librarum.
P. II. :: Pondo duo semis et triente.
P. KAL. Pridie kalendas.
POM. Pompeius.
P. P. P. C. Propria pecunia ponendum curavit.
P. R. C. A. DCCCXLIH. Post Romam conditam annis octingentis quadraginta quatuor.
PRO. Proconsul. P. PR. Propraetor. P. PRR. Propraetores.
PR. N. Pro nepos.
P. R. V. X. Populi Romani vota decemalia.
PS. Passus, plebscitum.
PUD. Pudicus, pudica, pudor.
PUR. Purpureus.
VOL. XVII.

Q

Q. Quinquennalis, quartus, quantus, quando, quantum, qui, quae, quod, Quintus, Quintius, Quintilianus, questor, quadrans, questus.
Q. B. AN. XXX. Qui lxxit, id est vixit, annos triginta.
QM. Quomodo, quem, quoniam.
QQ. Quinquennalis. QQ. T. Quoquo versum.
Q. R. Quersur reipublice.
Q. V. A. III. M. N. Qui vel quae vixit annos tres, menses novem.

R

R. Roma, Romanus, rex, reges, Regularis, rationalis, Ravennae, recta, recto, requiritur, retro, rostra, rudera.
RC. Rescriptum.
R. C. Romana civitas.
REF. C. Reficiendum curavit.
REG. Regio.
R. P. RES. P. Respublica.
RET. P. XX. Retro pedes viginti.
REC. Requiesci.
RMS. Romanus.
ROB. Robigalia, Robigo.
RS. Responsum.
RVF. Rufus.

S

S. Sacrum, sacellum, scriptus, semis, sensus, sepultus, sepulcrum, sanctus, servus, serua, Servius, sequitur, sibi, situs, solvit, sub, stipendium, &c.
SAC. Sacerdos, sacrificium.
S.E. vel S.E.C. Saeculum, saeculares.
SAL. Salus.
S. C. Senatus consultum.
SCI. Scipio.
S. D. Sacrum this.
S. F. Q. O. ET P. R. Senatus, equesterque ordo et populus Romanus.
SEMP. Sempiternus.
SL. SVL. SYL. Sylla.
S. L. Sacer ludus, sine lingua.
S. M. Sacrum manibus, sine manibus, sine malo.
SN. Sensus, sententia, sine.
S. P. Sine pecunia.
S. P. Q. R. Senatus populusque Romanus.
S. P. D. Salutem plurimam dicit.
S. T. A. Sine vel sub tutoris auctoritate.
SLT. Scilicet.
S. E. T. L. Sit ei terra levis.
SIC. V. SIC. X. Sicut quinquennalis, sic decemalis.
STVE. XVIIII. Stipendia novem decem.
ST. XXV. Stipendia triginta quinque.

T

T. Titus, Tullius, tantum, terra, tibi, ter, testamentum, titulus, terminus, trarius, tribunus, turma, tutor, tutela, &c.
TAB. Tabula. TABVL. Tabularius.
TAR. Tarquinius.
TB. D. F. Tibi dulcissimo filio.
TB. PL. Tribunus plebis.
TB. TI. TIB. Tiberius.
T. F. Titus Flavius, Tui filius.
THR. Thrax.
T. K. Titus Livius, Tui libertus.
TIT. Titulus.
T. M. Terminus, thermæ.

ABBRE-
VIATION.

ABBRE-
VIATION

TR. PO. Tribunitis potestas.
TRAJ. Trajanus.
TUL. Tullius vel Tullius.
TR. V. Trium-vir.
TR. QTS. Titus Quintus.
O rel TH. AN. Mortuus anno.
OXII. Defunctus viginti tribus.

V

V. Quinque, quintò, quintum.
V. Vitellius, Volens, Volero, Volusus, Vopiscus, vale,
valeo; Vesta, vestalis, vesilis, vester, veteranus, vir,
virgo, virus, vixit, votum, vovit, urbs, usus, uxor,
victus, victor, &c.
V. A. Veterano assignatum.
V. A. I. D. XI. Vixit annum unum, dies undecim.
V. A. L. Vixit annos quingenta.
V. B. A. Viri boni arbitratu.
V. C. Vale conjux, viveas curavit, vir consularis, vir
clarissimus, quintum consul.
VDL. Videlicet.
V. E. Vir egregius, visum est, verum etiam.
VESP. Vespasianus.
VI. V. Sextum-vir. VII. V. Septem-vir. VIII. VIR.
octum-vir.
VIX. A. FF. C. Vixit annos ferme centum.
VIX. AN. μ . Vixit annos triginta.
ULPS. Ulpianus, Ulpius.
V. M. Vir magnificus, viveas mandavit, volens merito.
V. N. Quinto nonis.
V. MUN. Vias manavit.
VOL. Volcanis, Voltinia, Volusus.
VONE. Bonne.
VOT. V. Votis quinquennialibus.
VOT. V. MULT. X. Votis quinquennialibus, multis
decennialibus.
VOT. X. Vota decennialia.
VOT. XX. vel XXX. vel XXXX. Vota vicennialia, aut
tricenaria, aut quadragenaria.
V. R. Urbs Roma, votum reddidit.
VV. CC. Viri clarissimi.
UX. Uxor.

X

X. AN. Annalibus decennialibus.
X. K. OCT. Decimo kalendas Octobris.
X. M. Decem milia. X. P. Decem pondus.
X. V. Decemvir. XV. Vir. Quindecimvir.
The Jewish authors and copyists do not content
themselves with abbreviating words like the Greeks and
Latins, by retrenching some of the letters or syllables;
but frequently take away all but the initial letters,
they then take the initials of several succeeding words,
join them together, and, adding vowels to them, make
a sort of barbarous compound, representative of all
those which they have thus abridged. Thus, *Rabbi*
Moses ben Maimon, in their abbreviation is *Rambam*, &c.

*The following are the most common Abbreviations among
the English.*

A. Answer.
A. B. or B. A. Bachelor of Arts.
ABP. Archbishop.
A. D. Anno Domini, in the Year of our Lord.

ABBRE-
VIATION

A. M. Artium Magister, Master of Arts; or Anno
Mundi, in the Year of the World.
ANA, a physical term, signifying the like quantity.
AP. Apostle. April.
A. R. Anno Regim, Queen Anne; or Ann Regni, in
the Year of the Reign.
AST. P. G. C. Professor of Astronomy in Gresham
College.
AUG. August.

B

BART. Barouet.
B. D. Bachelor of Divinity.
BP. Bishop.
B. V. Blessed Virgin.

C

C. C. C. Corpus Christi College.
CHAP. Chapter.
CL. Clerk, Clergyman.
CR. Creditor.
C. R. Carolus Rex, King Charles.
C. S. Custos Sigilli, Keeper of the Seal.
C. P. S. Custos Privati Sigilli, Keeper of the Privy Seal.

D

D. Duke, Duchy, Duchess, &c.
D. Denarius, a penny.
D. D. Doctor of Divinity.
DR. Doctor, or Debtor.
DEC. or 10 HER. December.
DEUT. Deuteronomy.
D. DIT. DITTO. The same.

E

E. Earl, east.
E. G. or EX. GR. Exempli Gratia, as for example.

F

FEB. February
F. R. S. Fellow of the Royal Society.

G

GEN. Genesis.
G. R. Georgius Rex, King George; or Gulielmus Rex,
King William.

H

H. S. Hic Sitas, Hero lies.

I

IBID. Ibidem, in the same place.
ID. Idem, the same.
I. E. Id est, that is.

J

J. H. S. Jesus Hominum Salvator, Jesus the Saviour
of Men.
JAN. January.
J. D. Juris Doctor, Doctor of Law.
J. U. D. Juris Utriusque Doctor, Doctor of both Laws,
that is, of the Civil and Canon Law.
J. R. Jacobus Rex, King James.
JUL. July, Julius.
JUN. June, Junius.

K

K. King.
KNT. Knight.

ABBREVIATION

L

- L. Liber, a book; Libra, a pound sterling.
 L.B. pound weight.
 Ld. Lord.
 L. J. C. Lord Chief Justice.
 L. L. D. Legum Doctor, Doctor of Laws.
 L. S. Locus Signifi, the place of the Seal in writings.

M

- M. A. Master of Arts.
 MAR. March.
 M. D. Medicine Doctor, Doctor of Physic.
 MR. Master.
 MRS. Mistress.
 MS. Manuscript.
 MSS. Manuscripts.
 M. S. Memoriam Sacrum, Sacred to the Memory.

N

- N. B. Nota Bene, mark well.
 N. S. New Style.
 NOV. or 9 BER, November.

O

- O. S. Old Style.
 OCT. or 8 BER, October.
 OZ. Ounce.

P

- P. Per, by.
 PER CENT. Per Centum, by the hundred.
 P. M. G. Professor of Music in Gresham College.
 PROF. TH. GR. Professor Theologie Greshamensis,
 Professor of Divinity in Gresham College.
 P. S. Postscript.

Q

- Q. Queen, or Question.
 Q. Quadrans, a farthing.
 Q. D. Quasi dicat, as if he should say.
 Q. L. Quantum libet, as much as you please.
 Q. S. Quantum sufficit, a sufficient quantity.

R

- R. Rex, King; Regina, Queen.
 R. P. Reginus Professor, King's Professor.
 R. S. S. Regim Societatis Socius, Fellow of the Royal Society.

S

- S. or ST. Saint.
 S. Solidus, a shilling.
 S. A. Secundum Artem, according to Art.
 S. N. Secundum Naturam, according to nature.
 S. T. P. Sanctus, Theologie Professor, Professor of Divinity.
 SEP. or 7 BER, September.

V

- V. D. M. Verbi Dei or (Divi) Minister, a Preacher of God's word.
 VI. VIDE. See.
 VIZ. Videlicet, that is.
 &c. et cetera, and the rest, or so forth.

ABCEADARY, ABCEADARIAN, or Abceadarian, a term applied to those compositions whose parts are disposed in alphabetical order: thus we say, Abceadarian psalms, lamentations, hymns, &c.; such are Psal. xlv. xxxiv. cxix. &c. This is the most obvious indication of verse in the Hebrew poetical books, and was no doubt intended for the assistance of the memory. Consult LEWTH'S Preliminary Dissertation to his Translation of Josiah. It is also applied to a teacher of the rudiments of learning.

When he [Thomas Farnside] landed in Cornwall, his distresses made him stoop to low, as to be abceadarian, and several were taught their horn-books by him.

Wood's Athenæ Oxonienses, p. 104.

ABCOURT, a small town in the vicinity of St. Germain, a few leagues distant from Paris. It is celebrated for a chalybeate water, impregnated with fixed air and the fossil alkali, like the waters of Spa and Hooington.

ABDALS, a set of eastern fanatics, whose pretended inspirations excite them to the most cruel acts of madness. They are wont to sally forth into the streets, and to attempt the destruction of every eye whose notions of religion differ from their own. Death in such a service is esteemed a martyrdom among them.

ABDERA, an ancient maritime town of Thrace, on the east side of the Nessus, near its mouth. It is stated in some writers to have been built by Hercules, in memory of Abderus, one of his favourite companions. The Clazomenians and Teians completed it, and from them it took its name *Abdera Tejorum colonia*. Many accounts are given of its unwholesome air and productions; and the stupidity of the inhabitants, from which the phrase *Abderitica mens* has its origin. But it gave birth to Democritus, Protagoras, Anaxarchus, and Hecateus.

ABDICATE, v. } Ab: dico, *to say*, right, to go from
 ANOUCATION, } a right, to go from, quit or leave,
 ANOUCANT. } put away from, or deprive of, that
 which has been possessed by law or right.

To resign, to disclaim, to renounce, to dispose of.

28th Jan. 1688-1689.—At length the house came to this grand resolution:—Resolved, That king James the Second, having endeavored to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people, and, by the advice of Jesuits, and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby become vacant.

Parliamentary Reports.

Gratias himself, and all the authors that treat of this matter, and the nature of it, do agree, that if there be any word or action that doth sufficiently manifest the intention of the mind and will to part with his office, that will amount to an *abdication* or renouncing.

Id.

O Saviour, it was ever thy manner to call all men unto thee; when didst thou ever derive any one from thee? neither had it been so now, but to draw thee closer unto thee, whom thou seemest for the time to *abdicate*.

Bishop Hall's Works.

Great Pan, who went to chase the fair,
 And lov'd the spreading oak, was there;
 Old Saturn too, with upstart eyes,
 Beheld his abdicat'd slaves.

Addison's Poem to Sir Godfrey Kneller.

The mortification of unreasonable desires, the suppression of irregular passions, the loving and blessing our enemies, the renouncing worldly vanities and pleasures, the rejoicing in afflictions, the voluntary abstinence of our eatables in some cases, yea, exposing life itself to inevitable hazard and loss, are not chimerical propositions of impossible performances; but duties really practicable.

Barnes's Sermons.

ABDI-
CATE

ABEAR.

What is all righteousness that men desire?
What, but a world bargain for the skies?
But Christ as soon would abhorde his own,
As stoop from heav'n to sell the proud a throne.

Cooper's Truck.

ABDICATION, a voluntary resignation by a superior magistrate of his office and dignity. A monarch is properly said to *abdicate* his throne when he entirely and simply renounces all pretensions to the kingly authority, either for himself or his successors. In this sense Diocletian, who furnished the first royal example of this kind, and Maximian, on the same day, publicly divested themselves of the imperial purple. But what is sometimes called the *abdication* of Charles V., was properly only a *resignation*, as that emperor gave up his hereditary dominions in favour of his son Philip II. The word came frequently into use in this country at the Revolution, and occasioned a memorable debate in Parliament, from which we have given an extract above.

Among the Greeks and Romans, when a father expelled his son from his family, he was said to have *abducted* him; and all children so *abducted* during the father's lifetime were *disinherited* at his death; but those who were only *disinherited* were not therefore *abducted*. The Greeks were more strict in their inquiries into the grounds of this unnatural act of *abduction* than the Romans. The Athenian laws required the appearance of the parent in the presence of competent judges, before he could even *disinherit* his son.

ABDOMEN, in Anatomy, from *abdo*, to hide; that part of the trunk of the body which lies between the thorax and a circular ridge of bone which separates it from the pelvis.

ABDOMINAL RING, an aperture through which the spermatic vessels pass in men, and the ligaments rotunda uteri in women.

ABDOMINALES, or **ABDOMINAL FISHES**, the fourth order of the fourth class of animals, in the Linnæan system; having the ventral fins placed behind the pectoral in the abdomen, and the branchia osculated.

ABDUCE, *v. t.* *Ab:* *duco*, to lead from, to draw, *Annuction.* } bring, or take away from, to withdraw.

The noun is much used by writers on English law, and is applied to the forcible taking away of a wife or child; and to common kidnapping.

If beholding a crucifix, we *upstare* either upward or downward the pupil of one eye, and behold it with one, it will then appear but singly; and if we *abduce* the eye unto either corner, the object will not duplicate.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

ABDUCTION, or **ABRUPTION**, in Surgery, a kind of transverse fracture, in which the broken extremities of the bone recede from each other.

ABRUPTION, in Law, the act of carrying off a woman and marrying her against her will.

ABDUCTORES, or **ABDUCTORS**, in Anatomy, a name given to several of the muscles, from their serving to withdraw, open, or separate, the parts into which they are inserted.

ABEAR, *v. t.* } See **BEAR**.
ABRAVING. }

Applied to the behaviour or conduct.

The noun *Abearing* has been succeeded in modern writers on English law by *Abearance*.
Upon assurance taken of the said Huzartha, that there after he should be of good *abeyance* to warden the kyng, he clerly forgasen unto hym all his former offences.

Falgar, rep. 1811, p. 141.

So did the Faery Knight himself *abear*,
And stooped off, his head from shame to shield:
No shame to stoop, once head more high to rear,
And much to gain, a little far to yield:
So stoutest knights doen *abearance* in field.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, books fifth, canto xii.

ABE'CHED. *Abeched* (says Skinner) seems from the context to be satisfied: from the French *Abbecher*, to feed (from *Bee*, the Beak) as birds feed their young by inserting their beak.

"*Abbecker*. To feed as birds do their young; to put into the mouth of." Cotgrave.

But might I gotten as ye toble,
So muchel, that my lady wold
Me feds with hir gladd semblant,
Though me lacke all the remoument:
Yet shold I sound in ben *abeched*,
And for the tyme wel reformed.

Gower, Con. d. b. v.

ABED, *a.* On bed, (See **BAO**.)

Somde mdd, that his side wrode in at on bepe,
To habbe income boon vuarmed, and some *abede* aalepe.
R. Gloucester, p. 547.

Hir byrtell, and hir mantell she,
Abode upon his bedde he speede;
And thus they slepe both a *bedde*.

Gower, Con. d. b. v.

The sulen sight had der black curtain spread,
Let'sing that day had tarried so long
And that the morrow might be long *abed*,
She all the hean's with dusky clouds had hung.

Drayton's Harriot's Works.

Delight is layd *abed*; and pleasure, past;
No mune our shines; clouds han all overcast.
Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar.

The abilities of man must fall short on one side or other, like too scanty a blanket when you are *abed*.

See *Wm. Temple's Works*.

ABELIANS, **ABOLITES**, or **ABOLIONANS**, heretics which appeared about the reign of Arcadius, in the diocese of Hippo in Africa, and disappeared in the reign of Theodosius. This sect pretended that Abel was married, but died without having known his wife. Their peculiarity was derived from this doctrine, which they carried into practice, by enjoining men and women, upon entering into the matrimonial state, to continence. They moreover adopted a boy and a girl, who were to inherit their possessions, and to marry upon the same obligation of continence. See **AUGUST**. *Op.* tom. 6. **BOCHART**. *Geog. Sac.* lib. ii. c. 16.

ABELLA, a town of Campania, mentioned by Virgil, lib. vii. v. 740. and by Silius, lib. viii. v. 544; whose inhabitants, called *Appellani*, were, according to Justin, a colony of Chalcidians. It was famous for its nuts, called *Avellane*, and also for its apples. The ancient walls enclose a circuit of near three miles, and the environs are remarkable for their excellent fruit and honey.

ABENOW, a mountain of Svanbia, twenty-three miles from Friburg. It is the source of the Danube, and gives name to a chain of mountains extending from the Rhine to the Neckar, and from the Forest Towns to Thorshelm.

ABEN-
RADE.
—
ABER-
BROTH-
OCK.

ABENRADE, or **APENRADE**, a mountainous district, and jurisdiction of Sleswick, in Denmark. The capital of the same name is situated on a spacious bay with a good harbour. It is encompassed on three sides by high mountains. E. lon. 9° 14'. N. lat. 55° 6'.

ABERAVON, a borough town of Glamorganshire, at the mouth of the Avon, governed by a portreeve. The iron-works near it have given it some importance. The delightful seat of Lord Vernon is in the immediate neighbourhood.

ABERBROTHOCK, diminutively called **ABROATH**, a royal burgh, and small sea-port on the eastern coast of Scotland, in the sheriffdom or county of Forfar. Its name is derived from the rivulet Brothie, near the mouth of which it is situated. Here are two parish churches, the church of Aberbrothock, and that of St. Vigean's; also an episcopal chapel, and some places of worship belonging to the protestant dissenters. Neither the streets nor the public buildings are much calculated to arrest the attention of the topographer; although there are some remains of an abbey, which was founded about the year 1178, for certain monks of the Tyronensian order, in honour of the haughty and inflexible Thomas à Becket. This monastery was founded by William (the successor of Malcolm IV.), who was surnamed the Lion on account of his valour. About three years ago, i. e. a. n. 1814, the barons of the exchequer, much to the credit of their taste, directed the adoption of proper measures to prevent the farther decay of these venerable ruins. On this occasion certain human bones were discovered, supposed to be those of the royal founder; but there was no monumental, or other memorial, to point out the precise situation of his burial-place. William de Lion died in the year 1214.

During the year 1820, a parliament was held within the walls of this magnificent building. At this parliament the Scottish barons did themselves great credit by their patriotic resistance of the foreign jurisdiction which the papal see attempted to impose on their country; and declared, that as long as an hundred men should remain, they would not cease to defend their liberties and their independence. The style of this manifesto has been noticed as superior to any thing of the kind in that dark period. Soon after the commencement of the reformation in 1560, this structure was nearly destroyed; and till the year 1814, as already stated, had been gradually yielding to the ravages of time. The monastic records, however, were happily preserved; a circumstance worthy of particular notice, when we consider the almost universal spirit of iconoclasm, and abhorrence of every thing connected with the forms of the old religion, which prompted the zeal of the early Caledonian reformers. The last abbot was the celebrated Cardinal Beaton. This town was created a royal burgh in 1186, which charter was renewed, by king John, in the year 1569.

The harbour is not large, but very safe; an artificial breakwater having been formed out of red sand-stones which lie in ledges. An attack was made upon this place, in the year 1781, by a French privateer, at which time a battery, consisting of six twelve-pounders, was erected, on a spot commanding the contiguous shores; there is also a signal tower, having a communication with the light-house, at Bell-Rock. Fifty-six chartered vessels belong to the port, amounting in the whole to nearly 40,000 tons burthen. This town has

also a considerable manufacture of sail-cloth, and some others of flax, and tanned goods. The exports are paving-stones and grain; and the imports, tallow, hemp, flax, and linseed. According to the returns of 1811, the two parishes contained 8150 persons. In conjunction with Aberdeen, Brechin, Inverberrie, and Montrose, Abroath returns one member to parliament. Distant from Edin. 56 miles, 56°, 32', 30", N. lat. and 2°, 34', 15", W. lon.

ABERCONWAY, or **CONWAY**, in Caernarvonshire, North Wales; situated at the mouth of the river Conway. Edward I. very much enlarged the fortifications, and in 1284, rebuilt a strong castle at present in ruins, having been originally erected by the earl of Chester in the reign of William I. and destroyed in that of Stephen. By this castle, England was protected from the invasions of the Welsh under Llewelyn, and a point of concentration secured in case of any projected incursion into the principality. On one occasion, the Welsh attacked the castle at the moment when Edward had crossed the river with a few attendants, and was separated from the town by the flowing of the tide, but the little band defended themselves till it ebbed. Richard II. was delivered into the hands of his enemies in this place, whither he had fled in 1399. After the civil wars, a grant was made of it to Edward, earl of Conway, who dilapidated the buildings in 1665. It is held, at present, by a private proprietor under the crown.

Towards the mouth of the river, a little hill is planted, which has obtained the classical name of Arcadia. The general site of the town is commanding and beautiful, and the ruins still magnificent. On the walls are attached eight large towers, surmounted by turrets; in one of which is a richly ornamented oriel window, where the toilet of Queen Eleanor is said to have been placed. Another of the towers having split asunder, a vast fragment has been precipitated to the beach, where it presents a fine specimen of ancient masonry. An abbey church, remarkable chiefly for its antiquity, is in the centre of the town. It was an abbey of Cistercian monks, founded by prince Llewelyn ap Iorwerth, in 1185. Edward I. removed the monks to a new abbey near Llanrwst.

The little trade now carried on, consists of copper, lead, calamine, and potatoes for exportation. Hills of limestone abound in the immediate vicinity, and some lead and copper mines. In a black silicious mountain, masses of porous chert are found, well adapted for mill-stones. Mr. R. Bowes made this discovery, and sent specimens to the Society of Arts, of which an account is given in their Transactions, vol. 18. p. 197. It is eighteen miles W. N. W. of Denbigh, and 235 W. N. W. of London. The population, according to the census of 1811, was 1053. W. lon. 3°, 47'. N. lat. 53° 20'.

ABERCORN, a town of W. Lothian, Scotland, near the Frith of Forth, at which the Roman wall commences.

ABERDEEN, an ancient city of Scotland, in the county of the same name. Though this place is said to have been of some note even as early as the ninth century, it was mentioned only as a village before the year 1153. In that year, in consequence of the translation of the bishopric of Morich, in Banffshire, founded by Malcolm II., this town was elevated to the rank of a city. A new charter was given to it by Mal-

ABER-
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Aberdeen.

ABER-
DEEN.

colm IV.; and in 1317, Alexander II. conferred additional privileges upon the town, granting it similar municipal jurisdictions to those which he had bestowed upon the town of Perth. It is said that the bishop of Aberdeen, A. D. 1290, erected the bridge which at present crosses the river Don, at the mouth of which this city stands. The cathedral church of St. Machar, founded originally by David I., is now nearly demolished; but a small portion of it is still occupied as a place of worship.

Hospitals.

There are three hospitals here: one for twelve poor unmarried men; a trades' hospital for decayed freemen and their widows; and Mitchell's hospital, founded in 1801, for the support of ten indigent females. But the principal building is the King's College, a large and commodious cloistered edifice, of a quadrangular shape. This college is an university, and was founded in 1506, by Bishop Elphinstone, whose remains were interred in the chapel, before the high altar. There are professorships in the Greek, Latin, and oriental languages; also in medicine, civil law, and theology; and this college possesses, moreover, the power of conferring academical degrees upon any person whom the principal and professors may deem worthy such an honour. It has several endowments for the support of the students, who have of late amounted, during the winter session, to about 180. The library contains some very curious and valuable MSS., besides about 13,000 printed volumes. By a recent act of parliament, this university can claim one copy of every new publication, printed in the United Kingdom. The population of this city, according to the last census, amounted to 1911.

New Town.

About one mile from the city, is the town of Aberdeen, sometimes called New Town, and not unfrequently confounded with the city just described. These two places are entirely distinct, both with regard to their civil and their ecclesiastical jurisdictions. The town of Aberdeen is a sea-port, seated on an elevated piece of ground, between the Don and the Dee.

Places of

worship.

Of late years it has greatly improved; and is now deemed the most important city—for so it is commonly designated—in Scotland northward of the Forth. Here are upwards of twenty places of worship; seven of which belong to the established religion of the church of Scotland, (viz.) Presbyterian; four meeting-houses belonging to the Seceders; three episcopalian chapels, St. John's, St. Andrew's, and St. Paul's; and one Roman Catholic chapel. The others belong to the Wesleyan methodists, and protestant dissenters of various denominations. Here also are several hospitals, and other charitable institutions; besides a college, founded in the year 1593, called the Marischal College, after the name of its founder. This is also an university; but in some respects may be considered as connected with King's College in Old Aberdeen; at least so far as regards the library: this, however, is rather a matter of courtesy than otherwise; the two foundations being entirely distinct. The number of students is generally greater here than at King's College; many of the divinity students attending alternately each university. The town-house, which is also a prison, and a masonic lodge, and in which are kept the city armoury, and a machine resembling the guillotine, called the Maiden—the new bridewell, opened in 1809—the military barracks, erected in 1796—the breweries—the amazingly extensive mills for the spinning of flax—the cotton, woollen, and cur-

peting manufactories—and other establishments for trading and commercial purposes, all combine to give the town of Aberdeen a degree of importance, in a statistical point of view, little inferior to any in the British empire. The inhabitants, and merchants, export from this place grain, fish, thread, Scotch granite, hosiery, cotton, and linen goods; and import goods of almost every description for commerce and consumption. Vessels, to the number of about 150, are engaged in the coasting and foreign trades, and in the whale fishery. There is an inland canal communication between this town and Inverary, about 18 or 20 miles distant; a capacious stone bridge of a single arch, stretches itself over a space of 132 feet across the Forth near Union-street. The population exceeds 21,600 souls. Lat. 57°, 9' N. lon. 2°, 8' W. Distant from Edinburgh 108 miles; and from London 425 miles.

ABERDEENSHIRE, a maritime county in Scotland, about 55 or 60 miles long and 46 broad, bounded on the north and east by the German ocean; on the south by the counties of Kinross, Perth, and Forfar, and on the west by the counties of Banff, Elgin, and Inverness. The circuit of this county may be estimated at 260 miles, and its superficial area at 1956 square miles, or 1,270,744 English acres. It may be considered as upon the whole a cold county, the thermometer being generally five or five degrees below that of Edinburgh, and ten degrees below that of Greenwich. The real land-rost has been estimated at 133,632 sterling. According to the census of 1811, there were 33,718 families, of whom 13,637 were employed in agriculture; 14,286 in trade, manufactures, and handicraft; and 5,795 not comprised in either of the two preceding classes, making a total population of 135,075 persons.

The general aspect of the county is wild and barren. Some parts are very mountainous, particularly the Bulters of Buchan, which are notorious for their craggy steep. The arable land is in the proportion of little more than half of that which is waste, and otherwise irreclaimable.

The chief rivers are the Dee, the Don, the Ythan, the Ugie, and the Deveron; all of which contain an abundance of fine salmon. The Dee rises at the elevation of 4060 feet above the level of the sea, and pursues a course of 60 miles to Aberdeen. Pearls have been found in the Ythan.

Several lakes are found in this county: Loch Baily, Loch Callader, Loch Kanders, and Loch Muick. The waters of Peterhead, Ffrersburgh, and Glendee, are celebrated for their medicinal qualities. There is also a navigable canal, which proceeds from the harbour of Aberdeen to the town of Inverary, having 17 locks.

Iron ore of a valuable kind is found in the vicinity of Aberdeen. The minerals are granite, blue slate, manganese, amber, amethyst, plumbago, amethysts, emeralds, topazes, agates, &c.

Aberdeenshire contains some remains of antiquity, well worthy of notice, as subterraneous excavations, which are supposed to have been places of refuge when the county was invaded. There are also the ruins of a fortified fort in Garrioch; also extensive remains of Kildrummy castle, once a very superb edifice, and sometimes occupied by royal personages. In addition to these, a great variety of remains may be found in every part of the county. Its chief manufactures is

ABER-
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knitting of stockings and hose. This county contains three royal boroughs; Aberdeen, Kintore, and Inverury; and several large and handsome towns; as Peterhead, Fraserburgh, Huntly, and Old Meldrum. It is also ornamented with many fine seats of the nobility and gentry; of which Skains castle, the seat of the earl of Errol; Aboyne castle, of the earl of Aboyne; Elton, of the earl of Aberdeen; Inverury, of the earl of Kintore, are the principal. Aberdeenshire sends only one member to parliament.

ABERGAVENNY, a large, populous, and flourishing town in Monmouthshire; seated at the confluence of the rivers Usk and Gaverney; supposed to be the *Gibbionium* of Antoninus. There is a fine gothic bridge, of fifteen arches over the Usk. It is a walled town, and on the south side are the ruins of a castle celebrated in Welch history. The church is ancient. It carries on a considerable trade in flannels. Population, 2813; distant 142 miles from London. W. lon. 2° 45'. N. lat. 51° 50'.

ABERNETHY, a small town in Scotland, situated on the river Tay, a little above the mouth of the Erne, about six miles from Perth. It is said to have been founded in 460, and to have been the capital of the Pictish kings. In the churchyard is a tower of singular construction. It is of a circular form, 74 feet in height, and 48 feet in circumference. The researches of the antiquarian have hitherto failed in discovering the uses of this and similar buildings. Some suppose that they are of Pictish origin, and were intended as places of confinement for religious devotees in performing penance; hence they have been called towers of repentance. Others imagine them to be watch-towers, or bellries for summoning the people to prayers.

ABERRANCE. } Ab erro, to stray or wander from.
ABERRATION. } A wandering from.
ABERRING. }

Applied to the errors or mistakes of the mind, words neither much used, nor much wanted.

So, then we draw near to God, when, repenting of our former observations from him, we renew our converse with him.

Bishop Hall's Works, vol. v. p. 502.

And therefore they not only swarm with errors, but vices depopulating them. Thus they commonly affect no man any further than he derails his reason, or complies with their observations.

Brown's Vulgar Errors, p. 9, ed. 4, 1658.

For though there were a fatality in this year, [*the great chronological year, that is, sixty-seven*] yet divers were, and others might be out in their accounts, observing several ways from the true and just compute, and calling that one year, which perhaps might be another.

Brown's Vulgar Errors, p. 269.

ABERRATION, in Astronomy, an apparent motion of the celestial bodies, produced by the progressive motion of light and the earth's annual motion in her orbit.

ABERSPERG, anciently ABERINA or AVENTINUM, a town and castle in Upper Bavaria, on the river Umbs, celebrated as the birth-place of Johannes Aventinus.

ABERYSTWITHE, a market town of Cardiganshire, in Wales, on the Rhidol, near its confluence with the Istwith, where it falls into the sea. It is a populous, rich town, has a great trade in lead, and a considerable fishery of whitling, cod, and herrings. It was formerly surrounded with walls, and fortified with a castle; both are now in ruin. Of late it is become a place of resort for sea bathing. In 1637, king Charles established here a mint for the coinage of silver, and the coin was

to be stamped on both sides with the feathers. Its distance from London is 203 miles W. N. W. W. lon. 4° 15'. N. lat. 52° 30'.

ABESTA, or AVESTA, the name of one of the sacred books of the Persian magi, which they ascribe to their great founder, Zoroaster. It is a commentary on two others of their religious books, called Zend and Pazend; the three together include the whole system of the Ignic-lar or worshippers of fire.

ABET, v. } A Sax. Betan, (meliorare, melius
ABET', n. } reddere, says Skinner). To better, to
ABET'MENT. } make better.
ABET'TER. }

Our use of the word is applied to the encouraging, inciting, assisting, supporting, aiding, to *beet* or become better. And thus, to better, to aid, assist, support, the designs of.

I am thine Erre, the shame were to me
As well as thee, if that I should suspect
Through mine *abet* 't' be thine innocent shod.
Chaucer.—The second Booke of Troilus, fol. 159, col. 4.

But in this kind, to come in hearing arms,
Be his own carver, and cut out his way.
To find out right with wrongs—it may not be;
And you that *doe abet* him in this kind
Cherish rebellion, and are rebels all.
Shakespeare, Richard II. p. 33, act ii, scene 3.

I am not ignorant that Ciero, in defence of his own nation, tells us, our people, by defending their associates, became masters of the world: but I would willingly be informed, whether or no they did not often set their associates to complaints without a cause, or *abet* them in unjust quarrels.

Hobbes's Epilogues, p. 452.

Yet Christian laws allow not such redress;
Thus let the *gi-vet* supercede the less.

But let th' *abettors* of the pastor's crime
Learn to make fairer wars another time.

Dryden's Hind and the Panther, Chalmers' edition, p. 577.

That which demands to be next considered is happiness; as being in itself most considerable; as *abetting* the cause of truth; and as being indeed so nearly allied to it, that they cannot well be parted.

Widstons's Religion of Nature, p. 31, 4to. edition.

Would you, when thine are known abroad,
Bring forth your treasures in the road?

Would not the fool *abet* the slatha,

Who rashly thus exposed his wealth?

Gog's Fables, Chalmers' edition, vol. x. p. 539.

ABETTOR, in Law, one who encourages or assists to the performance of some criminal action, or who assists in the performance. Treason is the only crime in which abettors are excluded by law, every individual concerned being considered as a principal. It is the same with art-and-part in the Scots law.

ABEX, a country of Ethiopia, in Africa, bordering on the Red sea, which bounds it on the east. It has Nubia or Sennar on the north; Sennar and Abyssinia on the west and south. Its principal towns are Susquem and Arkeko. It is subject to the Turks, and has the name of the beglerbeglik of Habeleth. It is about five hundred miles in length, and one hundred in breadth; mountainsous, sandy, and barren, and infested with wild beasts. The forests abound with ebony trees.

ABEYANCE, in Law, the expectancy of an estate. Thus, if lands be leased to one person for life, with reversion to another for years, the remainder for years is in abeyance till the death of the lessee.

ABHER, an elegant town of the Persian Irak, or ancient Parthia, 26 miles S. E. of Sultania; con-

ABER-
YSTWITHE.
—
ABHER.

ABERR. taining 2500 houses, and governed by a deroga.
N. lat. 36°, 14'. E. lon. 50°, 39'.

ABHAD.

ABHOR', v. ab horreo. "Horreo" (says Vossius)
"vix fuit est ad expremendum
fogam spiritus versus cor, et pro
veniente inde corporis rigorem et
asperitatem."

Corpus, ut imphar segetes Aquilonibus, horrei.

Appite to that which we utterly dislike or detest,
loath or disdain; which makes the body stiffen, the
hair stand on end. And thus,

To dislike or detest, to loath, disdain, abominate.

But sins so great is thy delight to have

Of our misdeeds and Thy last decree;

Though to record the same my misdeeds abhorre,

And plait echoes: yet thus will I begin.

Surrey, Chalmers' Poets, vol. ii. p. 338.

When this knight perceived that he (King Richard II.) was
dead, he sobbed, wept, and rent his hair crying, Oh Lord, what
have we done, we have murdered him whom by the space of xxii
years we have cherished as king, and honored as our sovereign lord,
now all noble men will abhorre us, all honest persons will disdain
us, and all poor people will scold and cry out upon us.

Hall, p. 20.

King I may perceive

Three cardinals tulle with me; I abhorre

Thus distill slith, and trickles of Rome.

My leas'd and wellbelov'd servant Cramme

Prothoe returns.

Shakespeare, Henry VIII. p. 217. act ii.

Be gentle grow unto me, rather on Nylus mould

Lay me strike-mak'd, and let the water-floe

Blow me into abhorring; rather make

My country's high pyramids my gibbet,

And hang me up to chaises.

Id., Act. and Cles. p. 365, act v. sc. 2.

He who wilfully abstains from marriage, not being supernaturally
gifted; and he who, by making the yoke of marriage unjust and
intolerable, causes men to sin; are both in a diabolical sin,
equal to that of Antichrist, who forbids to marry.

Milton's Prose Works, vol. i. p. 221.

We see in many cases, that time and calmer considerations,
together with different customs, which (like the tide or flood)
insensibly prevail over both manners and minds of men; do oft
take off the edge and keenness of men's spirits against those
things, whereof they sometimes were great abhorre.

By, Taylor's Art of, Hinde, p. 134.

Then woe'st thou vain oblivion brought,

And God, that made and said'st there, was forgot;

White gods of foreign lands, and rites abhor'd,

To jealousies and anger mov'd the Lord.

Parnell's Gift of Poetry, Chalmers' ed., vol. ix. p. 375.

That which constitutes an object of contempt to the malignant,
becomes the object of other passions to a worthy and good-natured
man; for, in such a person, wickedness and vice must raise hatred
and abhorrence.

Fielding's Works, vol. xiv. p. 138.

Yet from Leonidas, thou wretch, learn'd

To sexualize and however, here. The pump,

The arts of pleasure as despotic courts

I spurn abhorrent. In a spiteful heart

I look for pleasure.

Gloucester's Leonidas, book I., Chalmers' edition, vol. xvii. p. 60.

This legal, and, as it should seem, injudicious profanation,
so abhorrent to our stricter principles, was received with a very
faint murmur, by the easy nature of the English.

Gibbon's Dec. vol. i. p. 112.

ABHORRETS, the name of a party formed in 1680,
in opposition to the petitioners against grievances.

See *Hume's Hist. of England*, vol. viii. p. 128—133.

ABHAD, a town of Africa, on a high mountain; re-
markable for its trade in ebony and aromatic plants.
It is also the name of a river which flows into the Nile,
and supposed by some to be the Nile itself.

ABIANS, anciently a people of Thrace; or, accord-

ing to some, of Scythia, who led a wandering life.

They carried all their possessions in waggons; lived on

the flesh of their herds and flocks, on milk, and cheese,

and were unacquainted with commerce. They only

exchanged commodities with their neighbours; assign-

ing their agriculture to any who would undertake it,

receiving only a tribute, which they exacted merely to

enjoy the necessities of life. They never took arms

but to oblige those to fulfil a promise which had been

broken. They paid tribute to none of the neighbouring

states; and relied on their strength and courage to

repel any invasion. They were, according to Homer,

a people of great integrity. STRABO, tom. i. p. 454—5.

460, 478.

ABIB, which signifies an ear of corn, was a name

given by the Jews to the first month of their ecclesias-

tical year, afterwards called Nisan. It commenced at

the vernal equinox; and answered to the latter part of

our March and beginning of April.

ABIDE', v. Sax. *Abidan, Bidan*, to hide.

Ans'ring. }
Ans'ring. }
Ans'ring. }

To stay, or remain; to tarry, to dwell, to continue,

to wait, to expect.

To stay under, or support; to hear up against, or

endure, with fortitude, good temper, kindness, hope,

or the reverse.

He fly in to ye of Tenet, he an devote a bide no net.

R. Gloucester, p. 123.

de ojer were of him y wot, and xarked him in here ayde,

And lette arme here nat wot, latat fetu elge.

Id. p. 153.

We war from there affrayt, durst nocht abide

Not fled soon, and within hard has chode

That faithful Greik, quikly was of succour woch.

Douglas, Booke iii. p. 90.

De great d'ignee (saith Solomon), in keeping of thy friends,

and of thy good name, for it shall longer abide with thee, than

any treasure, be it never so precious.

Chaucer. The Tale of Methelen, vol. ii. p. 119.

But in all things we gyve usself as the mynistrys of God in

mych patience, to tribulacions, in needis, in anguishes, in

brayngs, in prisonis, in discomfours, in waynyng, in travailis,

in wayking, in fastyngis, in chaite, in humyng, in long abiding,

in sweetnes, in the looli good, in charite not feyned, in the word

of truthis, in the wirtu of god.

Wiclif. 2 Cynith, chap. vi.

The parient abiding of the righteous shal be turned to gladnesse,

but the hope of the vnguly shal perish.

Bible, Lond. 1539. Prov. chap. x.

Deum fallis salis, the sin some we span

But most abode, the manners covey man

Egry rolls over the knay fnde

And the dew so welis up as it war wnd.

Douglas, booke iii. p. 74.

There be made his abode forty dayes and as many nightes, still

continuing in prayer and fast; ng.

Erasmus' Paraphrase of N. T. by Udal, on St. Mark,

chap. i. fol. 3. col. ii.

Ans. I cannot tell, good Sir, for which of his virtues it was,

but he was certainly a hit out of the court.

Cic. His vice you would say; there's no virtue whipt out of the

court; they chench it to make it stay there; and yet it will so

more but abide.

Shakespeare's Winter's Tale, p. 291, act iv. scene ii.

Lor. Sweete friends, your patience for my long abode,

Not I, but my offence have made you wait.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice, p. 170, act ii. scene vi.

ABIDE.

He (Giovanni Pietro Fuglione) said, "Soldiers were the noblest estate of mankind, soldiers of soldiers." He said, "They were the masters of war, and ornaments of peace, speedy goers, and strong abiders."

ABIE.

Solway's Defence of Poetry.

And because of the late contracted amity and gentle entertainment that they found at the first, they made on great dispatch; but being (as they supposed) in security, in mercenry they spent the time, sliding upon the wide.

Knox's Hist. of the Reformation.

Abiding all the useful consequences of sliding in sin, abstracting from the desperate hazards it exposeth us to in regard to the future life, it is most reasonable to abandon it.

Barrow's Sermons.

Let it be supposed, that is that day, when you had been guilty of the three notorious sins above-mentioned, that in your exasperation, you had only called one of them to mind; is it not plain, that the other two are unperpetrated, of that therefore their guilt still abides upon you?

Lew's Serious Call to a Devout and Holy Life.

When he, whom e'en our joys provoke,
The fiend of nature, just'd his yoke,
And rush'd in wrath to make out life his prey,
Thy form, from out the sweet abode,
O'ertook him on his blasted road,
And stopp'd his wheels, and look'd his rage away.

Collier's Ode to Mercy.

ABIE, is very variously written. By Chaucer, *Abegge*, *Abeye*, *Abie*; which Tyrwhitt says is Saxon, and means "To suffer for." In Piers Plowman, *Abegge*. In Gower, *Abrie*, *Abegge*, *Abidge*. In Chaucer, are found the participles *abiding*, *Abien*, *Abought*. And in Gower, also, *Abought*.

Skinner thinks the etymon of *Abey*—from the verb *To Buy* is the more simple, and therefore the more true. He offers (needlessly) a different origin for *Abegge*.

In all the examples following, "buy or pay for, dearly, cruelly, sorely," appears to be the correct meaning.

Turne we fildward, and deliure our prisoners,
And so it may becom, for ealle dere abye
My þat þei hide, my men in prison lie.

R. Bruner, p. 159.

Ther durste go wight bound upon him legges,
That he ne wote he should anon legges.

Chaucer, The Reeve Tale.

Ye fathers, and ye mothers eke also,
Though ye han children, be it on or mo,
Yow is the charge of all hir surveynance,
While that they be under your governance.
Both wane, that by assumpcion of your living,
Or by your negligence in chastiteyn.
That they be perissh' for I dare wel saye,
If that they don, ye shal it drewe abye.

Id. The Doctor's Tale.

Ac for þe leysage þat þow Lucifer, lowe til Eve
þow schalt offere biþer quod God, and bound hym with cheynes.
Folow of Piers Plowman, repr. 1813, p. 363.

Queene of the regnes of Pluto, drike and lowe,
Goddesses of myserie, that mis terte best knowe
Ful many a yere, and wot what I devise,
As kepe me fro thy reuengance and thin ire,
That Atheon shoulde cruely.

Chaucer, The Knight's Tale.

So goth he forth, and take his leue
And thought anon, as it was use,
He woude done his reuenging,
That many a man shoulde it abye.

Gower, Cm. A. book v.

Ful offe er this it hath be seie
The comen people is curiouse,
And hath the kynges synne abegge,
Although the people agilis sought.

Id. book vii.

Which when his brother saw, brought with great griefe
And wrath, he to him leaped furiously,
And foully and, by Mahoun, cursed thise,
That dourful stroke thou dearely shalt ok.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. canto vii.

Ban. Foot-hardy knight, full sooth thou shalt say
This find reproach, thy body will I bang.

Bessant and Director's Knight of the Burning Pestle, act iii. sc. 1.

ABINGDON, formerly ABANGONE, a market-town of Berks, situate on the confluence of the Ock and Thames. It derives its name from an ancient abbey, of which a principal gate-way alone remains; it is supposed by bishop Gibson to be the Cloveshoo of the Saxon annals, and to have been built by Cisea, king of Sussex, A. D. 517. It has a spacious market-place, with market-hall and sessions-house in the centre, where the summer assizes for the county are held; also two churches; one dedicated to St. Nicholas, and the other to St. Helena; and three places of worship for the dissenters; a hospital for six indigent persons, and another for thirteen; a free grammar school, and a charity school. Abingdon is a borough-town, and sends one member to parliament; it formerly was considerable for its malt trade, but is now a principal manufacturing town in floor and sail-cloth, sackings and netting. It is seven miles south of Oxford, and 55 west of London. Population about 5000. W. lon. 1° 12'. N. lat. 51° 42'.

ABIPONIAN, or ANIPONA, a tribe of South American Indians, in the territory between Santa Fe and St. Jago, whose numbers have been variously stated (sometimes at upwards of 50,000) but who, at the best modern computation, do not much exceed 5000. The women have been accused of destroying their own children, from motives of jealousy, lest their husbands should be unfaithful during the long time they give suck, which is not less than two years. They are a warlike people, of a light brown complexion, and fond of painting their bodies. In general, they are quite ignorant and uncivilized; inasmuch, that, in counting, they can go no further than the number three. Their government is not unlike that of the Jews in the time of the Judges; the chiefs or enques who lead their armies in war, preading over the administration of justice in time of peace.

ABJECT, v.

ABJECT, adj.

ABJECT, n.

ABJECTNESS,

ABJECTION,

ABJECTLY,

ABJECTNESS,

Ab: jacio, to cast, or throw away from; to cast down. The nouns, adjective, and adverb, have a consequent application to that which is base, servile, worthless, despicable, mean, contemptible.

The duchess desiring to knowe which waye lady Fortuna turned her wheele, her songe hym to be repaite and abjected out of the French court, was in a greete agony, and muche amored, and more appalled.

Hall, repr. 1869, p. 463.

John the apostle, was now of late in a certain yle of Licia called Pathmos, exiled for the gospel-preaching, and made a vice abject by testifying the name and word of Jesus Christ the only Saviour of the world.

Bair's Image of both Churches.

The abjective and bolds words of Daniel signifyeth the abjection of the kynge and his realm.

The Expulsion of Daniel, by Geo. Jago, p. 78.

Oth noble Lord, behinde thee of thy birth;
Call home thy ancient thoughte from banishment,
And heare howe thy ancient lowe dreames:
Looke how thy seruante do attend on thee,
Each in his office ready at thy berke.

Shakespeare, Tem. of Sh. act i. sc. 3.

ABJECT. We are the queen's objects, and must obey.

ABJURE.

Or in this *abject* posture have ye sworn
To adore the coquette? who now holds
Clutch and scarp, willing in the flood
With scattered arms and ensigns.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book i.

States and kingdoms that aspire to greatness must be very careful that their nobles and gentry increase not too much; otherwise the common people will be dispirited, reduced to an *abject* state, and become little better than slaves to the nobility.

Lord Bacon's Works.

But is it creditable, that the very acknowledgement of our own worthiness to obtain, and to that respect our professed fearfulness to ask any thing, otherwise than only for his sake to whom God can do any thing; that thus should be termed baseless, *abjection* of mind, or servility—is it creditable?

Hobbes, Es. Pol.

It objected his [Wolsey's] spirit to that degree, that he fell dangerously sick: such an influence the troubles and sorrows of his mind had upon his body.

Steepe's Memorials of the Reformation.

To what base ends, and by what *abject* ways.

Are mortals urged, through sacred inst of praise?

Pope's Essay on Criticism.

Not did he sooner see the key approaching the vessel than he ran down again into the cellar and, his rage being perfectly scented, he tumbled on his knees, and a little too *abjectly* implored for mercy.

Felding's Passage to India.

ABJURE, v.

ABJURATION, s. } Ab: jure, to swear from, to forswear.

To swear. To go away from, or leave. To disown, to disclaim, to renounce (upon oath).

But so a was he so obstinate, that he would not *abjure* of leg time. And diverse daies was his judges sayn of their favour to give him with sufficiency of some his best friends, and who he most trusted, to resort unto him. And yet scantly could all this make him submit himself to make his *abjurament*.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 214, Lon. 1557.

In this season were banished out of Southwark XII Scottes, which had dwelt there a long season, and were conveyed to parishes by the constable, like men y^e had *abjured* the realm, and so their vernal garment a white cross before and another behynd them. Thus were they conveyed through London southwark, till they came to Scotland.

Hall, repr. 1809, p. 648.

For even now

I put my self to thy direction, and
Vespake mine own detraction. Hence *abjure*
The taints and blames I hide upon my self
For strangers to my nature.

Shakespeare's Mac., act iv. sc. 3.

O mercy without measure! why wilt thou, how canst thou, O Saviour, call them brethren, whom, in their last parting, thou foundest fugitives? Did they not run from thee? Did not one of them rather leave his nearest coat behind him, than not be quit of thee? Did not another of them deny thee, yea, *abjure* thee? And yet thou sayest, Go tell my brethren!

Bishop Hall's Contemplations.

After they had thus humbled and mortified the miserable man [Aby. Crutcher] with recitations and subscriptions, submissions and *abjurations*, putting words into his mouth which his heart abhorred; by all this drudgery they would not permit him to redeem his unhappy life.

Steepe's Memorials of the Reformation.

Yes, Alpheus! fly the purer paths of Fate;

Abjure these scums from vernal passions free;

Know, in this grove, I nee'd perpetual haire;

Woe, endless war, with tears and with tears.

Shenstone's Poems.

A Jacobite who is persuaded of the Pretender's right to the crown cannot take the oath of allegiance; or, if he could, the oath of *abjurament* follows, which contains an express renunciation of all opinions in favour of the claim of the exiled family.

Pope's Moral Philosophy.

ABJURATION, in our Ancient Customs, an oath taken by a person guilty of felony; who, having fled to a place of sanctuary, engages to leave the kingdom for ever. The following passage will furnish a curious illustration of this subject: "This herre than sir Coroner, that I, M. of H. am a robber of sheepe, or of any other beast, or a Murderer of one, or of mo, and a felon of our Lord the king of Englad, and because I have done many such euilles or robberies in his land I do *abjure* the land of our Lord Edward king of England, and I shall haste me towards the Port of such a place, which thou hast given me, and that I shall not go out of the high way, and if I doe, I wil that I be taken as a robber, and a felon of our Lorde the king: And that at such a place I wil diligently seeke for passage, and I wil tarre there but our flud and ebbe, if I can have passage, and unless I can have it in such a place, I wil goe every day into the Sea up to my knees, assaying to passe over, and unless I can do this within fortye daies, I wil put my selfe againe into the church, as a robber and a felon of our Lord the king, so God me helpe & his holie judgement, &c."—*Rastall's Collect. of Stat.*, p. 2.

ABJURATION is, in English law, to signify the renouncing and disclaiming upon oath any right of the late Pretender to the crown of these kingdoms. ABKHAS, one of the seven oceans is the countries comprehended between the Black sea and the Caspian, tributary to the Turks. Their language is peculiar to themselves, supposed to be a dialect of the Celtic, and having some affinity to the Circassian. They preserve some indistinct traces of Christianity.

ABLACTATION, the weaning a child from the breast. This is done in different countries at various periods from the birth.

ABLACTATION, in Ancient Agriculture, a method of engraving, by which the cion of one tree being for some time united to the stock of another, in afterwards cut off, and, as it were, weaned from the parent tree. It is now called 'inarching,' or 'grafting by approach.'

ABLATIVE, in Grammar, formed from *auferre*, 'to take away.' Priscian also calls it the comparative case; as serving among the Latins for comparing, as well as taking away. It is the sixth case of Latin nouns, and is opposite to the dative, as expressing the action of taking away, while the latter denotes that of giving. In modern languages there is no precise distinction between the ablative and other cases, and we only use the term in analogy to the Latin. The question concerning the Greek ablative has been the subject of a famous literary war between two great grammarians, Frischlin and Crusius; the former maintaining, and the latter opposing, the reality of it. See GRAMMAR, Div. ii.

ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE, in Grammar, a phrase detached or independent of the other parts of a sentence or discourse. In Latin it is frequent, and it has been adopted in the modern languages.

ABLAY, a country of Great Tartary, under the Russian government, which appoints a Calmuck chief; the inhabitants are called 'Buchars' or 'Buchares.' It lies east of the river Irtysh, and extends 500 leagues along the southern frontiers of Siberia, from E. lon. 72° to 83°. N. lat. 51° to 54°.

ABJURE.

ABLAY.

ABLAZE.
—
ABLE.

ABLAZE, *v. a.* On blaze, see BLAZE.

She made at ease of the past,
How Mars, which god of arms was,
Hath set two oxen serene and staid,
That casten fire and flame abouts,
Both at mouth and at nose,
So that their written all on blaze.

Gower, *Conf. A. b. v.*

A'BLE, *v.* } Goth. *Abal*, strength.
A'BLE, *adj.* } To give force, power, strength; to
A'BLESS, } strengthen, in empower; and, as we
A'BLITY, } now say, to enable.
A'BLV. }

The verb, to *able*, appears to have been in common usage in ancient writers, as to *enable* is in modern, and with similar applications.

Habile and *Hability* are in the old writers as commonly found as *able* and *ability*.

For no deute to dreale in affeide God, and to love to please him in all thing quickeneth and sharpeneth all the wites of Christe chosen people: and ableteth them so to grace, that they joye greatly to withdraue their cares, and all their wites and members from all worldly deys, and from all worldly cares.

Howell's State Tracts, vol. i. p. 292. *Treat of Master William Thorpe for Heresey*, 8 Hen. IV. A. D. 1407, written by himself.

God tokeneth and assigneth the times abiding him to her proper offices.

Chaucer, Boecius, b. i. fol. 215, col. 1.

That if God willinge to schewe his wrathfulnes, and to make his power knowne, hath suffrid in greet patience vessels of wrathfulnes able into death, to schewe the richenes of his glorie into vessels of mercie which he made redi unto glorie.

Wiclif, Romeyns, ch. ix.

And ye my ladies that ben trewe and stable,
By way of kind ye ought to ben able,
To have pity of folke that ben in paine,
Now have ye cause to sleigh yette in paine.

Chaucer, the Complaint of Mars, fol. 326, col. iv.

Let no man blame our nature for being weak and faint, nor law against the goodness that they be cruel: for we have no lawe shewes in due we, then readines to doe cruel.

The Golden Booke, ch. lii.

CANA. They say all lovers sweare more performance than they are able, and yet reserve an ability that they never performe; nowing more than the perfection of, and discharging less than the tenth part of one.

Shakespeare, Troil. & Cress. act iii. sc. 2.

A noble crew about them waited round
Of sage and sober peers, all gravely gowd;
Whom fere before did march a goodly band
Of tall young men all side armed to sound;
But now they leaured-brunches bore in hand;
Glad sign of victory and peace it all their land.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. i. canto xii.

I can produce a man,
Of female seed, for able to resist
All his solicitations, and at length
All his vast force, and drive him back to Hell;
Winnings, by conquest, what the first man lost,
By fallacy surpris'd.

Milton's Paradise Regain'd, b. i.

And now, brethren, I commend you to God, and to the word of his grace, which is able to build you up, and to give you an inheritance among all them which are sanctified.

Acts, chap. x. v. 22.

That is one head (said Leithington), whereunto you and I never agreed; for how are you able to prove, that God ever struck or plagued any nation or people for the iniquity of their prince, if they themselves lived godly?

Knox's History of the Reformation.

Certainly the force of imagination is wonderful, either to beget in us an ability for the doing of that which we apprehend we can do, or a disability for the not doing of that which we conceive we cannot do.

Habermil's Apology, lib. i. cap. ii. sect. 3.

Henry the second reigned in France; Philip the second, in Spain: princes in the vigour of their age, of great ambition, of great talents, and seconded by the ablest ministers and generals in Europe.

Bolingbroke's Remarks on the Hist. of Eng.

And now's (witness every month's review),
Hells their names, and offer nothing new.
The mind, relaxing into needless sport,
Should turn to writers of an older sort,
Whose wit well manag'd, and whose classic style,
Gives truth a lustre, and make wisdom smile.

Cowper's Retirement.

ABLEGMINA, those choice parts of the entrails of victims anciently offered in sacrifice to the gods. They were sprinkled with flour, and burnt upon the altar; the priests pouring some wine on them. Tertullian ridicules the heathens for thus serving the gods with offals.

ABLUDGE, *v. Ab*: *ludo*, to play from. To play from, or out of tune; and thus to differ; to be unlike.

So Ambrose interprets that place of 1 Tim. ii. 4. "He would have all to be saved," saith he, if themselves will: for he hath given his law to all; and excepts no man, in respect of his law and will revealed, from salvation. Neither doth it much abide from this, that our English Divines are Dert, call the decree of God, whereby he hath appointed, in aid by Christ to save those that repent, believe and persevere. *Decretum ambrasiensis concilii canonum ex argo et uideruntur promissum*

Bishop Hall's Via Media.

ABLUCENTS, in Médecine, the same with *Diluents*, or *Diluents*, *Detergents*, and *Abscergents*; names given to certain diluting medicines used to wash off from the body any accidental adhesions, and administered as lotions or injections.

ABLUTION, *n. Ab*: *lavo*. To wash from. Washing off or away from; cleansing, purifying.

Sua. Surah, my varlet, stand you forth and speak to him.
Like a philosopher. Answer the language.
Name the vexations, and the martyrdoms
Of metals, in the work.

Fac. Sir, Putrefaction,
Solution, abluion, sublimation,
Cohabitation, calcination, creation, and
Fixation.

Junius's Alchemist, act ii. scene 4.

So because the common way of making a people holy, was to adopt them into the perfection of a tutelary God; and of rendering particular clean, was by ablution and other cathartic rites; the Almighty was pleased to assume the titles of their [the Jews'] national God, and royal Governor.

Hierbarius's Germania.

Hearts may be found, that harbour at this hour
That love of Christ, and all its quickning pow'r;
And lips unstung'd by folly or by strife.
Where wisdom, drawn from the deep well of life,
Tastes of its healthful origin, and flows
A Jordan for the abluion of our woes.

Cowper's Conversations.

ABLUTION, a religious ceremony of ancient and modern times, which consisted in certain purifications of men or things, accompanied with washing them either wholly or partially. The Egyptians appear to have practised it from the earliest antiquity; the Greeks adopted it under various forms; and the Romans are said to have been scrupulous in their use of it before they performed a sacrifice. It was more or less partial according to the occasion; but at the entrance of the Roman temples convenient vessels were placed for this sacred washing. Several ceremonies of the Mosaic law may be called ablutions; and the early Christians appear to have practised it before partaking of the communion; in imitation

ABLUTION.
—
ABOARD

of whom the Roman Catholics still occasionally practise it before and after mass. The Syrians, Copts, &c. have their annual solemn washings; the Turks their greater and lesser abutions. The superstitious attachment of the Hindoostanes for the river Ganges is such, that ablation in its streams is placed among the first duties of their religion. And when, from necessity, they cannot reach that river, if in bathing they use the exclamation, "O Ganges, purify me!" the Brahmins assure them that the service is equally efficacious. All the oriental religions abound with this ceremony, which Mahomet very naturally adopted into his code of observances; and which has pervaded, under various modes, every religious institute, true or false.

ABLUTION, in the Romish church, is also used for a cup of wine and water, anciently taken after the host, to wash it down. Sometimes it signifies the water used to wash the hands of the priest who consecrated it.

ABNEGATE, v. } *Ab: nego* (quasi, or ago, says ARNESTUS, } Vossius), to deny. Perhaps all these words should be rejected as at least needless. The verb is used by Dr. Johnson under the v. *abjuro*, as synonymous with it.

Let the prince be of what religion they please, that is all one to the most part of men: so that with abnegation of God, of his honour, and religion, they may retain the friendship of the court.

Knax's Letter to the Queen Regent of Scotland.

ABNOBA, in Geography. See ABENOA.

ABO, the capital of Swedish Finland, situated in the promontory formed by the gulfs of Finland and Bothnia, on the river Aarnajoki, 120 miles north-east from Stockholm, E. lon. 22°, and N. lat. 20°, 20'. It has a foreign trade of very considerable extent with this country, the Netherlands and the Mediterranean; and contains an extensive glass-house, and manufactures of cotton, rope, cloths of various descriptions, and silk. It is a bishop's see, and the high court of justice for South Finland holds its sittings here. The number of inhabitants is about 12,000. Gustavus Adolphus, in 1628, established an academy here, which in 1640 was converted by Queen Christina into an university. The school of anatomy is in considerable repute; and enjoys, it is said, one very curious privilege. All persons who hold lands or pensions from the crown are bound to leave their bodies to be dissected for the instruction of the students.

ABO-NUS, or ABO-NLOT, an ancient castle in Finland, near the mouth of the river Aura, and occasionally used as a state prison. It was the residence of Dukes John, and the prison of King Eric, in the 16th century.

ABOARD, n. } On board. See BOARD.
ABOARD, v. } Gower writes, on borde; on the
or BOARD, } board. Chaucer, over the borde.
ABOARD, n. } Douglas, within burd, on burd,
on bord.

To *Abord* or *board*, is to come or go on board; to approach, to accost, or accost, and, then, to address.

Of gold per is a borde, and trevels per bi.

Of siluer over vasselle gille fulle richeli.

R. Branne, p. 152.

And wha he had gottit a shippis yf wald sayle vnto Phenice, we went aboard in to it, and set forth.

Bible, Lond. 1539, Actes, chap. xxi.

And how the tempest all began,
And how he lost his shewen;
Which that the sternie, or he tookt kepe,
Smote ouer the bord as he slepe.

Chaucer, *Famer*, b. i. fo. 277, c. 2.

But there it resteth and abode,
This great ship on asker rode;
The lande came forth, and when he sight
That other ligger on borde so sight;
His wondreth, what it might be;
And bad men to go in and see.

Gower, *Con. A. book ii.*

And afterwards, a great wynde and tempest arising in y^e see, by means wherof, their shippes might no longer stay there; for that, that it was a place w^{ch} out porte; one part of this embargeth itself. And passing before a rocky place, called Ithia, they came to aboard in the porte of Phis.

Thucydides, by Thomas Nicolls, *Lond.* 1556, fo. 53, p. 1.

Retolv'd he said: And rigg'd with speedy ease,
A vessel strong, and well equip'd for war,
The secret ship with chosen friends he stur'd;
And bent to die or conquer, went aboard.

Dryden, *Cymon* and Iph.

Was left this place about eleven in the morning, and were again conveyed, with more sunshine than wind, aboard our ship.

Faulding's *Voyage to Lanton.*

I would at the same time penetrate into their thoughts, in order to know whether your first abroad made that advantageous impression upon their fancies, which a certain address, and, manners, never fail doing.

Chamberfield, *Letter cxxxii.*

ABODE, v. } *Sax. Boda.* The first outward ex-
ABOANCE, } tremity, or boundary of any thing.
ABOUMENT, }
ABOINO. } Tooker, i. 441.

To *abode*, to *bode*, and to *forebode*, are used in the same manner, viz.

To see or discern; to show or exhibit some external, superficial appearance, sign or token, from which we infer good or ill.

Nay say, it may nat stonden in this wise

For nece mine, this witen clerkes woe

That peril is with dretching in draw

Nay, such *abodes* ben nat worth an haw,

Chaucer, the third *Book of Troilus*, fol. 171, col. 2.

Eur. Tush, man, *abodements* must not awe affright vs.

For faile or foule meanes we must oute go.

For hither will our friends repaire to vs.

Shakespeare, 3 H. VI. act iv. sc. 7.

For he [bishop Felix] brought all the penance into the faith, and works of justice, and in the end to rewards of perpetual blessedness, according to the abodement of his name, which in Latine is called *Felix*, and in our English tongue, *Happiness*.
Stow's Chronicle. *Homer's* ed. 1614, p. 61.

ABOLA, a division of the Agow, in Abyssinia. It is a narrow valley, named from a river which runs through it, whose waters receive many tributary streams. Here are many villages, and some romantic scenery.

ABOLISH, v. } *Lat. Abolere.* Gr. *Olew, αλλυμναι*,
ABOLISHMENT, } to hurt, to destroy.
ABOLITION. }

To destroy, to deprive of power; to annul, to abrogate; to annihilate.

The inhabitants of the north parties being by the means of certain abbots and ignorant priors not a little stirred and provoked for the suppression of certain monasteries, and for the extirpation and abolishing of the hyssop-tree of Rome, saying, see friends now, is taken from vs Fowler of the via sacramentis, and shortly ye shall lose the other also; and thus the faith of holy churches shall vitally be suppressed and abolished.
Hell, repr. 1809, p. 820.

ABOARD
ABOLISH.

ABOLISH. He hath given it them moreover to do these things to his glory, through the agreement of faith that they have in the unite **ABOLLA** of his godly truth, to the abolishment of all sects, false prophets, and censurers of Egypt.

Bald, Image of both Churches. W. 2.

Now to threaten that ye may yet further precious and so, that by the destruction of the clergy, mean the close abolition of Christian faith: it may like you to confound, and compare together in places of bye beggars bill.

Sir Thom. More's Works, p. 311.

Thus, M. Hardinge, it is plain by the judgement of your own doctors, that were your arduous confession quite *abolish'd*, yet might the people notwithstanding have full remission of their sinnes.

Jeuel's Defence of the Apologie.

With silly weeke old woman thus to fight—
Great glory and gay spoile sure hast thou got,
And stoutly prov'd thy poissiones here is right;
That shall *Fyrbrakes* well requite, I wot,
And with thy blood about us reprothefull blot.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. canto vi.

Mos. That vow perform'd, fasting shall be *abolish'd*:
None ever serv'd Heav'n's will with a star'd face:
Preach abstinence no more; I tell thee, Muffy,
Good feasting is devout.

Dryden's Don Sebastian, act i. a. 1.

Though he [the Church of England man] will not determine whether episcopacy be of divine right, he is sure it is most agreeable to primitive institutions, fitted of all others for preserving order and purity, and under its present regulations best calculated for our civil state: he should therefore think the abolishment of that order among us would prove a mighty scandal and corruption to our faith.

Swift's Sentiments of a Church of England man.

The abolition of Spiritual Courts (as they are called) would shake the very foundation on which the establishment is erected.

Warburton's Alliance between Church and State.

ABOLITION, in our law, a destroying, effacing, or putting out of memory; it signifies also the repealing any law or statute. The leave given by a prince or judge to a criminal accuser to desist from further prosecution of the accused, is in the most appropriate sense denominated 'abolition.'—25 H. VIII. c. xx.

ABOLITION is used, among civilians, for the remitting the punishment of a crime. It is, in this sense, a kind of amnesty; the punishment, not the infamy, being taken off. Among the Roman lawyers, it is the annulling of a prosecution; and in this sense, it differs from amnesty; for, in the former, the accusation might be renewed even by the same prosecutor, but, in the latter, it was finally extinguished. Abolition also meant the expunging a person's name from the public list of the accused, hung up in the treasury. Under Augustus, all the names which had long hung up were expunged at once; or it was done privately at the motion of one of the parties. Abolition of debts, according to the Theodosian code, was sometimes granted to those who were indebted to the fiscus. A medal of the emperor Adrian has come down to us, which represents that prince with a sceptre in one hand, and a lighted torch in the other, with which he sets fire to several papers before the people, who testify their joy and gratitude by lifting up their hands towards heaven. The legend on the medal is *Reliquis veteris n. s. nummis abolita*. An action of injury was abolished by disimulatio; a sentence of condemnation, by indulgence.

ABOLLA, (*αβόλλα*, or *αβαβόλα*) an ancient military garment, lined or doubled, worn by the Greeks and Romans. Critics and antiquaries are greatly at variance as to the form and varieties of this garment. By some it has been thought to be a species of *toga*, or gown; by Nonnius and others, a kind of *pallium* or

cloak. Varro and Martial consider the *toga* to have been a garment of peace; while the *abolla* was generally a part of the camp equipage. There seem to have been different kinds of *abolla*, appropriated to different persons. Kings appear to have used it; for Calligula is said to have been offended with Ptolemy for appearing at the shows in a purple *abolla*, which attracted the public attention from the jealous tyrant.

ABOMASUS, **ABOMASUS**, or **ABOMASUM**, names of the fourth stomach of ruminating animals. It is in the abomasus of calves and lambs that the rennet or curdling is formed wherewith milk is curdled. See **ANATOMY**, Dis. ii.

ABOMINATE, v.

ABOMINABLE, } Ab: *ominor*, omen (vel
ABOMINABILITIES, } oremen, Festus), to turn from
as a bad omen. Malum omen
ABOMINABLY, } deprecari. Junius.
ABOMINATION.

To turn from as ill omened. To loath or abhor, hate or detest, to accurse or execrate.

This knowledge that thou knowest god, but he driveth thy senses when thou hast *abominable* and unbelief and repulsive to all good work.

Wich, Tyte, chap. i.

And he aside to him, ye it ben that justifye you before men; but god hath knowne yure hartis, for that that is high to men: is *abominacion* before God.

B. Luke, chap. xvi.

And now they *modernis*, and they *envidously* men,

Quam till inquisite for till behold and keo

The *wey* figure was *abominable*;

And eke the force thereof intolerable;

Now wald they wend for all the *wey* rage.

Reddy to thier all travel in voyage.

Douglas, books v. p. 153.

Al whom therefore by the whole thowsande on an heape (for no fewer he nombeth them) dothe theys *dyabolische* devils with *abominable* blasphemy, and calleth them *lyars* and *falsehoods* of scripture, and maketh them as better than *druffe*.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 679.

That very action for which the *swine* is *abominated*, and looked upon as an useless and impure creature, namely, wallowing in the mire, is designed by nature for a very good and use; not only to cool his body, but also to suffocate and destroy noxious and unfortunate insects.

Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

Where all life dies, death lives, and nature breeds,

Perverse, all monstrous, all prodigious things,

Abominable, imitable and worse

Than fables yet have feign'd or fear conceiv'd,

Gorgons, and hydras, and chimeras dire.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book ii.

Thy kingdom come, O Lord, for in this realm is nothing amongst such as should punish vice and maintain virtue, but *abomination* abounding without bield.

Knox's History of the Reformation.

Such honour [i.e. honour] is indeed no honour at all, but impudent abuse, and profane mockery: for what can be more vain, than for a man to court and cajole him who knows his whole heart, who sees that he either minds not, or means not what he says?

Burton's Sermons.

If envy is thus confessedly bad, and it is only emulation that is encouraged in children, surely there ought to be great care taken, that children may know the one from the other. That they may *abominate* the one as a great crime, whilst they give the other admission into their minds.

Law's Serious Call.

ABOMINATION, a Scripture phrase for idolatry of various descriptions, and designed to express the Divine detestation of all false worship. The Jews were to sacrifice in the wilderness "the abomination" of the Egyptians; that is, their sacred animals, as a means

ABOLLA

ABOMINATE

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ABOM-
NATE.
—
ABORT.

of weaning them from their attachment to the customs of that singular people. Thus the Chaldean interpreters, the Syrian, St. Jerome, and others, quoted by Whitty, understand the singular use of the word, Esod, viii. 26, which we can hardly suppose to have been addressed to the Egyptian monarch, as it literally stands.

ABONI, a town in Africa, near the slave coast, which gives name to a province rich in gold.

ABONNEMENT, a military agreement entered into by any corporation, or public authority, for supplying an army with provisions.

ABORAS, in Xenophon called Araxes, a river of Mesopotamia, which rose near the Tigris, and flowed into the Euphrates at Circium. In the negotiation between Diocletian and Narses, it was fixed as the boundary between the Roman and Persian empires, A. D. 297.

ABORIGINES, a people of Italy, who inhabited the ancient Latium, now called Romania, or Campagna di Roma. The origin and propriety of this appellation is a subject of so much controversy among antiquaries, that we can only profess to give the leading opinions. The Aborigines, then, are distinguished from the Janigene, who are stated to have inhabited the country before them; from the Sietuli, whom they conquered; from the Grecians, from whom they are said to have been descended; from the Latins, whose name they assumed after their union with Æneas and the Trojans; and lastly, from the Ausonii, Volsci, Cætrui, &c. Dion. Antiq. Rom. l. i. c. 10, ap. op. t. i. p. 8—11 ed. Oxon. St. Jerome derives their name from their being *ab origine*, the primitive planters of the country after the flood. Aurelius Victor suggests that they were called Aborigines, q. d. Aberrigines, from *ab* "from," and *errare* "to wander," as having been before a wandering people, and met by seicident in Italy. Pausanias thinks they were thus called, *avo opa*, "from mountains;" which opinion seems confirmed by Virgil, in the eighth book of the *Æneid*, v. 321. Others again maintain them to be Arcadians, brought at different times into Italy, and to have derived their name from the mountains of Arcadia, *opov* *γρηος*; affirming that they were first planted here under the conduct of Cætrius, son of Lycos, 450 years before the Trojan war; then in a second party from Thebes; a third order Evander, sixty years before the Trojan war; besides another under Hercules; and another of Lacedæmonians, who fled from the severe discipline of Lycurgus: all of whom constituted the Aborigines.

The name Aborigines is used in modern times to denote the primitive inhabitants of a country, in contradistinction to colonists.

ABORT, v.

ABORT, n.

ABORTION,

ABORTMENT,

ABORTIVE,

ABORTIVE, adj.

ABORTIVELY,

ABORTMENT.

Then slush mark'd abortive rooting boggs,

Thou that wast in thy nativity

The slave of nature, and the sense of hell.

Shakespeare's *Richard III.* act i. sc. 3.

And Julia [the daughter of Julius Cæsar, and the wife of Pompey], a little before dying of an abort in childbirth, together with

Abt: *orior*, to rise from; applied to that; quod non sit tempestive ortum; which has arisen out of season. To rise or spring from; unreasonably, untimely. To produce or bear prematurely or unnaturally; to miscarry, or fail in bearing the full time.

the infant she bore; it lay therefore open and clear in every man's eye, that . . . she gone, without any slip remaining, who had been the fastest earnest to hold her father and husband together; there would ensue but a dry and sandy friendship between them.

Reliquæ Hæmæmar.

The latter exclaims . . . justly had, that to give any such expelling or destructive medicine, with a direct intention to work an *abortion*, whether before or after animation, is utterly unlawful and highly sinful.

Bishop Hall's *Cures of Conscience*.

The like may be said of the other law of *avarice* concerning abortion or the destruction of a child in the mother's womb, being a thing punished severely by all good laws, as injurious not only to nature, but also to the common-wealth, which thereby is deprived of a designed citizen.

Hobbes's *Apology*, lib. ii. cap. ii. sec. iv.

But power, your grace, can abortive give,

It can give power to make abortions live.

Cowley's *Poem*.

The purpose of this discourse is to represent in what state of things our pardon stands here; and that it is not only conditional, but of itself a suitable effect, a disposition towards the great pardon, and therefore if it be not nurs'd and maintain'd by the proper instruments of its progression, it dies like an abortive conception, and shall not have that immortality whither it was designed.

Taylor's *Poetical Discourses*.

Round him [Boys] much calque, much abortion lay,

Much future ode, and abdicated play;

Nonsense precipitate, like running lead,

That slipp'd through crags and zig-zag of the head.

Pope's *Dunciad*, book i.

Any enterprise undertaken without resolution, managed without care, prosecuted without vigour, will easily be dashed and prove abortive, ending in disappointment, damage, disgrace, and dissatisfaction.

Burrows's *Sermons*.

ABORTION. See MIDWINTER.

ABORTION, among gardeners, signifies such fruits as are produced too early, and never arrive at maturity.

ABORTIVA CORN, a distemper in corn mentioned by M. Tillet, and suspected to be occasioned by insects. It appears long before harvest, and may be known by a deformity of the stalk, the leaves, the ear, and even the grain.

ABORTIVE VELLUM, is made of the skin of an abortive calf.

ABOU Hannes, a bird of Abyssinia, so called because it appears on St. John's day: the term signifying *father John*. At this season, all water-fowl that are birds of passage resort to Ethiopia, when the tropical rains first mix with the Nile. This bird, in the opinion of Mr. Bruce, is the *Ibis* of the ancients. It is four and a half inches in length.

ABOVE, prep. A. S. *Bofan*—Be-*ufan*. Bove, top or head. R. Brunne, and the elder English authors write it, *Abouen*—*Abowen*—G. Douglas, *Aboue*, *Abufe*. In R. Gloucester and R. Brunne, it is applied as uppermost or superior in rank and power, rank, &c.; and beneath, is opposed to it.

It is usual to consider above as a preposition and an adverb: but the meaning remains the same.

It is much used in composition. *Above-board* has a metaphorical application to that which is uncovered, un concealed, undisguised.

A God sent him tokening on sight she be sleep,

that he said fixed a pensive cry at morn,

As he sought grace, alone as he was born,

As if he would pray him, for Jhesu Crase's love,

He wold do be hatele, & yet said be above.

R. Brunne, p. 22.

ABOVE.
—
ABOUND.

And thus thou might wot vnderstand
My some, if thou art such in love,
Thou might not come at thyn end
Of that thou woldst wot schew.

Gower, Cus. A. bk. iv.

Wherefore, Melibee, this is our sentence; we counsel thee, wherefore thou shouldst know that thou dost thy diligence in keeping of thy proper person, in which a wise man that so want no joye as wache, thy body for to save.

Chaucer, *The Tale of Melibee*.

On Lord, on faith, on God withouten mo,
On Cristendom, and of all alme
Alme all, and otre all every wher
Thou woldst all with gold wyrtwen wern.

Chaucer, *the second Nonnes Tale*.

Allace, how great a batel and debate
Sai be betwix thaim, gif they til certen
May cum aye and to the licht of lyf,
O how great discomfort, enmity, and huge stryfe
Sai they exerce and move into there daye!

Douglas, *book v.*

But one thing yet there is adow all other:
I gese him wape, wherewith he might up fise
To honour and fame; and if he wold to hygher
Then mortal thing, adow the stryke.

Wynt.

I'll sing the mighty riddle of mysterious love,
Which neither wretched men below, nor blessed spirits above,
With all their comments can explain;
How all the whole world's life to die did disdain!

Chaucer, *Chaucer's Parnassus*.

They that speak ingeniously of bishops and presbyters, say, that a bishop is a great presbyter, and debating the time of his being bishop, above a Presbyter; as your President of the College of Physicians is above the rest, yet he is no more than a Doctor of Physick.

Selden's *Table Talk*.

O, giver of eternal bliss,
Heavenly Father, grant me this;
Grant it all, as well to me,
All whom hearts are fix'd on thee;
Who revere thy Son alone,
Who thy sacred Spirit love.

Furnell's *Hymn for Morning*.

And sure if aught below the seats divine
Can teach immortals, 'tis a soul like thine:
A soul extreme, in each hard instance try'd;
Above all pain, all passion, and all pride.

Pope's *Ep. to Earl Mortimer*.

The religion of the gospel is spiritual; the religion of the Jews, as they made it, was carnal. The gospel places morality above rites and ceremonies: the Jews preferred, in their practice at least, the ritual law to the moral.

Jortin's *Discourses*.

ABOUKIR, an inconsiderable town of Egypt, about 10 miles from Alexandria. It is the Caeopus of the ancients, and is described by Strabo as situated on an island. It has been brought into notice in modern times by the expedition of the French into Egypt, who took the town, after a vigorous defence, from the Turks;—and here Sir Ralph Abercrombie, in 1801, landed the British army, which finally expelled the French. The bay, which is formed on the west side of the town by the promontory on which it is situated, is distinguished for another memorable triumph of the British arms: here the glorious battle of the Nile was fought by Admiral Lord Nelson, 1798.

ABOUND', v. A bound, ab: unda, from a wave.
ABUND'ANCE, To come or be, to flow, to over-
flow in great quantity or number;
as waters from the sea; to be rich,
copious or plentiful.

And god is myght to make al grace abound in ghos, that ghe is all things enmore han al sufficiency and absolute into al good

werk as it is written, he delide ahead, he ghaft to pees men his ABOUND rightwysness dwellith withouten ende.

Wicliif, 2 *Corynth*, chap. ix. ABOUT.

Sowerly the scriptures aboundeth with examples, teaching ev, all present and longy felicity to be greatly suscepyd.
The Episcopace of Daniel, by George Joye, f. 50. c. ii.

Ther as a wedded man in his estat,
Liveth a lif blisful and ordnat
Under the yoke of marriage ybound;
Wel may his herte in joye and hysse abound,
For who can be so blisful as a wif.

Chaucer, *The Marchantes Tale*.

This helys monestere [Alecto] ful of wrath and fele,
Hysid, and quhylyt with as fel eddir sounde,
And his figure as grisly grete habownde,
With gleusand ote byrns of flambe blak.

Douglas, b. vii. p. 222.

The bodily marchandise, that is leful and honest, is this, that ther as O-d hath ordeined, that a regne of a countre is sufficient to himself, than it is honest and leful, that of the haboundance of this countre moe helps another countre that is needy; and therefore ther must be marchants to bring fro on countre to another hir marchandise.

Chaucer, *The Pervener Tale*.

Every wight in sothe yearlyly wende haboundant, in holdis nodely precious, benigne, and wise, to doe what he shall, in any degree that men him set, all be it that the sothe be in the contrary of all the thinges; but he that can so near so well him behave, and hath vertus haboundant, in manifolde manere, and be not wealthid with such yearlyly goodes is holds for a kole, and saide his wite is but assted.

Chaucer, *First booke of Test of Love*, fol. 294. c. iv.

And bitheren, we preien ghos, that ghe knowe hem that traselen among ghos, and ben souerayns to ghos in the lord, and techen ghos that ghe have hem aboundant in charite, and for the werk of hem haue ghe pees with hem.

Wicliif, 1 *Tract*, chap. v.

She [Fortune] cyther gines a stomack, and no fode,
(Such are the poore in health), or else a feast,
And takes away the stomack, (such are the rich,
That have abundance and enjoy it not.)

Shakespeare, 2 *Henry IV*, act. iv. sc. 4.

"There did I see our conquer'd fathers fall
"Before the English on that fatal ground,
"When as to cure their number was but small,
"And with lewre spirits France ne'er did more abound;
"Yet oft that battle into mud I call,
"Whereas of cure, our man would all our wound."

Drayton's *Battle of Agincourt*.

He goes lightly that wants a load. If there be more pleasure in abundance, there is more security in a man estate.

Bishop Hall's *Contemplations*.

The elements doe order here maintain,
And pay their tribute in of warmth and rale;
Cool shades and streams, rich fertile lands abound,
And Nature's bounty flows the seasons round.

Obey's *Winter Castle*.

The Romans abound with little honorary rewards, that without conferring wealth or riches, gave only place and distinction to the person who received them.

Goodman, No. 96.

Through the lightens'd air
A higher loutre and a clearer calm,
Diffusive, tremble; while, as if in sign
Of danger past, a glittering robe of joy,
Set off abundant by the yellow ray,
Iovers the fields; and Nature smiles revived.

Thomson's *Summer*.

Aristotle, in his *Politics*, both proved abundantly to my satisfaction, that no man are to be slaves, except barbarians; and these only to such as are not themselves barbarians.

Felding's *Peagee to Lisbon*.

ABOUT, Sax. abuta. On buta. On boba. Boba, the first outward extremity or boundary of any thing. It is variously written—Abouten, Aboute, About.

ABOUT.
—
ABOUT
IGE.

Engelende ys a wei god land, ich wene of eche land breyt
Y set in je ends of je world, as al in je West.
De see goy hym al aboute, he stont as a eyde.

R. Gloucester, p. 1

Gogmagog was a great swiſe grete and strong,
A boote fast and twenti fat me sey þe was long.

Id. p. 22.

Ac þe þe balle was through, and þe byge hungode,
Ther was no raton of al þe route, for al þe reame of
France,

þe þeris hawe bawde þe balle, a boote þe cuttes necke
Ne here it hangid a boote b'ale.

Finn of Ferra Phokman, repr. 1813. p. 10.

For, brother min, take of me this motif,
I have now ben a court-man all my lif,
And god it ont, though I unworthy be,
I have stonden in ful gret degre,
Aboute lodes of ful high estat.
Yet had I with non of hem delat,
I never hem containe trewly.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale.

Thou blindid God (quod I) forgoȝ me this offence,
Unwillingly I went about, to make this pretence.

Surry.

Whn? What an awe am I? I sure, this is most true,
That I, the Sonne of the Deere murdered,
Prompted to my revenge by Heaton, and Hell,
Must (like a whore) unspacke my heart with words,
And full a curving like a very drab,
A sculme? Ys youn't, foh—about my braine.

Shakespeare. Hamlet, act ii. sc. 2.

Fer. 1; if I can strike a fine bow into him now;
The Temple church; there I have cast mine angle.
Well, pray for me. I'll about it.

Johnson's Alchemist, act ii. sc. 2.

And as I wake, sweet music breathe
Above, about, or underneath,
Sent by some spirit to mortal good,
Or the unseen genius of the wood.

Milton's H. Pisanon.

He that goeth about to persuade a multitude, that they are not
so well governed as they ought to be, shall never want attentive
and favourable hearers.

Hobbes's Ec. Policy.

Meditate and enquire with great diligence and exactness into
the nature, properties, circumstances, and relations of the particular
subject about which you judge or agree. You should survey a question
round about, and on all sides, and extend your views as far as
possible, in every thing that has a connection with it.

Wolf's Logic.

First, for your bees a proper station find,
That's fow'd about and shelter'd from the wind;
For winds divert them in their flight, and drive
The swarms, when laden homeward, from their hive.

Addison's Translation of Virgil, Georg. iv.

We are always intending to lead a new life, but can never find a
time to set about it.

Tillotson's Sermons.

For men to judge of their condition by the decrees of God which
are hid from us, and not by his word which is near us and in our
hearts, as is if a man wandering in the wide sea, in a dark night
when the heaven is all clouded about, should yet resolve to steer
his course by the stars which he cannot see but only guess at, and
neglect the compass, which is at hand and would afford him a
better and more certain direction.

B.

About, the situation of a ship immediately after
she has changed her course by going about and stand-
ing on the other tack.—'About ship,' is the order to
the ship's crew for tacking.

ABOÛTIGÉ, a town of Upper Egypt, near the Nile,
where they make the best opium in the Levant. It
was formerly large, but is now mean. It stands on the
site of Abotis: the burgh of Settefe, a little above it,
represents the small city of Apollo. N. lat. 26°, 50'.

ABRA.
—
ABRADE.
—

ABRA, a silver coin in Poland, worth about an
English shilling. It is current in several parts of
Germany, and through the dominions of the Grand
Seignior.

ABRACADABRA, a magical word, which has been
recommended as an antidote against agues and several
other diseases, particularly the fever called by the
physicians *hemitriticus*. The word is to be written on
paper as many times as the word contains letters,
omitting the last letter of the former every time, and
repeated in the same order; and then suspended about
the neck by a linen thread.

ABRACADABRA, being the name of a god wor-
shipped by the Syrians, wearing it was considered as
an invocation of his aid.

ABRADE' s. Ab: rado, to rub or scrape off.
ABRAISON, } The verb to bray, (french *brayer*.)
ABRAIDE, } i. e. to pound or beat to pieces,
BRAIDS'. } though now obsolete (says Tooke)
was formerly very common in our language.

The past tense is written indiscriminately *braide*,
abrade, and the word is applied to any sudden or violent
action or motion.

To break, to pull or tear; to start, leap or spring.

To make an eruption, assault, assail, unset, insurrec-
tion, revolt. In Wielik we find *Debrayd*. And *Upbrad*
is to common use.

A gret nk he wolde *brade* a dou, as if a small gerde were,
And here forth in his hand, þat ful forte a fee.

R. Gloucester, p. 22.

De letter in his hand laid enwid and in silke bounde.

He envenomed knyfe nat brad saw gaf toward a sounde.

R. Brome, p. 129.

And Jheron answered and seyle to him, a unfaithful genera-
cion and weyward: how longe schal I be at you and softe you?
þing hidur thy sone; And whense he cam nygh, the devel hurt-
lide him down and to troyde him and Jheron blamefe the unciene
spirit; and hevide the childe, and took him to his fedir.

Wiclif, Luk. chap. ix.

Jesus answered and sayde O faithlesse generacion, and croked
nacion! how longe shall I be with you, and shall suffer you,
Bryng thy sones hyther. As he was yet a comynge, the feid
note him and tare him.

Bible, 1539.

And Jesus thretenyde him and seide wexe doumbe and go out
of the man. And the unciene spirit *debrayde* him and crying
with grete voyz went out fro him.

Wiclif, Mark, chap. i.

— And when he cometh ther at
And sigb his daughter, he to brade
His clothes, and wende he saide.

Cover, Can. A. bk. ii.

This J-cha answered; Alrin, avise thee:
The reiler is a perilous man, he sayde.
And if that he out of his slepe arise
He mighte don or bathe a vilsone.
Alcin answered; I count him nat a fie.

Chaucer. The River Tale.

Up to the heven his honde he gan he hold
And on his knees bare he set him down,
And in his reving said his orison.
For veray we out of his wit he dronde,
He wote what he spake, but thus he saide.

Chaucer. The Franchises Tale.

Whiles in this sort he did his tale pronunce;
With waiward looke she gan him ay behuld,
And roleng eies, that moned to and fro:
With silence looke discouraging aw ay;
And fourth in rage she gan she bryde.

Surry.

ABRADE.

ABRETTENE.

And lightly started up as one afraid;
 Th as if one him suddenly did call.
 So, abettene he out of sleep awoke,
 And then lay musing long, on that him ill ay'd.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. iv. canto v.

Yet hapless state of man! his earliest youth
 Cares itself; his age defends mask'd.
 Nor deem it strange that rolling years abroad
 The social bias. *Shenstone's Economy, Part I.*

ABRAHAMITES, or **ABRAHAMANS**, an order of religious, who derived their appellation from one Abraham, a native of Antioch, or, as the Arabs called him, *Ibrahim*. The emperor Theophilus, who united in his own character, the apparent zeal of a Christian with the fury of a persecutor, exterminated the Abrahamites, on a vague charge of idolatry, in the ninth century.

ABRANTES, a large and populous town of Portugal, in the province of Estramadura, occupying a delightful eminence, which commands a pleasing and picturesque prospect, surrounded by luxuriant gardens and plantations. It is near the mouth of the Tago; and is now celebrated for a famous battle, in which the English and French forces greatly signalized themselves. The French general, Junot, was afterwards created duke of Abrantes. The town suffered much during the late war. The castle, in particular, was greatly injured. At the time here alluded to, Abrantes contained nearly 40,000 inhabitants, and several convents, almshouses, and hospitals. W. lon. 70°, 18'. N. lat. 39°, 13'.

ABRASAX, or **ABRAKAX**, a cabalistic word composed of the following letters $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta$, making, according to the Grecian numeration, the number 365. This word was used as an amulet, or charm, by the disciples of Basil, father of the monks of Pontus.

In antiquity, the name is appropriated to a stone, on which the word is engraven, and sometimes the names of saints, angels, gods, and even Jehovah himself. Specimens, supposed to be as old as the third century, are still extant. If the Abraxas originally came from Egypt, as is believed, it may be regarded not as a curiosity fit only for the cabinet, but as one of those rich spoils of time which may illustrate the history of that country.

ABREAST, *adv.* See **BREAST**.

ABREAST, a maritime phrase, signifying side by side, or even opposite in; and used to denote ships lying, or sailing, with their sides parallel to each other. The term, however, has a more particular reference to the line of battle at sea. When the line is formed *abreast*, the whole squadron advances uniformly and evenly; the commander-in-chief being always stationed in the centre, and the ships equidistant from each other. *Abreast* of any place, signifies being opposite to it. In the interior of the ship, *abreast* means to be on the starboard or larboard side of the main hatchway, in opposition to *fore* or *abaft* the hatchway.

ABREOLIOS, or **ABREOLLOS**, a dangerous point of land stretching out from the coast of Brazil, in W. lon. 39°, 18'. S. lat. 17°, 18', terminated by some hidden rocks and sands, on which frequent shipwrecks have occurred. It requires great skill and knowledge of the coast to avoid this point.

ABRETTENE, or **ABRETTINE**, an ancient district of Mysia, in Asia. The people were called Abrettini, inhabiting the country between Ancyra of Phrygia, and the river Rhyndacus.

VOL. XVII.

ABRIDGE, *v.* } These words are used with the **ABRIDGE**, *v.* } same application as *Abbréviation*, **ABRIDGER**, } (*qv.*) and are usually referred to the same origin. The Etymology of *Ménager* surely leads us immediately right.—*Abreger*, from the German *Brechen*, *frangere*, to break; *Saxon*, *Abbreccan*.

But Isaac crieth for Israel, if the number of the children of Israel shall be as great as of the sea, the reefs shall be made sand. For sothe a word makinge an ende and *abridge* in equite, for the lood shall make a word *brugged* up all the vrbis.

Wells's *Homage*, chap. ix.

But Isaac crieth for Israel: though the number of the children of Israel be as sands of y^e sea, yet the ynomast shall be saved. For he sayeth the word verrey, *ad modum* it *short* in rightness. For a short worde wil God make on erth.

Bible, *Levi*, 1539.

Largesse it is, whose privilege
 There none so narrow *abridge*.

Gower, *Con. A.* book viii.

And when this olds man wrode to enforce his tale by verses wel me alle as ones begones they to me, for to *abridge* his tale, and bidde him ful tell his stories for to *abridge*. For sothly he that precheth to him that listeth not heren his wordis, his sermon be to anoth.

Chaucer, *The Tale of Meville*, vol. ii. p. 76.And here it that I wille as now *abridge*:Diffusion of speaker, I could *abridge*.A thousand sile stories thou *abridge*.Of women *abridge*, through false & foolish loke.Id. *Third booke of Tristram*, bk. 148, col. iii.

Of Theophrastus authoritie we never made any great account. He is but a very idle writer to compare with the Ancient Fathers. For the most parte of that he writeth, he is but an *abridger* of Chrysostome. *Jewel's Defence of the Apol.* v.

Wherefore to *abridge* his power, and to minishe his auctoritie they determined to bring him into the hatred of the people, and into the disdain of the monies.

Hall, *repr.* 1809, p. 225.But as our parts *abridge*, or lengthen our age.

So peace we all, while other fill the stage.

Skerrett.

[The emperours] specially charge the sayde byshop that he wold shewe unto his sayde some y^e great daiger that he was in agaynst God for the dyspachours doo to hym, & specially that he was a cause of the *abrogement*, or shurtyng, of his dayes.

Folger, *repr.* 1811, p. 151.

Time is the muse and breeder of all good;

Here if thou stay, thou canst not see thy loss;

Besides, thy staying wil *abridge* thy life—

Hope in a lover's staffe, walke hence with that

And manage it against despairing thoughts.

Shakespeare's *Two Gent.* of *Viv.* p. 10, act. i. sc. 1.Tut. Say, what *abridgement* have you for this evening?

What make! What musicks? How shall we beguile

The lazie time, if not with some delight?

Id. *M. N. Dreamer*, p. 139, act. v. sc. 1.

Ford women, and scarce speaking childrens moans.

Bewail his [Herford's] parting, wishing his return.

That I was forced to *abridge* his husband's years.

When they beds w'd have footsteps with their tears.

Dryden's *Richard II.* *Queen Isabel*, p. 101.

Breasts too were his command: what could he more?

Yes, man he could, the bond of all beware;

In him be all things with strange order build'd;

In him, that full *abridgement* of the world.Cowley's *Daphnis*, book i.

If I should *abridge* all the holy prophets, and gather up out of them all the measures of judgments which they denounce against their sin of Israel, I might well bring them home to our own doors, and justify almightie we with the expectation of such further revenge from Divine Justice: for how can we be wiser than think, but that we are sinners must carry away the same punishment.—

Bishop Hall's *Sermons*.

When our blessed Lord gives in *abridge-meat*, a abstract, of the ten commandments, he denot it in three words. *Matth.* xxii. 37, 38, 39. "Love the Lord thy God with all thy heart and soul, that is, love God above all things; this is the first and great commandment. And the second—like unto it; love thy neighbor as thy self."

Harris's *Sermons*.

ABRIDGE.

ABRIZAN.

Here lies David Garrick, describe him who can,
An abridgment of all that was pleasant in man;
As an actor, content without rise to shame;
As a wit, if not first, in the very first time!

Goldsmith's Retaliation.

That man should thus encroach on fellow man,
Abridge him of his just and native rights,
Evaluate him, tear him from his hold
Upon the' endowment of domestic life
And social, up his fruitfulness and use,
And doom him for perhaps a hellish word
To lavender, and solitude, and tears,
Moves indignation.

Cowper's Task, b. v.

ABRIDGMENT, in Literature, signifies the compression of the matter of any book into a smaller compass, or into fewer words; and should be done according to certain rules, and a determinate plan.

Dr. Johnson, in his *Life of Butler*, has remarked, that he that makes a book from books, though he cannot be called great, may be useful; he, therefore, that can compress the thoughts of an author into a few, if it be still an adequate number of words, subverts the interests of literature and science. To do this, however, it is not sufficient that his abridgment should consist of a string of merely garbled extracts, and loose quotations; even should those extracts prove to be the best, most elegant, and most pointed in the whole book. Few writers are content to cease writing as soon as their subject is exhausted; and fewer still can so far restrain themselves, during the heat of composition, as to finish one particular topic or branch of their subject, without some flight, some unnecessary aberration, which, however pleasing to themselves, is liable to the censure of the more judicious, or more sober reader.

It is the duty, therefore, of the *abridger* of any work first to divest himself of all undue prepossession in favour of the author's subject and style of writing; and particularly from all merely personal predilections for the author before him. He will then sit down coolly and carefully to his second duty, which is that of ascertaining (to a certainty if possible) his author's precise meaning and drift. When the abridger has so far prepared himself, he should then keep a jealous eye upon all his author's instances of what is called fine writing—such as poetical excursions into the regions of imagination; deviously turned periods; and enigmatical allusions: abundant specimens of which may be found in the writings of Gibbon, who, it is to be feared, like some others, occasionally sacrifices even historical veracity to the desire of expressing a simple fact in the finest language.

An abridger should be scrupulous not to omit any material fact, or to abate the least of his author's spirit and general manner; still less should he add any facts of his own, nor any glossings from other writers on the same subject, which would be to *complete* and not to *abridge*. The very words of the author should be preserved as much as possible; for to express another man's thoughts in one's own words, is more the task of a *translator* than an *abridger*. Neither should an *abridgment* be a mere *analysis*: for to *analyze* a subject is not always to *abridge* it.

ABRIZAN, or ABRIZOHAN, or ABRIZHAN, from the Persian word *Abriz*, 'a vessel proper for pouring out water': the name of a feast observed by the old

Persians on the 13th day of the month Tir, corresponding to our September; during which, all sorts of people sprinkled each other with water, from the higher odiferous plants. "This heathenish festival was apparently preparatory to the descent of the rain in those countries; being about the time of the autumnal equinox, and has been adopted by the Mahometans." "Might not the returning Jews," Harmer asks, "think of adding some memorial of Jehovah's being the giver of rain to that ancient national solemnity that had been enjoined by Moses, to be observed just about the same time of the year with that of the Persian festival, which that people, with solemnity, ascribed to some deity they worshipped, but which the Jews knew was the gift of Jehovah?" *Observations on Passages of Scripture.*

ABROACH, v. t. Sax. *Abrocan*. To break.

ABROACH, *adv.* } To breach a vessel is to break into it: to be *abroach*, or to set *abroach*, is to put things in that state in which the contents of a vessel *breached* or *broken* into are.

And when that I have told thee forth my tale

Of tribulation in marriage,

Of which I am expert to all man age.

(This is to say, myself hath been the whippe)

Than maist thou chuse whether thou wilt sippe

Of thine tonne, that I shall *abroche*.

Chaucer, The wife of Bathes Prologue, vol. i. p. 233.

But of this trouble I [quote Katherine] only maye thanke you my lorde Cardinal of Yorke, for because I have wondered at your high gyde and ramgely, and above your voluptuous life, and abominable lechery, and late regard your penitency power and tyranny therefore of malice you have kindled this fire, and set this matter a breake.

Hall, p. 755.

From whence had you this doctrine, M. Harding? who set it firste *abroche*? I was taught it? who edified it? who allowed it?
Jewel's Defence of the Apology.

Whose frightful vision, at the first approach,

With violent madness struck that deep, mad age,

No many sondy miseries *abroch*,

Giving full speed to their rabid rage.

Dryden's Bonus Viri, p. 34.

Let but some upstart hersey be set *abroch*, and presently there are some out of a curious humour; others, as if they watched an occasion of singularity, will take it up for canonical, and make it part of their creed and profession.

Bishop Wilkins's Discovery of a new World.

Hest thou no friend to set thy mind *abroch*?

Good sense will stagnate. Thoughts shod up want air.

And spoil, like beehs uncop'd to the sun.

Young's Complaint, Night ii.

The similitude between the titles promised, and the doctrines taught in the Grecian and Egyptian mysteries, would be alone sufficient to point up to their original; such as the doctrine taught of a metempsychosis, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which the Greek writers agree to have been first set *abroch* by the Egyptians.

Warburton's Div. Legation of Moses.

ABROAD; *Abrod*, R. Gloucester; *O brode*, R. Brunne; *Abrood*, Wiclif; *On brede*, Chaucer; *and Douglas*; *Broad* is from the A. S. *Brædan*, *Abreadan*. To *Brædan*, to enlarge, to extend, to dilate, to amplify.

With thulke stee he smot al of the soelle & ek the croost,

That the brain on al *abrod* in the pavement they dounce.

R. Gloucester, p. 476.

Therefore thei don alle her werks, that thei be seen of men, for thei drawen *abrood* her falsheetes and many fan hermes, and thei loven the firste sittyng place in *superie*, and the firste chaire in *synagoge*, and salutacions in *clowp*, and to be clyped of men *maist*.

Wiclif, Matthew, chap. xxiii.

ABROAD

ABROGATE.

The rose spread to sparrowhilling
To see it was a goodly thing
That men within might know the aide.
Chaucer, Romance of the Rose, fol. 133, col. 2.

Are fellows broke it maid and scold withall,
And lurge on bridle over Grekis mounts did fall.
Danforth, b. ii. p. 54.

My hart gon now reide and charged blood did stir
Me to withdrawe my wynter weas, that leyt within the dore,
Abrode, quod my desire, assay to set thy lode,
Where thou shalt finde the savour sweete, for spring is every rote.
Surrey.

And I have thrust my selfe into this mass,
Happily to wive and thine as best I may,
Counsaile in my purse I have, and goods at home,
And so am come abroad to see the world.
Shakespeare, Tem. of the S. p. 213, act i. sc. 2.

The clouds
From many a horrid rift absorptive pour'd
Fierce rains with lightning mix'd, water with fire,
In ruin reveal'd: — see swept the winds
Within their stony caves, but rush'd abroad
From the four hinges of the world, and fell
On the vex'd wilderness.
Milton's Paradise Regain'd, book iv.

Hee, boys! she needs away, and by my head I know,
We round the world are sailing now.
What shall men are those that tarry at home,
When abroad they might wondrously roam,
And gain such experience, and spy too
Such countries and wonders, as I do!
Chaucer's Tale of sitting and drinking in the chair made out of the relics of Sir F. Drake's ship.

God hath made care and sweat, penitence and diligence, expi-
rience and watchfulness, wisdom and labour at home, and good
gudies abroad, to be instruments and means to purchase virtue.
Taylor's Sermons.

Qu. M. Speak then, for speech is morning to the mind,
It spreads the beauteous visions abroad.
Dryden's Duke of Guise, act ii. sc. 1.

It is not unknown to any that observes the state of things in
the world, how many erroneous religions are scattered abroad
in the world; and how industrious men of false persuasions are to
make proselytes.
Hale's Contemplations.

None [of the bees] range abroad when winds and storms are nigh,
Nor trust their lodges to a faithless sky,
But make small journeys, with a careful wing,
And fly to water at a neighbouring spring.
Addison's Travels.

Amuse your conquering troops: let Angus guard
The coast with a chosen band. The soul
Of treason is abroad!
Shakespeare's Reginald, act v. sc. i.

While the national honour is firmly maintained abroad, and
while justice is impartially administered at home, the obedience
of the subject will be voluntary, cheerful, and I might almost say,
unlimited.
Junot, Letter i.

ABROGATE, v. Ab: rogo. Rogare legem, is to ask
the people for their votes upon
a law proposed, to propose a
law; and subsequently, to pass a law; and abrogate
legem, to repeal; to annul; abolish a law; and in this
application the word is usually found in English.

Beside this, all estates made by king Edward, were closely
revoked, abrogated, and made frustrate.
Hall, p. 286.

I do not altogether the grace of God; for if righteousness be by
the law, then Christ dyed without a cause.
Geneva Bible, 1561. Galatians, chap. ii. v. 21.

Which fullyfills the law concluded our religion within
the limits of faith and love, all the ceremonies of the temple, both
sacred and carnal abrogated.
The Exposition of Daniel, by George Jago, fo. 169, 170.

NATH. Perge, good M. Holofemes, perge, so it shall please you
to abrogate scurrility.

Shakespeare, Love's L. L. p. 131, act iv. sc. 2.

That rule of Rome proud Beaulieu now doth wear
In every place such way should never be:
The cross-stuff in his impious hand,
To be the scepter that contriveth the land;
That home to England's separation draws,
Which are of power to abrogate our laws.
Dryden's Duke Humphrey in Elzevir Colium, p. 110.

The negative precepts of men may cease by many instruments,
by contrary customs, by public disallow, by long omission; but
the ergative precepts of God never can cease, but when they are
expressly abrogated by the same authority.

Taylor's Rules and Exercises of Holy Living and Dying.

It appears to have been a usual practice in Athens, on the esta-
blishment of any law esteemed very useful or popular, to prohibit
for ever its alteration and repeal.

Hume's Essays.

That which I demand is, what peace of mind a sinner can have in
this world, who knows not how soon he may be dispatched in that
place of torment? Can he hold the hands of the Almighty, that he
shall not snatch him away till he hath repented? or can he reverse
the decrees of heaven, or suspend the execution of them? Can he
abrogate the laws of his laws, and make his own terms with God?
Stillingfleet's Sermons.

Nor is it well, nor can it come to good,
That, through profane and infidel contempt
Of holy writ, she [London] has presum'd to annul
And abrogate, so roughly as she may,
The total ordinance and will of God.

Carpenter's Task, book i.

ABROMA, formed of a and *βρομα*, q. d. 'not fit for
food,' used in opposition to Theobroma, as a genus of
plants belonging to the natural order of Columbariæ,
the Malvaceæ of Jussieu, and the 18th class of poly-
delphia didodecadria.

ABRUG-BANYA, a rich and populous town of
Transylvania, in the province of Weissenburg, abounding
with mines of gold and silver. E. lon. 23°, 24', N. lat.
46°, 50'.

ABRUPT, adj. Ab: rumpo, raptus. To break off,
or away from. Broken off from
ABRUPTION, }
ABRUPTLY, } Generally used where the breach
ABRUPTNESS, } and separation is sudden, or
violent, or hasty, or unexpected.

TEAR. O Cressida, how often have I wish'd thee thus!
Cress. Wish't my kind? The gods grant! O my hand!
TEAR. What should they grant? What makes this pretty
abruption: what too curious droll copies my sweet lady in the
fountain of our love?
Shakespeare, Tr. & Cr. p. 90.

Or if thou hast not broken from company
Abruptly, as my passion now makes use,
Thou hast not lost it.
Id. As You Like It, p. 191, act ii.

Pardon, if my abruptness breed disease;
— His merits not 'till then, that hinders to please.
*Johnson's Part of the King's Entertainment in passing
to his Coronation.*

The direct he is a spirit, and hath means and opportunity to
mingle himself with our spirits, and sometimes more easily, some-
times more abruptly and openly, to suggest devilish thoughts into
our hearts.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Did not I note your dark abrupted ends
Of words half spoke; your "wells, if all were known?"
Your short "I like not that?" your gouts and buts?
Ford's Love's Sacrifice, act iii. sc. 2.

x 2

ABRUPT. The effects of whose [the sun's] activity are not precipitously abrupt, but gradually proceed to their exactions.
Brown's Vulgar Errors, book vi. chap. x.

It is a violence in manners to depart from the house of our friend as soon as the tables are removed, and an act of treachery to rise from our common meals without prayer and thanksgiving. How much more aloof and impious, then, were it for us to depart abruptly from the Lord's table.

Comber's Companion to the Temple, part iii. sect. 19.

Abrupt, with eagle-speed she cut the sky;
 Instant invisible to mortal eye.

Pope's Translation, Homer's Iliad, book i.

Hence proceeds the surprising warmth, and boldness of figure, the abrupt transitions, the sudden lofty flights of the eastern writers and speakers, utterly contrary to the cool and regular genius of the European languages.

Secker's Sermons.

Abrupt and *hoirid* as the tempest roars.
 Thunder and flash upon the steadfast shores.
 Till he, that rides the whirlwind, checks the rain.
 Then all the world of waters eddies again.

Cooper's Retirement.

ABRUS, in Botany, a name of the Glycine, or Knibbed-rooted Liquorice-vetch; a genus of plants belonging to the Diadelphia class; order, Papilionaceae.

ABRUS, in the Materia Medica, the name of a seed produced by one of the phuscula, or kidney-beans, commonly called Angola seeds.

ABRUZZO, a Neapolitan province, consisting of two grand divisions; *Uteriore*, and *Citeriore*; *Aquila*, or *Aquila*, and *Chieti*, are the respective capitals. These districts are divided by the river Pescara. The face of the country is diversified by the towering heights of the Apennines, the Munte Cavallo, and the snow-clad summits of Monte Majello: whilst their sides, and the valleys and plains beneath, are rich in vegetables, fruits, and animals of various kinds. The climate, however, is somewhat cold. The inhabitants carry on some trade in Turkey wheat, rice, oil, and wines; but a still greater article of their trade and commerce is wool, which is the staple commodity. The fertile unions which formerly occupied this country have left a valuable residue of monumental memorials and inscriptions. It is probable, from their appearance, that the mountains contain veins of metallic ore; and the botanist might find an ample field of research in the incalculable variety of plants that adorn their surfaces, particularly Monte-corno and Majello.

ABSCISS, in Surgery, from *abscido*, to separate; a cavity containing pus; or a collection of puriform matter in a part.

ABSCIND, *v. t.* } *Ab: scindo*, to cut off or away from.
ABSCISION }
 The severance of the *Lord* must not *strive*; I mean in those cases where weakness of instruction is the remedy; or if the case be irremediable, abscision by cauterisation, is the penalty.

Taylor's Liberty of Prophecy, Section xiii.

When a single syllable is cut off from the rest, it must either be united to the line with which the sense connects it, or be sounded alone When two syllables likewise are abscinded from the rest, they evidently want some associate sounds to make them harmonious.

Rambler, No. 99.

ABSCISSE, *ABSCISSA*, part of the diameter or transverse axis of a conic section, intercepted between the vertex, or some other fixed point and a semiordinate. In a more general sense, it is the segment of a

line terminated at some certain point, cut off by an **ABSCISSE**, ordinate to a curve. See *MATHEMATICS*, Div. I.

ABSENT.

ABSENCE, a figure of speech; in which, after beginning a discourse, it is suddenly broken off, upon the supposition that enough has been already intimated; as, "Such a reception of a man so eminent, supported by such credentials, having so important a commission, at a moment so critical—I need add no more."

ABSCISSION, in Surgery, signifies the act of removing a morbid or superfluous part by an edged instrument. It is used by medical writers to denote the termination of a disease in death before its decline. Astrologers speak of the abscission of the light of a planet, by another outstripping it.

ABSCOND, *v. ab: condo*, to hide from (*Condo* est a *condo* et *do*, quasi simul in interiore locum do: ut Festus ait Vossius.) To hide from; to conceal; to secrete; to depart or go away for the purpose of concealment.

Ajax, to whom his [Philo's] general power,
 Is vain absconded in a flower;
 As idle were Tybalt's sword,
 When to a grasshopper converted.

Pope's Turtle and Sparrow.

When there are no more insects in the air, as in winter-time, those birds [swallows] do either *abscond*, or betake themselves into hot countries.
Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

The triple bolt that lays all wrong in ruin!
 That animates all right, the triple sun!
 Sun of the soul; her never-setting sun!
 Trans, unutterable, uncessant, *absconding*,
 ascending, yet demonstrates, great God!

Young's Night Thoughts.

Outlaw always supposes a precedent right of arresting, which has been defeated by the parties *absconding*.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ABSENT, *v. t.*

ABSENT, *adj.*

ABSENCE.

ABSENTEE.

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ABSENTEE.

ABSENTEE.

ABSENTEE.

If lose forget himself by length of absence let
 Who doth me guide (O wretched wretch) into this baited net.
 Where dath decrease my care, much better were for me
 As domme as stone, all thing forgot, still about far to be.
Hay.

Surrey.

ABSENT. He [Edward the Confessor] sent for home into England his nephew Edward the sonne of King Edmund his brother, who by **ABSOLVE** reason of his long absence out of the country, was commonly called the Outlawe.

Stow's Chronicle, Howet's Ed.

— Call bitter,
I say bid come before vs Angels,
What figure of vs thanks you, he will beare,
For you must know we have with speciall soale
Elected him our absence to supply;
Lest him our terror, drest him with our luse.

Shakespeare, M. for M., p. 61, act i. sc. i.

DECK. Not see him since? Sit, sir, that cannot be:
But were I not the better part made merrie,
I should not seek an abroad argument
Of my revenge, thou present.

Id., A. You Like It, p. 154, act iii. sc. 2.

— Night with her will bring
Silence; and sleep, intruding to thee, will watch,
Or we can bid his absence, till thy song
End, and dismiss thee ere the morning shine.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vii.

PULAN. But when against his curtain, they perceiv'd
The King absent, straight the rebels start,
And run'd, they were unlose.

Dryden's Duke of Guise, act iii. sc. 1.

It is observed, that in the sun's total eclipse, when there is no part of his body discernible, yet there does not always follow so great a darkness as might be expected from his total fallow.

Bishop Wilkins's Discovery of a new World.

In every age, the absence of genuine inspiration is supplied by the strong illusions of enthusiasm, and the mimic arts of imposture.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

What is remotely called an *absent* man, is commonly either a very weak, or a very affected man.

Chatterfield, Letter xii.

Whether if there was an silver or gold in the kingdom, our trade might not nevertheless supply bills of exchange, sufficient to answer the demand of *absenters* in England, or elsewhere?

Bishop Berkeley's Querist.

ABSENCE, in Scots Law, when a person cited before a court does not appear, and judgment is pronounced. No person can be tried criminally in absence.

ABSIS, in Astronomy, the same with apsis.

ABSOLVE', v. e. } Ah: *solvō, solutus.* To loose, or
ABSOLV'ER, } free from. To loose or free from;
ABSOLUTE, } To clear from difficulty; from
ABSOLUTELY, } guilt; or the consequences of
ABSOLUTENESS, } guilt; to acquit, to pardon. The
ABSOLUTION, } adj. and nouns are applied to that
ABSOLUTORY, } which is free from bound, restriction,
uncertainty, imperfection.

But let the scene of prediction perisbe, and *absolve* we the chapters, the angel yet speaking with Daniel.

The Explication of Daniel, by George Heye, p. 146.

For the nature ne took not her beginning, of thynges amended and imparishe, but it procedeth of thynges that been ill hold *absolute*, and descendeth so down into the vntrest thynges, and into thynges empty and without fruit.

Chaucer. Third Booke of Boecius, fol. 226, col. 2.

Furthermore, if I myghte be bold with Rastel, I wolde aske him this question, whether God have not an *absolute* iustice as we as an *absolute* power? If God have also an *absolute* iustice, then can not his *absolute* power preceyle until his *absolute* iustice be fallie contraposed.

A Boke made by John Fryth, printed 1548.

At þer wille calle þou be, sit, we se it wele,
Calle ageyn thin oth, drede þou no manace,
Nouþer of lufe no loth, þi lordschipe to purchace
þou may fullylly þat *absolucoun*.

For it was a gylty, þou knew not þer trewoun.

R. Brune, p. 213.

But father nowe ye haue all herde
In this maner howe I haue ferde
Of cheste, and of dissenecoun,
Yve me your *absolucoun*.

Guerr., Com. A. book iii.

He [Wiclife] denyed y^r Bishop to have authority to excommunicate any person; and that any prent might *absolve* such a one as well as the pope. *Stow's Chronicle, Howet's Ed. 1614, p. 272.*

Pray speake in English; heere are some will thank you.
If you speake truth, for their poore Mistris sake;
Belesse me, she has had much wrong. Lord Cardinal!
The willing'st sinner I ever yet committed,
May be *absolv'd* in English.

Shakespeare, H. VIII., p. 218, act i. sc. i.

DECK. Be *absolve* for death: either death or life
Shall thereby be the sweeter.

Id., M. for M., p. 70, act iii. sc. i.

Now if to *absolve* this anomaly, we say the best of the sea is more powerful in the Southern Tropic, because in the sign of Capricorn falls out the perigeum, or lowest place of the sun in his eccentric, whereby he becomes nearer unto them than unto the other in Cancer, we shall not *absolve* the doubt.

Brown's Vulgar Errors, book vi. chap. 2.

BAB. ——— finding in his conscience

A trestle scruple of a fault long since
By him committed, thinks it not sufficient
To be *absolv'd* of 't by his confessor,
If that in open court he publish not
What was so long conceal'd.

Brennan and Fletcher's Spanish Curate, act iii. sc. 3.

' We are bounde to heare the Pope, and his Cardinales, and other like Scilles, and Pharisies, not *absolutely*, or without exception, what so ever they lista to saie: but only so long, as they teache the lawe of God.

Jewel's Defiance of the Apologie.

We must know what it is to be meant by *absolute*, or *absoluteness*; whereof I find two main significations. First, *absolute* signifieth perfect and *absoluteness*, perfection: hence we have in Latin this expression, *Resumpti est omnia, numerus absolutus*. And in our vulgar language we say, a thing is *absolutely* good, when it is perfectly good. Next, *absolute* signifieth free from tyne or bond.

Knox's History of the Reformation. Preface.

It is fatal goodness left to fitter times,
Not to *absolve*, but to *absolve*, our crimes.

Dryden's Poem in the Lord Chancellor Hyde.

The proper object of love, is not so much that which is *absolutely* good in itself, as that which is relatively so to us.

By, Wilkins's Sermon on the Hope of Rewards.

Though an *absolutive* sentence should be pronounced in favour of the pious—yet if adultery shall afterwards be truly proved, he may again be proceeded against as an adulterer.

Applf.

As the priests of the law were to pronounce a blessing upon the officers, so those of the gospel are to dispense of the blessing of *absolution* unto the penitent.

Cramer's Companion to the Temple, part i. sect. iv.

Reason pursued is faith; and unpursued
Where profinitiv, 'tis reason, then, no more;
And such our proof, That, or our faith is right,
Or Reason lies, and Heaven designed it wrong;
Absolve we this?

Young's Complaint, Night IV.

ASPASIA. Since fear predominates in every thought,
And sways thy breast with *absolute* dominion,

Johnson's Irene, act ii. sc. i.

Possibly one part of the office [for the sick] may seem to have ascribed as high a power to the minister, of *absolving* the sick from their sins, as may lead them into great mistakes.

Sister's Sermon.

Rocking seas children to sleep better than *absolve* rest; there is indeed scarcely any thing at that age, which gives more pleasure than to be gently lifted up and down.

Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

ABSOLUTE **ABSOLUTE**, in Metaphysics, refers to a being which does not subsist by virtue of any other being; in which sense, God alone is absolute: it also denotes what is free from conditions or limitations; in which sense it is synonymous with unconditional.

ABSOLUTE EQUATION, in Astronomy, the sum of the optic and eccentric equations.

ABSOLUTE NUMBER, in Algebra, any pure number standing in an equation without the conjunction of literal characters.

ABSOLUTE ABJUTIVE. See **GRAMMAR**, Div. i.

AMOLITION, in Civil Law, a sentence by which the party accused is declared innocent of the alleged crime.—Among the Romans, the ordinary method of pronouncing judgment was this: after the cause had been pleaded on both sides, the praetor used the word *dicuntur*, q. d. they have said what they had to say; then three ballots were distributed to each judge, and as the majority was found, the accused was absolved or condemned, &c. If he were absolved, the praetor dismissed him with *videtur non fecisse*, or *jure videtur fecisse*.

ABSOLUTION, in Canon Law, a juridical act, by which the priest, or minister, remits the sins of such as are penitent.—This is supposed to be done by the Roman Catholic priests more directly and immediately, by virtue of their holy office; and by the clergy of the established church of England, by "a power and authority given to Christ's ministers to declare and pronounce forgiveness" to the truly penitent. In the Greek church 'absolution' is deprecatory, as she lays no claim to the infallible powers of the Roman hierarchy. The firm that Tetzel used in vinding the indulgencies which first awoke the indignation and resistance of LUTHER, has been often quoted, but is said by Catholics to be unauthentic. They have thus stated their opinions upon this subject:—"Every catholic is obliged to believe that when a sinner repenteth him of his sins from the bottom of his heart, and acknowledgeth his transgression to God and his ministers, the dispensers of the mysteries of Christ, resolving to turn from his evil ways and bring forth fruits worthy of penance; then is (then and no otherwise) an authority left by Christ to absolve such a penitent sinner from his sins: which authority Christ gave to his apostles and their successors, the bishops and priests of the catholic church, in these words, when he said, 'Receive ye the Holy Ghost; whose sins ye shall forgive, they are forgiven unto them,' &c."

ABSOLUTION is chiefly used among Protestants for a sentence, by which a person who stands excommunicated, is released from that punishment.

ABSORB, *v.* **Ab:** sorbeo: to sap or suck up. **ABSORBENT**, *adj.* To swallow, imbibe. To be wholly **ABSORBED**, *pp.* occupied by, or engaged in, devoted **ABSORPTION**, *n.* to, immersed, plunged, or lost in the contemplation of.

For no thing as Luther sayth can damage a Chriden man, save only lacke of helpe. For all other synnes (if helpe and faith staid faste) be quite *absorpt* and sopped up he sayth is that fayth.

Sir Tho. More's Works, p. 257.

Beholds, a brighte cloude overshadowed the youth, lest they shoulde be *absorpt* and overcummmed with the greatness of the sight.

Essentiall Paraphrase of N. T. by F. Udall, in *Martin*, chap. xvii. c. 78, v. 2.

The rays of the sun are reflected from a white body, but *absorbed* by a black one.

Brown's Distribution of Knowledge.

This abolition of these same happened about the end of the first century after Christ; for after that we hear no more mentioned of the same of the *Edomites* or *Idumaeans*, it being by that time wholly *absorbed* in the name of Jews.

Prodromus, Con.

Circs in vain invites the feast to share;
Absent I ponder, and *absorb* in care;
While scenes of woe rose arround in my breast,
The queen behold us and these words address:

Pepe's Homer's Odyssey, book x.

The learned tell you, that they [colours] are nothing but a certain configuration in the surfaces of objects, adapted to reflect some particular ray of light and *absorb* the rest.

Tucker's Light of Nature.

Those twinkling tiny lakes of the land,
Drop one by one from Fate's neglecting hand;
Let those gulphs receive them as they fall,
And dark oblivion soon *absorbs* them all.

Cooper's Pems.

ABSORBENT MEDICINES, are all those testaceous powders, or substances into which calcareous earth enters, and which are taken internally for drying up or absorbing any acid or redundant humours in the stomach or intestines. They are applied externally to ulcers or sores with the same intention.

ABSORBENTS, or **ABSORBING VESSELS**, in Anatomy, a minute kind of vessels found in animal bodies, which imbibe fluids that come in contact with them.

ABSORBENT EARTHS, in Chemistry, those substances which are capable of imbibing large quantities of water by capillary attraction.

ABSORPTION OF THE EARTH, *Kircher*, and other geologists, use this phrase to denote the swallowing up of great portions of land by earthquakes, and other subterranean convulsions or accidents. Several instances of these alarming commotions have occurred in various countries. The mountain of Cymbotus, and the town of Curtes, seated on its declivity; the city of Tantalus, in Magnesia; the mountain of Syphilus; Galanis, and Garantes, two Phœnician towns; the promontory of Phœgium, in Ethiopia; the mountain *Pems*, and several others, are mentioned as having sunk into the earth, at different times. Later instances have occurred in China, France, and Switzerland. A mountain belonging to the chain of the Cevennes, in the south of France, was precipitated, with an awful crash, into the valley below, on the 23d of June, 1727; one block of stone, ninety feet long, and twenty-six in diameter, sunk vertically, and the village of *Prodromus*, situated on the declivity, being overwhelmed by the rocky fragments, its inhabitants were only saved from destruction in consequence of having gone to some distance to celebrate Midsummer-eve.

To these, and other instances of absorption which might be mentioned, may be subjoined a circumstance which occurred on the 3d of September, 1806, at Schweitz, a canton in Switzerland. Between the lakes of Zug and Lowertz, and the mountains of Rosenberg and Rosli, lay a beautiful valley, overspread with several pleasant villages. About five o'clock in the evening of the 3d September, the Spitzberg, or north-east projection of the mountain Rosenberg, fell into the valley, from the height of 2000 feet, and overwhelmed the villages of Goldan, Busingen, and Rathlen, and a part of Lowertz, and of Oberart. The earth and stones rushed like lava into the valley, and covered more than three square miles of a fertile vicinity; filling up, at the same time, nearly a fifth of the lake Lowertz.

ABSORB.
ABSTAIN.

The immense swell of the water which immediately took place, submerged two inhabited islands, and the village of Leven, on the northern extremity; by which accident, between 1500 and 2000 inhabitants perished. The most probable cause to be assigned for this dreadful calamity was the sinking in of the earth, which supported the base of the Spitzberg.

ABSTAIN', v.

ABSTENTION,

ABSTINENCE,

ABSTINENT,

ABSTINENTLY.

But the spirit which dwells, that in the late times immen-
departs from the faith, by whose aid to spirit of error and to
teachings of deities that speak leasing in spiciness, and have her
conscience corrupt forbidden to be wedded, to abstain from meats
which God made to take with doings of thanksgiving to faithful
men and men that have known the truth.

Most dear I beseech you as comelines and pilgrims to abstain
you from fleshly desires that fight against the soul.

Dearly beloved, I beseech you as strangers and pilgrims,
abstain from fleshly lusts, which fight against the soul.

And O thou, Cesare, now foremost in the press,
Cousins of heavenly light, abstain and cease,
My twin lymage obey my command,
Do cast off wappynia for furth of thy hand.

Ayrest glotonie the remedy is abstinence, as sayth Galien: but
that I hold not meretricious, if he do it only for the hale of his body.
Saint Augustine saith that abstence be done for virtue, and with
patience. Abstence (sayth he) is lital worth, but if a man have
good will thereto, and but it be enforced by patience and charity,
and that men do it for Goddes sake, and in hope to have the
blisse in heaven.

Chambr. The Persuasion Tale, vol. ii. p. 360.

After this dangerous business finished, and for a time needed,
by means of freedom, and desire of privacy, a truce or abstinence
of warre for a certain time, was made between the kyng [Henry
the Sixth] of Englands, and the duke of Burgundy.

And byng ye in al hysness, and myng ye in your faith
virtue, and in virtue kunning, and in kunning abstinence, in ab-
stinence patience, in patience pite, in pite love of brotherhood, and
in love of brotherhood charity.

I have delivered to Lord Angelo
(A man of stricture and firme abstinence),
My absolute power, and place here in Vienna.

Shakespeare, M. for M. p. 63. act i. sc. 2.

Can you fast? your stomachs are too young.
And abstinence ingenders malady.

Mac. Let's see, what the corruption of thy generation;
he that feeds shall die, therefore he that feeds not shall live.

Benjamin and Fletcher's Last Cure, act ii. sc. 1.

A little wisdom, and an easy observation were enough to make
all men that love themselves wisely to abstain from such diet which
does not nourish.

He that can apprehend and consider vice, with all her baits
and seeming pleasures, and yet abstain, and yet distinguish, and yet
prefer that which is truly better, he is the true self-denying Christian.

Milton on the Liberty of Unlicensed Preaching.

As for fasting and abstinence, which is many times very helpful
and subservient to the ends of religion, there is no such extraordinary
trouble in it, if it be discreetly managed, as is worth the speaking of.

Titulstons Sermons.

If moderate fare and abstinence I prize
In public, yet in private get commend.

Congress's Eleventh Satire of Juvenal.
After some time of separation from the other pure Christians in
worship, and an abstinence from the sacrament, they [the penitents]

were admitted again to their share of all the privileges that were
given in common to Christians.

The temperance which adorned the severe manner of the soldier
and the philosopher, was connected with some strict and frigidous
rules of religious abstinence; and it was in honour of Pan or Mer-
cury, of Hecate or Iris, that Julius, on particular days, denied him-
self the use of some particular food.

Call'd to the temple of impure delight,
He that abstains, and he alone, dies right:
If a wish wander that way, call it home:
He cannot long be safe whose wishes roam.

Gilbert's Rome.

Curper's Truth.

ABSTEINACH, a district in the duchy of Hesse,
formerly subject to the elector of Mentz. Also a town
of Germany, 7 m. N. E. of Heidelberg.

ABSTEMIOUS, a. } Ab: temetum (quasi, το μεθυ,
ABSTEMIOUSLY. } [Vossius], from wine. An ab-
stemious man refrains from wine; ab abstinentia
temeti dictus. But the word is now applied generally
to that which is temperate, moderate, restrained or
withheld from excess.

That only thine a week so hamply eates he fed,
And three times in the week himself he absteined,
That in remembrance of this most abstemious man
Upon his blessed death the Englishmen began
To name their babies.

Dragon's Poly Obiton, 24th song.

The perch is not only valiant, in defend himself, but he is a
bold biting fish; yet he will not bite at all seasons of the year; he
is very abstemious in water.

If yet Achilles have a friend whose care
Is bent to please him, this request forebear:
Till yonder sun descend, oh let me pay
To grief and anguish some abstemious lay.

Pope's Homer's Iliad, b. xx.

ABSTERGE', v. } Ab: tergo, to scour from. To
ABSTERGE', } wipe off; to cleanse—by wiping
ABSTERGION, } or scouring.

Gilbert reckons up 155 publicke baths in Constantinople, of faire
building; they are still frequented in that city by the Turks of
all sorts, men and women, and all over Greece and those hot
countries; to absterge, heike, that fulminence of sweat to which
they are then subject.

Burton's Anat. Melancholy.

Not will we affirm that iron indigested, receiveth in the stomach
of the Orestides no alteration at all; but if any such there be, we
suspect this effect rather from some way of corrosion, than any of
digestion * * * *; but rather some attrition from an
acrid and vitriolous humidity in the stomach, which may absterge
and shave the scurvy parts thereof.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

A tablet stood of that abstemious tree,
Where Athiop's swarthy bird did build her nest,
Isaid it was with Lybian irony,
Drawn from the jaws of Africa's prudent beast.

Dehnam on the Game of Chess.

The suits with purple cloths in order due;
And let th' absterge spruce the board renew:
Let some refresh the vase's sullied mould;
Some bid the goblets boast their native gold.

Pope's Homer's Odyssey, b. xx.

ABSTERGENT MEDICINES, those employed for re-
solving obstructions, concretions, &c., such as soap,
&c. The more common term is detergent. They are
supposed to operate by loosening the cohesion of the
substances removed.

ABSTINENCE, is the act or habit of refraining
from something to which there is a strong propensity.

ABSTINENCE.

Various kinds of abstinence were ordained by the Jewish law. The Pythagoreans were enjoined to abstain from animal food, with the exception of the remains of sacrifices; and to drink nothing but water, excepting in the evening, when they might take a small portion of wine. Some of the primitive Christians denied themselves the use of particular meats; others regarded this abstinence with contempt. See Romans, xiv. 1-3. The council of Jerusalem, which was held by the apostles, enjoined the Christian converts to abstain from meats strangled, and from blood. Acts xv. Though these could have no moral evil in them, they were forbidden to the Gentile converts, because the Jews were so averse to them that they could not converse with any who used them. This reason having now ceased, the obligation to this abstinence ceases with it.

HUMAN ABSTINENCE.

The abstinence which may be called ritual, consists in abstaining from particular meats at certain seasons; the rules by which it is regulated are called rogations. In England, abstinence from flesh has been enjoined by statute since the Reformation, particularly on Fridays and Saturdays, on vigils, and on all commonly called fish days. Similar injunctions were renewed under Queen Elizabeth: but it was declared, that this was done not out of motives of religion, as if there were any difference in meats; but in favour of the consumption of fish, and to multiply the number of fishermen and mariners, as well as to spare the stock of sheep. The great fast, says St. Augustine, is to abstain from sin.

The ancient Athlete abstained from all kinds of pleasure, to render their bodies more robust.

Examples of great age through abstinence.

ABSTINENCE is more particularly used for a spare diet, or a parsimonious use of food; of the effects of which physicians speak in the highest terms. The noble Venetian Cornaro, after his life was despaired of at the age of 40, recovered by mere abstinence, and lived to near 100. The early Christians of the East, who retired from persecution into the deserts of Arabia, and Egypt, lived in health and cheerfulness on very slender food. St. Anthony lived 103 years; James the Hermit, 104; Arsenius, tutor of the emperor Arcadius, 120; St. Epiphanius, 115; Simeon the Stylite, 112; and Romald, 120. Buchanan mentions one Laurence, who attained the age of 140, by temperance and labour; and Spottiswood speaks of another person, named Kenigera, afterwards called St. Mungah or Mungo, who lived to 185 by the same means. According to Dr. Cheyne, most of the chronic diseases, the infirmities of old age, and the short lives of Englishmen, are owing to repletion; and may be either cured, prevented, or remedied by abstinence. But a want of due care may prove extremely detrimental to the constitution; for many have undoubtedly done themselves irreparable injury by fasting too long.

Abstinence of animals.

Among animals the serpent kind can endure an extraordinary degree of abstinence. Rattle-snakes have lived many months without any food, still retaining their vigour and fierceness. Dr. Shaw speaks of a couple of cerastes (a sort of Egyptian serpents) which had been kept five years in a bottle closely corked, without any food, unless a small quantity of sand in which they coiled themselves up may be reckoned as such. When he saw them, they were as brisk and lively as if just taken. Many species pass four, five, or six months every year without either eating or

drinking, as the tortoise, bear, dormouse, serpent, &c., and are as fat and fleshy afterwards, as before. Several species of birds, and almost the whole tribe of insects, subsist through the winter in a state of torpor without food. In most instances of extraordinary human abstinence related by naturalists, there were apparent marks of a texture of blood and humours, like that of the animals above mentioned. There are substances of all kinds, animal, vegetable, &c., floating in the atmosphere, which must be continually taken in by respiration; and that an animal body may be nourished by them, is evident in the instance of vipers, which if taken when first brought forth, and kept from every thing but air, will grow considerably in a few days. The eggs of lizards are observed to increase in bulk after they are produced, though there be nothing but air; as the eggs or spaw of fishes are nourished with the water.

ABSTINENCE.

Pliny says, a person may live seven days without any food whatever,—and that many people have continued more than eleven days without either food or drink. *Hist. Nat. lib. ii. c. 54.*—Petrus de Abano says, there was in his time in Normandy a woman thirty years of age, who had lived without food for eighteen years. *Exposit. Ult. prob. x.*—Alexander Benedictus mentions a person at Venice who lived forty-six days without food. *Proct. lib. xii. c. 11.*—Joubertus relates, that a woman lived in good health three years without either food or drink, and that he saw another who had lived to her tenth year without food or drink; and, that when she arrived at a proper age, she was married, and lived like other people in respect to diet, and had children. *Decad. i. paradox 2.*—(Lamius, et Garcia ab Horto mentions, that some of the more rigid Brahmins in India abstain from food frequently for twenty days together. *Hist. Arom. lib. i.*—Albertus Krantz says, that a hermit in the mountains in the canton of Schwitz lived twenty years without food. *Hist. Eccles. lib. xii. c. 21.*—Gugulinius says, that Louis the Pious, Emperor and King of France, who died in 840, existed the last forty days of his life without food or drink. *Hist. Francor. lib. v.*—Chois gives the history of a girl at Confoulens in Poitou who lived three years without food. *Abstin. Confoulens*—Albertus Magnus says, he saw a woman at Cologne who often lived twenty, and sometimes thirty days without food; and that he saw a hypochondriacal woman, who lived without food for seven weeks, drinking only a draught of water every other day. *De Animalibus, lib. vi.*—Hidalgus relates the case of a girl who lived many years without food or drink. This subject he says, had the abdomen wasted and retracted towards the spine, but without any hardness. She did not void any urine or faeces by the bowels. *Cent. V. Obs. Chirurg. 23.*—Sylvius says, there was a young woman in Spain, aged twenty-two years, who never ate any food, but lived entirely on water. And that there was a girl in Narbonne, and another in Germany, who lived three years in good health, without any kind of food or drink. *Consid. Adver. Pueri.*—It is said, that Democritus lived to the age of 109 years, and that in the latter part of his life he subsisted almost entirely, for forty days at one time (according to some writers) on molting honey and hot bread.

To these testimonies it may afford some amusement to the reader, and, at the same time, furnish some

Ancient testimonies.

ABSTINENCE.

Mary Thomas.

curious data for the study of Physiology, if we subjoin a few facts of mere detail.

"In a former visit to this place, (Barnmouth,) July 18th, 1770, my curiosity," says Pennant, "was excited to examine into the truth of a surprising relation of a woman, in the Parish of Clynin, who had fasted a most supernatural length of time. I took boat, had a most pleasant passage up the harbour, charmed with the beauty of the shores, intermixed with woods, verdant pastures, and corn fields. I landed, and after a short walk, found to a farm, called Tydden Baeth, the object of my excursion, Mary Thomas, who was boarded here, and kept with great humanity and neatness. She was of the age of forty-seven, of a good countenance, very pale, thin, but not so much emaciated as might be expected from the strangeness of the circumstances I am going to relate. Her eyes weak, her voice low, deprived of the use of her lower extremities, and quite bed-ridden; her pulse rather strong; her intellects clear and sensible.

"On examining her, she informed me, that at the age of seven she had some eruptions like the measles, which grew confluent and universal; and she became so sore, that she could not bear the least touch: she received some ease by the application of a sheep's skin, just taken from the animal. After this, she was seized, at spring and fall, with swellings and inflammations, during which time she was confined to her bed; but in the intervals could walk about, and once went to Halywell in hopes of cure.

"When she was about twenty-seven years of age, she was attacked with the same complaint, but in a more violent manner; and during two years and a half remained insensible, and took no manner of nourishment, notwithstanding her friends forced open her mouth with a spoon, to get something down: but the moment the spoon was taken away, her teeth met, and closed with snapping and violence: during that time she flung up vast quantities of blood.

"She well remembers the return of her senses, and her knowledge of every body about her. She thought she had slept but a night, and asked her mother whether she had given her any thing the day before, for she found herself very hungry. Meat was brought to her, but so far from being able to take any thing solid, she could scarcely swallow a spoonful of thin whey. From this she continued seven years and a half without any food or liquid, excepting sufficient of the latter to moisten her lips. At the end of this period she again fancied herself hungry, and desired an egg; of which she got down the quantity of a nut kernel. About this time she requested to receive the sacrament; which she did, by having a crumb of bread steeped in the wine. She at this time, for her daily subsistence, eats a bit of bread, weighing about two pennyweights seven grains, and drinks a wine-glass of water; sometimes a spoonful of wine; but frequently abstains whole days from food and liquids. She sleeps very indifferently: the ordinary functions of nature are very small, and very seldom performed. Her attendant told me, that her disposition of mind was mild; her temper even; that she was very religious, and very fervent in prayer: the natural effect of the state of her body, long unembarrassed with the grossness of food, and a constant alienation of thought from all worldly affairs." *Journey to Snowdon*, vol. ii. p. 105-107

VOL. XVI.

"Gilbert Jackson, an Carse-Grange, Scotland, about fifteen years of age, in February, 1716, was seized with a violent fever, which returned in April for three weeks, and again on the 10th of June; he then lost his speech, his stomach, and the use of his limbs, and could not be persuaded to eat or drink any thing. May 26th, 1717, his fever left him, but he was still deprived of speech, and the use of his limbs, and took no food whatever. June 30th, he was seized with a fever again, and the next day recovered his speech, but without eating or drinking, or the use of his limbs. On the 11th of October he recovered his health, with the use of one of his legs, but neither eat nor drink, only sometimes washed his mouth with water. On the 18th of June, 1718, the fever returned and lasted till September: he then recovered, and continued in pretty good health, and fresh coloured, but took no kind of meat or drink. On the 6th of June, 1719, he was again seized with a severe fever; on the 10th, at night, his father prevailed on him to take a spoonful of milk boiled with oatmeal: it stuck so long in his throat, that his friends feared he had been choked; but ever since that time he took food, though so little, that a halfpenny loaf served him for eight days. All the time he fasted he had no evacuation; and it was fourteen days after he began to eat before he had any: he still continued in pretty good health."

"In the year 1724, John Ferguson, of Killmelford, in Argyle-shire, overhauled himself in the pursuit of cattle on the mountains, then drank largely of cold water, and fell asleep. He slept for four and twenty hours, and waked in a high fever: ever since, his stomach louthed, and could retain no kind of aliment but water. A neighbouring gentleman, (Mr. Campbell,) to whom his father was tenant, looked him up for twenty days, supplying him daily with water, and taking care that he should have no other food; but it made no difference either in his look or strength; at the age of thirty-six (when the account was sent to the Philosophical Society) he was of a fresh complexion, and as strong as any common man." *Phil. Trans.* 1742, vol. xlii. p. 240.

"A very curious instance of a nearly two years' Abstinence from all food and drink, is related in two numbers of Huicland's *Practical Journal*, vol. viii. and ix. No. 2; and a Pamphlet has since been published respecting this fact, by Dr. Schmidtman of Melle, in the Bishopric of Osnabruck.

"A country girl, sixteen years old, in a village near Osnabruck, had enjoyed a good state of health during her childhood; but at about ten years of age she was seized with epileptic fits, against which a number of remedies were employed in vain. Since that time she was mostly confined to her bed, particularly in winter: but in summer she found herself a little better. From February, 1798, the saline and urinary excretions began to cease, though she took now and then a little nourishment. But from the beginning of April of the same year she abstained entirely from all food and drink, falling into an uninterrupted slumber, almost senseless, from which she only awoke from time to time for a few hours. Her sensibility was during this time so great, that the slightest touch on any part of the body brought on partial convulsive motions. In this state she had continued for nearly ten months, when Dr. Schmidtman saw her first in March, 1799

ABSTINENCE.

Gilbert Jackson.

A girl near Osnabruck.

ABSTINENCE.

Though she had not taken the least nourishment during all this time, Dr. Schmidtman found her, to his utmost astonishment, fresh and blooming. For the last two months only, the intervals of sleep began to be longer; her senses of sight and hearing were in perfect order; but her feeling she seemed to have quite lost, as she could suffer pinching of the arms and legs without pain; her gums bled frequently, and the pulse was scarcely perceptible in the arms, but beat strong and full in the carotids, about 120 in a minute. Dr. Schmidtman attempted to make her drink a little milk, but she protested she could not swallow it. The alvine and urinary excretions had quite ceased.

"Although there could hardly be a suspicion of any kind of imposition, (the parents being honest people,) yet to remove all doubt, six sworn men were appointed from different places in the neighbourhood to watch her day and night, and instructions given to them accordingly. This being continued for n fortnight, the men were dismissed, having given evidence upon oath, that the patient had never taken any food or drink whatever during that time, nor had any excretion, alvine or urinary. She had been once very ill and nearly lying, seized with convulsions, feverish, and sometimes in a great sweat, which had the extraordinary property of turning water black. When Dr. Schmidtman saw her again, he found her quite recovered, not in the least emaciated, but rather looking lustier; her gums, however, still frequently bled, and her feeling was not yet returned; but her memory was not impaired, and she amused herself sometimes with reading and writing. No alvine and urinary excretion had taken place. Sometimes she was attacked by a sudden weakness, particularly after having lided from the mouth. During the last severe winter, she could not endure the heat of the stove, because she felt then faint and oppressed.

"Dr. Schmidtman then enters into an inquiry by what means the patient, in this case, was nourished and maintained in that state in which she was found; and having discussed the matter at large, he is of opinion, that she drew, by resorption, such elementary particles from the atmosphere, as were sufficient for the nutrition of the body, and that the excretions were likewise replaced by the skin.

References to other cases.

"Howver incredible and miraculous this fact may seem, yet we find similar instances recorded by several authors, viz. by Haller, in his *Elementa Physiologie*, tom. vi. sec. 2. §. 6.—*Conf. Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences de Toulouse*, tom. i. 1783; and in Prieſtley's *Library devoted to Surgery*, (in German,) vol. xii. p. 184. Swieten, *Comment. in Boerhaav. Aph.* tom. iii. p. 508. *Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences, l'an 1769*; and in Hufeland's *Art of Prolonging Life*, first edition, p. 67. Halpart van der Wiel, *Observat. rar. Centur. Poster.* In the *London Magazine* for August, 1769, there is likewise an account of a young woman, twenty-four years of age, who had fasted for two years, and whose excretions were also entirely suppressed." *London Medical and Physical Journal*, vol. iv. p. 87.

French Officer

A French Officer of infantry, who had retired from service, and became deranged, took it in his head to refuse food, and continued in that determination from the 25th of December till the 9th of February, drinking only about a pint and a half of water daily, with a few drops of aniseed liquor in each glass, till the

thirty-ninth day: from which time till the forty-seventh day he took nothing whatever. Till the thirty-eighth day, too, he remained out of bed; but weakness at length obliged him to lie down. The return to food was followed by a temporary cure of his insanity. *Hist. de l'Académie des Sciences*, 1769, p. 43.

In the *Philosophical Transactions* we have an account of four Colliers, who were confined twenty-four days in a coal-pit, at Herriot, near Lidge, with nothing to support them but water; and in the *Medical Commentaries* (Dec. vol. iv. p. 360) there is a history of a girl who had lost her way, and remained eighteen days on a barren moor, in the Island of Lewis, where she could not possibly have had any other kind of sustenance. Mr. Miller, who relates the case, saw her two hours after she was found, and describes her as much emaciated. In fact, proofs abound as to the possibility of maintaining life, for a considerable time, and under the most unfavourable circumstances, on small quantities of water, or other liquids. *Jeſui magis ſitunt, quam enſunt.*—The feeling of hunger, if nor appeased by food, often ceases all together. But the feeling of thirst becomes constantly more urgent; and if the body be at the same time under the influence of heat, it produces the most aggravated distress:

*Torrenda cœtera flamma,
Urgens non tigris aquasque aperta liquas.
Jura mercent vocem, nullaque haurire rigidas
Jura alterna angustat pulmo necesse;
Rocantque nocent mœnia dura palato.
Pendant orea lances, nocturnaque ora ceptant.*

Luce, iv. 324.

ABSTINENCE is sometimes used Medically, in the senses of *suppression* and of *compeſſion*.

ABSTINENTS, or ABSTINENTES, a Sect of Heretics of the 11th century, who originated in France and Spain. They opposed marriage, and hence have been called *Continentes*; and condemned the use of flesh meat and wine. In what doctrinal errors their heresy consisted, it is difficult to ascertain.

ABSTRACT, v.

ABSTRACT, adj.

ABSTRACT, n.

ABSTRACTED.

ABSTRACTEDNESS.

ABSTRACTLY.

ABSTRACTION.

ABSTRACTLY.

ABSTRACTNESS.

Ab, and traho, I draw away from.

1. To draw away, or separate some part from other; and thus, to refine, to purify.

2. Applied to that which is general in language or reasoning, not confined to particular qualities or circumstances.

*Look heere vpon thy brother Goffreyes face,
These eyes, these bowes, were moulded out of his;
This little abstract doth containe that large,
Which diid in Goffrey; and the hand of time,
Shall draw this breede into as huge a volume,
Shakespeare. John, act ii. sc. 1.*

PAL. But man, this abstract

Of all perfection, which the workmanship
Of Heaven hath modell'd, in himself contains
Persons of several qualities.

Ford. Love's Measure, act iv. sc. 3.

Abstracting from the essence of persons, which is to be considered just as our obligation is to content the persons, it is all one whether we indulge in them to meet publicly or privately, to do actions of Religion concerning which we are not persuaded they are truly holy.
Taylor. Liberty of Prophecy.

ABSTINENCE.
—
ABSTRACT

AB-
STRACT.
—
AB-
STRACT.

Or whether more abstractly we look,
Or on the writers or the written book,
Whence, but from Heaven, could men unwill'd in art,
In several ages born, in several parts,
Weave such agreeing truths?

Dryden. Religio Laici.

He whose understanding is propensive with the doctrine of abstract general ideas, may be persuaded that extension in abstract is infinitely divisible.

Berkeley. Principles of Human Knowledge.

By intemperance of application a philosopher may abstract himself from his senses and his imagination, according to Plato, and employ his mind wholly about incorporeal nature and ideas, to which it becomes united by this abstraction.

Bolingbroke. Essay on Human Knowledge.

As the abstractness of those speculations [concerning human nature] is no recommendation, we have attempted to throw some light upon subjects, from which uncertainty has hitherto deterred the wise, and obscurity the ignorant.

Hume. Essays.

Here then is another source of what has been called abstract terms; or, rather, as you say, another method of shortening communication by artificial substantives: for in this case, one single word stands for a whole sentence.

Taule. Diversions of Purty, vol. ii.

ABSTRACT IDEA, in *Metaphysics*, a partial Idea of a complex object, limited to one or more of the component parts or properties, laying aside or abstracting from the rest.

ABSTRACT MATHEMATICS, otherwise called *Pure Mathematics*.

ABSTRACT NUMBERS, assemblages of units, considered in themselves, without denoting any collections of particular things. Thus 70 is an Abstract Number; but 70 feet is determinate.

ABSTRACT TERMS, words that are used to express Abstract ideas, as beauty, ugliness, whiteness, roundness, life, death.

ABSTRACT, in *Literature*, a compendious view, shorter than an Abridgement, of any large work.

ABSTRACTION, in *Metaphysics*, the operation of the mind when occupied by abstract ideas.

ABSTRUSE, *adj.* } *Ab*, and *trudo*, *trusus*, I
ABSTRUSELY, } thrust from. Applied to that
ABSTRUSNESS, } which is thrust, or moved away,
so as to require keenness of mind to discover it:—to that which is concealed, obscure, difficult of apprehension or detection.

Let the Scriptures be hard; are they more hard, more crabb'd,
more obscure than the Fathers.

Milton. On the Reformation in England.

Meanwhile the Eternal eye, whose sight discerns
Abstract thoughts, from forth his holy morn,
And from within the golden lamps that burn
Nightly before him, saw, without their light,
Rebelling rising.

H. Paradise Lost, book v.

Then, from what'er we can to sense produce,
Common and plain, or wondrous and obscure,
From Nature's constant or eccentric laws,
The thoughtful soul this general inference draws,
That an effect must presuppose a cause.

Prior. Solomon, book i. Knowledge.

Whatever is in its own nature abstract and difficult—whatever is of so abstract a nature that a person of mean capacity can neither himself, nor by means of any instruction given him, be able clearly to understand it; such a thing cannot possibly be necessary to be understood by that particular person.

Dr. Samuel Clarke. Sermons.

Yet it must be still confessed that there are some mysteries in Religion, both Natural and Revealed, as well as some obscure points in Philosophy, where the wise as well as the unwise must be content with obscure ideas.

Watts. Logic.

ABSURD, *adj.* } *Ab*, and *surdus*, deaf.
ABSURDITY, } It is an absurd reply, i. e. a reply
ABSURDLY, } ab surdo, from one deaf, and there-
ABSURDENESS, } fore ignorant of that to which he
replies.

ABSURD.
—
ABUCCO.

Deaf to reason; and consequently, without reason, judgment or propriety.

Cleo. Why, that's the way to fools their preparation,

And to conquer their most absurd intents.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, act v. sc. 2.

Y^e prophets describeth the folly of such as worshippeth those images that hath eyes & can not heare, handes and can not feele, feete and can not goe, mouth and cannot speake. All which absurdities & unreasonable fables appeareth as well in the worshippes of our ymagis, as in the Paganis ydolls.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 1557. p. 133.

Those images were all out as gross, as the shapes in which they did represent them: Jupiter with a ram's head; Mercury, a dogges; Pan, like a goat; Hercules, with three heads; one with a beard, another without, and which was absurd yet, they told them these images came from Heaven.

Burton. Anatomy of Melancholy.

The capital things of nature generally lie out of the beaten path, so that even the absurdness of a thing sometimes proves useful.

Lord Bacon. Essays.

Fal. But, signior, I have now found out a great absurditie i' faith.
Rin. What was't?

Fal. The prologue presenting four triumphs, made but three legs to the king: a three-legg'd privilege, 'twas monstrous!
Brommell and Fletcher. Four Plays in one. Triumph of Honour.

His kingdom comes. For this we pray in vain,

Unless he does in our affection reign:

Absurd it were to wish for such a thing,

And not obedience to his sceptre bring.

Whose yoke is easy, and his burden light,

His service freedom, and his judgments right.

Waller. Reflections upon the Lord's Prayer.

It was formerly the custom for every great house in England to keep a man full dressed in petticoats, that the heir of the family might have an opportunity of jelling upon him, and diverting himself with his absurdities.

Spectator, N. 47.

Well may they venture on the mimic's art,
Who play from morn to night a borrow'd part;
With every wild absurdity coudy;
And view each object with another's eye.

Johnson. London.

ABURDUM, *reductio ad absurdum*, a mode of demonstration employed by Mathematicians, when they prove the truth of a proposition by demonstrating that the contrary is impossible, or leads to an absurdity.

ABSUS, in *Botany*, the Egyptian Lotus of Ray.

ABSINTHIUM, see *ABSINTHUM*.

ABSYRTUS, in *Mythology*, a son of Eetes (King of Colchis) and Hypsen, and brother of Medea: who running away with Jason was pursued by her father; when, to stop his progress, she tore Absyrtus in pieces, and scattered his limbs in the way. Some assert that he was murdered at Colchis, others near Istria; and the place where he was killed has been called Tomos, and an adjoining river Abayrtus.

ABTHANES, a title of honour anciently used by the Scots, who called their Nobles Thanes, or King's Ministers. The higher Orders were styled Abthanes, and the lower Underthanes.

ABUCCO, ANOCCO, or ABOCHI, a weight used in Pegu. One Abucco contains twelve and a half *teccalis*; two abuccos make a *giro* or *agira*; two *giri*, half a *hiza*; and a *hiza* weighs an hundred *teccalis*; that is, two pounds five ounces the heavy weight, or three pounds nine ounces the light weight of Venice.

¶ 2

ABU-
KESO.
—
ABUSE.

ABUKESO, in *Commerce*, the same with ASLAN and ASPERA; a silver coin, worth from 115 to 120 aspers.

ABUNA, the title given by the Christian Arabs to the Arch-bishop, or Metropolitan of Abyssinia. It denotes *our Father*, and is written variously.

ABUNDANT NUMBER, a Number the sum of whose aliquot part exceeds the number itself. Thus 18 is an Abundant Number, because 1, 2, 3, 6, and 9, its aliquot parts, are 21, or greater than that number. When the aliquot parts of any number are of less amount than the number itself, as in the number 13, whose aliquots 1, 3 and 5 make only 9, that number is said to be *deficient*. A *Perfect Number* is one whose aliquot parts are equal to itself.

ABUNDANTIA, a Heathen Goddess, exhibited on Monuments under the figure of a beautiful woman crowned with garlands of flowers, pouring fruits out of a cornucopia in her right hand, and scattering grain with her left. She is represented with two cornucopie on a medal of Trajan.

ABUS, in *Ancient Geography*, a river of England, which received the united streams of the Ure, the Derwent, and the Trent, falling into the German Ocean, and forming the mouth of the Humber.

ABUSE, *v.* *Ab*, and *utor*, *usus*, I use from, away from, viz. all useful purposes. To ill *us*, by deception, guile, imposition, reproach, violence; and consequently, to deceive, impose upon, vilify, reproach, violate, defile. *Abusion*, though now obsolete, is not uncommon in the elder Writers.

Who though he lye in a continual want up every preacher to catch him in to prove if he can: yet his lye's exterieur and proud triumph standeth in the bringing of a man to this most abuse of that thing, y^e is of his own nature the best. And therefore great labour maketh he & great boie, if he bring it about that a good wit maye abuse his labour, bestowed upon the study of Holy Scripture. *Sir Thomas More. Works*, fol. 1557. p. 151.

He shall not be ignorant whose *abusion* my name, for I will visit the wykednes of such fathers in theyr chyldren into the thyrd & fourth generations.

Jerem. The Exposition of Daniel, fol. 32.

I see how thine abuse hath wrought so thy witter, That all it yeldes to thy desire, and follows thee by flutes. *Surrey.*

And certes that were an *abusion*
That God should have no perfit chere weting
More than we men, y^e have douten weting
But such an error span God to create
Ware false and foyle, and wicked churchmen.
Chaucer. Fourth Booke of Troilus, fol. 181.

Y^e nobles & ecclesiastical also of this realm, & specially of y^e north partes, not willing any bastard blood to have y^e rule of the land, nor y^e *abusions* before in y^e same used any longer to continue, have concluded & fully determined to make hille petition unto y^e most puissant prince, y^e lord protector.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 1557. p. 63.

God of his infinite merce has sent us a newe Justice, by whose righteous administration and godly policie, the lighte of God's word that so many years before was bene extinct began to shine againe: to the vther extirpation of false doctrine, the route and chief cause of all *abusions*.

Eremitus. Paraphrase of New Testament, by P. L'Est. Preface to St. Mark.

LEAS. Where have I bin?
Where am I? Faire daylight!
I am mightily abus'd; I should ev' dye with pity
To see another thus.

Shakespeare. Lear, act iv. sc. 7.

Coa. O you kind Gods!

Cure this great breach in his abused nature;
Th' villain'd and wrong serving, O woe! woe!
Of this child's-changed father.

Shakespeare. Lear, act iv. sc. 7.

And now (forsooth) takes on him to reforme
Some certaine edicts, and some strait decrees,
That lay the heben on the commonwealth;
Cries out upon abuse, seemes to weep;
Ours his countries wrongs; and by this face,
This seeming brow of justice, did he wene
The hearts of all that hee did sight for.

Id. Henry IV. First Part, act iv. sc. 3.

God commanded the people to kepe the carades, and seve mo-ees; yet not with such superstitious and abuses, as the people kepe them.

Jewell. Defence of the Apologist.

Whose hideous shapes were like to fennies of Hell;
Some like to howles, some like to apes, dumay'd;
Some like to putoches all in plumes array'd;
All shap't according their conditions;
For by those ugly formes were poetry'd,
Foolish delights, and food abundance
Which doe that seene becom with light illusion

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. can. 11.

True it is, concerning the word of God, whether it be by misrepresentation of the sense, or by falsification of the words, willingly to endeavour that any thing may seeme divine which is not, or any thing not seem which is, were plainly to abuse, and even to falsify divine evidence.

Hobbes. Ecclesiastical Polity.

Leigh said, that there was honest devotion in those parts, and not need with abuse. Fole said, what he called abuse. Leigh answered, all that which was demanded is God's pretence, and afterwards to man's folly.

Strype. Memorial of the Reformation.

Zaa. The faithful Selim, and my wenne, know
The dangers which I tempted to conceal you,
You know how I abus'd the credulous king;
When he receiv'd you as the Prince of Fez
Congress. *Mourning Bride*, act ii. sc. 9.

ALITE. Inasmuch, that I can no longer suffer his scurrilous abuse to be to you, no more than his love to me.

Wycherly. Country Wife, act iii. sc. 1.

Wretch! that from slander's filth art ever gleaming,
Spite without spite, malice without meaning;
The more abusive, base, abominable thing,
When pilloried or possessed by a king.

Mason. Epistle to Dr. Shalkeare.

ABUSIVE, in *Ecclesiastical Law*, is applied to a permutation of Benefices, without the consent of the Bishop, which is consequently null.

ABUSIR, BUSIR, or BUSIRIS, a Town of Lower Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile, 85 miles South of Dumietta. It is now a place of inferior note, but stands on the site of the ancient *Busiris*, and retains some few ruins of the Temple of Isis: it once gave its name to that branch of the Nile on which it is situated.

ABUSIR, or, "the Tower of the Arabians," two fortified eminences on the coast of Egypt, about 120 miles West of Alexandria, which are the first objects observable on that coast in sailing from the Westward; and form, therefore, a kind of sea-mark to navigators.

ABUT, *v.* *Sax.* *ab*, *abuttan*, from *boda*. The *ABUTMENT*, first outward extremity or boundary *ABUTTAL*, of any thing. Tooke.

To be upon the outward extremity. Tu border upon the surface of.

ABUSE.
—
ABUT.

ABUT.
—
ABYLA.

Suppose within the girdle of these walls
Are now confin'd two mighty monarches,
Whose high, square-crested and cloister'd fronts,
The pendent narrow ocean part asunder?
Peek out our imperfections with your thoughts.
Shakespeare. Prologue to Henry F.

The name and place of the thing granted were ordinarily express'd, as well before as after the Conquest; but the particular manner of *abutting*, with the term itself, arose from the Normans, as appears in the *Customary of Normandy*, cap. 556, where it is said, that declaration must be made *per leu de cotes des terres assues, de la butade et sides of the said lands assied*. Read signifieth the end of a thing, abuteth to thrust forth the end.

Spreman. On Ancient Deeds and Charters.

ABUTTALS, the buttals or boundings of a piece of land. In Coke, the Plaintiff is said to fail in his Abutments; that is, in proving how the land is bounded.

ABUTUA, a Kingdom in South Africa, to the North of the Hottentot country, said to be rich in gold mines.

ABYDOS, an ancient City of Asia, on the Eastern side of the Dardanellen. It was built by the Milesians, with the permission of King Gyges, and famous for the bridge of boats which Xerxes here threw across the Hellespont; and for the loves of Leander and Hero. This City was once important, as it commanded the Straits, and defended itself with great courage against Philip of Macedon; but at length the surrender, A. M. 3803, was attended with dreadful scenes of carnage. Liv. lib. xxxi. c. 18; Lucan, lib. ii. v. 674, &c.

ABYLOS, or **ABYDOS**, an ancient Town of Upper Egypt, between *Ptolemais* and *Diopolis Parva*, which contained the Palace of Memnon and the celebrated Temple of Osiris, built by Osymandias.

Under the Empire of Augustus, the Town was reduced to ruins; but to the West of it, in the present village of El-berbi, magnificent remains of what is supposed to have been the Tomb of Osymandias are still found. The entrance is under a portico 60 feet in height, and supported by two rows of columns. The massy character of the edifice, and its hieroglyphics, proclaim its Egyptian origin. The Tomb itself forms a kind of entrance to the adjoining Temple, which is nearly 300 feet in length, and 150 wide. Remains of extensive apartments communicate with each other by subterranean passages and staircases, whose walls are sculptured with the ancient Egyptian symbols, and many of the Idols of ancient and modern India; amongst which the celebrated Juggernaut and Vishnu are conspicuous. An apartment 46 feet long by 22 wide, opens at the bottom of the first hall. Six square pillars support the roof; and at the angles are the doors of four other chambers, which have been buried in rubbish by the Arabs in their search for concealed treasures. The last hall is 64 feet long by 24 wide. Various colossal figures adorn these apartments, which are minutely described by Savary, in his *Letters on Egypt*; the Pyramids themselves have not more successfully resisted the ravages of time than these splendid ruins; which still appear likely to reach remote ages.

ABYLA, (Ptolemy, Mela,) one of the pillars of Hercules on the African side, called by the Spaniards Sierra de las Monas; opposite to Calpe in Spain, the other pillar. They are supposed to have been formerly conjoined, but separated by Hercules, and thus to have opened an entrance to the sea now called the Mediterranean; the limits, according to Pliny, of the labours of Hercules.

ABYLO, **ABYTO**, one of the Philippine Islands, in the East Indies, in the possession of Spain, between Mindanao and Luzon. Longitude 122° 15' East, latitude 10° North.

ABY'SM, *n.* } *A fœne*, without bottom.
ABY'SS. } That which is without bottom; and therefore unfathomable, endless, unbounded, unlimited.

Phos. But how is it,
That this haunts in thy mind? What seest thou else
In the dark-larkward and obscure of time?
Yf thou rememberest ought ere thou cam'st here,
How thou cam'st here thou must.

Shakespeare. Tempest, act i. sc. 1.

— He makes me sorry,
And at this time most easie 'tis to do so:
When my good stars, that were my former guides
Have empty left their orbes and shod their fires
Into th' mine of Hell.

Id. Antony and Cleopatra, act iii. sc. 2.

And him beside sits ugly Barbarian,
And brutish ignorance, exempt of late
Out of dredd darkness of the deepe abyss,
Where being bred, he light and Heavens does hate.
Spenser. Tears of the Moors. Sermon.

To whom Satans turning, boldly: "Ye Powers
And Spirits of this wilderness abyss,
Chaos and ancient Night, I come as spy,
With purpose to explore or to disturb
The secrets of your realm."

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ii.

We may consider that God's providence is inscrutable and impenetrable to us; a great abyss, too deep for our feeble understanding to fathom. *Burrow. Sermons.*

O the unfathomable abyss of eternity! how are our imaginations lost in the conceits of it!

Stillingfleet. Sermons.

Far is the deep abyss of the main,
With hasty Nereus, and the watery train,
The mother Goddess, from her crystal throne
Heard his loud cries, and answered groans for groan.
Pope. Homer. Iliad, book xviii.

Nor second, he that rode sublime
Upon the seraph wings of ecstasy,
The secrets of the abyss to spy.

Gray. Progress of Poesy.

This Prince, who received the name of Iunilda from his hardy valor, possessed courage and abilities sufficient to have prevented his country from sinking into those calamities, but not to raise it from that abyss of misery into which it had already fallen.

Hume. History of England.

ABYSS. A controversy has arisen on the subject of a supposed cavern in the centre of the earth, to which this name has been given. Whether the waters said to be contained in this immense deep, were deposited here on the third day of the Creation, or retired into it after the Deluge, is matter of dispute. Dr. Woodward, and others, suppose this vast collection of waters to have been called by Moses "the great deep," and that over its surface the terrestrial strata are expanded. The water is believed to communicate with the ocean, by certain hiatuses or chasms, having one common centre; but in such a manner that the surface of the Abyss is not level with that of the ocean, nor yet so distant from the centre as the other, it being restrained and depressed by the super-incumbent strata of earth. Wherever these strata are broken, or porous, the water ascends, and saturates all the interstices of the earth, stone, or other matter, till it attains the level of the ocean.

ABYSS.
—
ABYSS.

ABYSS.
—
ABYSSINIA.

Springs and rivers, and the level maintained in the surfaces of different seas, have been supposed to originate in this Abyss: and to the effluvia emitted from it have been even attributed the diversities of the atmosphere. This theory seems far from being satisfactorily demonstrated; and by most persons is considered as rather ingenious than philosophical or correct. Whoever wishes to investigate this curious speculation more fully, and to acquaint himself with the controversies it has occasioned, may consult Woodward's *Nat. Hist. of the Earth*, with Holloway's *Introduction*; Whitehurst's *Inquiry into the Original Formation of the Strata*, &c.; Cockburn's *Inquiry into the Truth*

and Certainty of the Mosaic Deluge; Jameson's *Mineralogy*, vol. iii. p. 76; Cuvier's *Disert. Taur. Acta Erudit. Suppl.* tom. vi. lib. 1727, p. 313; *Journal de Scavans*, tom. lviii.; *Memoirs of Literature*, vii. viii.

ABYSS is more properly used in Antiquity, to denote the Temple of Proserpine; in which a magnificent fund of gold and other riches were supposed to have been concealed.

ABYSS, in *Heraldry*, to denote the centre of any escutcheon. A thing is said to be borne in Abyss, *en Abyss*, when placed in the middle of the shield, clear from any other bearing: "He bears azure, a fleur de lis, in Abyss." Colombine.

ABYSS.
—
ABYSSINIA.

ABYSSINIA.

Extent.

ABYSSINIA, ADARSSIA, HARESH, or UPPER ETHIOPIA, an African Kingdom, of very considerable extent, lying between the 7th and 16th degrees of North latitude, and the 30th and 40th degrees of East longitude. The medial breadth is about eight degrees of longitude, in latitude 10°, about 550 British miles. Ancient writers give the title of Ethiopians to all nations of a black complexion; hence the Arabians, and many other Asiatics were so denominated. The Africans in general were divided into the Western or Hesperian Ethiopians, and the Eastern, situated above Egypt. As the Ancients never acquired any accurate knowledge of this extensive region, it is not surprising that they should differ concerning the situation of the Empire of Ethiopia, and assign it such a variety of names; as *India*, an appellation which seems also to have been applied to many distant and unknown nations; *Atlantia* and *Ethiopia*; and in the most remote times, *Cephæia*. Its usual appellation was *Abasene*, a word very similar to *Abassia*, or *Abyssinia*, its modern names. Persia, Chaldaea, Assyria, and other Asiatic countries, were sometimes styled Ethiopia; and all the countries along the coasts of the Red Sea were promiscuously denominated *India* and *Ethiopia*. The Jewish names of Ethiopia were *Cush* and *Ludim*. To one country, however, above the rest, the title of *Ethiopia Propria* was given. It was bounded on the North by Egypt, extending to the lesser Cataract of the Nile, and the Island of Elephantine; on the West by Libya Interior; on the East by the Red Sea; and on the South by unknown parts of Africa.

Names.

Situation of
Ethiopia
Propria

Different
nations,
according to
the Ancients.

More than twenty different nations are described by the writers of antiquity, each as distinguished by some considerable peculiarity. Their descriptions are evidently tinged with fable; but as a gratification to the curious, we shall preserve the principal names which have been transmitted to us: 1. the *Anthrophagi*, or Man-eaters, now supposed to have been the Caffres, and not any inhabitants of Proper Ethiopia; 2. the *Hippophagi*, or Horse-eaters, who lay to the Northward of *Libya Incognita*; 3. the *Agriophagi*, who lived on the flesh of wild beasts; 4. the *Pamphagi*,

who used almost every thing indiscriminately for food; 5. the *Struthophagi*, (situated to the South of the *Memnonides*); 6. the *Acridophagi*; 7. *Chelonophagi*; 8. *Ichthyophagi*; 9. *Cynomolgi*; 10. *Elephantophagi*; 11. *Rhizophagi*; 12. *Spermatozophagi*; 13. *Hylophagi*; and 14. *Ophiophagi*,—all of whom had their names from the food they made use of, viz. ostriches, locusts, tortoises, fish, hitches' milk, elephants, roots, fruits or seeds, and serpents. 15. The *Hemmyes*, near the borders of Egypt; who, probably from the shortness of their necks, were said to have no heads, but eyes, mouths, &c. in their breasts. Their firm must have been very extraordinary, if we believe Vapiscus, who gives an account of some of the captives of this nation brought to Rome. 16. The *Nubata*, inhabiting the banks of the Nile, near the Island Elephantine already mentioned, said to have been removed thither by Oasus, to repress the incursions of the *Hemmyes*. 17. The *Tragodytes*, by some writers said to belong to Egypt, and described as little superior to brutes. 18. The *Nubiana*, of whom little more is known than their name. 19. The *Pigmia*, by some supposed to be a tribe of *Tragodytes*; but by others placed on the African coast of the Red Sea. 20. The *Avalata*, or *Abalata*, of whom we know nothing more than that they were situated near the Aballitic Gulf. 21. The *Asacha*, a people inhabiting the mountainous parts, and continually employed in hunting elephants. 22. The *Macrobii*, a powerful nation, remarkable for their longevity; some of them attaining the age of 128 years. 23. The *Sambri*, situated near the City of Tenopia, in Nubia, upon the Nile; of whom it is reported that all the quadrupeds they had, not excepting even the elephants, were destitute of ears. 24. The *Hylogenes*, neighbours to the *Elephantophagi*, and who were so savage that they had no houses, nor any other places to sleep in but the tops of trees.

PROVINCES.—Modern Abyssinia, according to Mr. Bruce, is divided into two principal parts, named Tigre and Amhara; which, however, refers rather to the distinction of language than to that of territory.

Maruah is the most Easterly Province; it runs *Maruah*

ABYSSINIA. parallel to the Indian Ocean and Red Sea, in a zone of about 40 miles broad, as far as the island of that name. The territories of the Baharnagash include this Province, as well as the Districts of Azab and Habab. In the former are mines of fossil salt, which is cut into square solid pieces about a foot in length, and used to answer the purpose of money. The Habab is also called the land of the Agazai, or Shepherds; who have used letters from the earliest times. Their language is termed Geez. The Province of Masnah is now under a Mohammedan Governor, called a *Nayte*.

Tigré. *Tigré* is a very wealthy Province, bounded on the East by the territories of the Baharnagash; the river Mareb is the Eastern boundary, and the Tacazzé the Western. It is about 200 miles long from North to South, and 120 broad from West to East.

Sire. *Sire* is about 25 miles in length, and the same in breadth. Tacazzé is its Western boundary.

Samen. *Samen* is a mountainous Province, lying to the Westward of the Tacazzé, about 80 miles long, and in particular places 30 broad, though in general much narrower.

Begemder. *Begemder* is situated to the North-East of *Tigré*; about 180 miles long and 60 broad; bounded on the West by the river Nile; and comprehending the mountainous country of Lasta. Its soldiers are the best in Abyssinia: it is said that this Province, with Lasta, can furnish 45,000 horsemen. It abounds with iron mines, and beautiful cattle. It constitutes the principal barrier against the incursions of the *Galla*, who, notwithstanding their frequent attempts, have never yet been able to form a settlement in it.

Amar. The mountainous Province of *Amar* is about 120 miles long, and upwards of 40 broad. The men have the reputation of being the handsomest in Abyssinia. This Province contains the rock Geshen, once the residence of the Royal family.

Walaka. *Walaka* is situated between the rivers Geheen and Samba. In this Province the only surviving Prince of the family of Solomon was preserved, after the massacre by Judith; on which account, great privileges were conferred upon the inhabitants. This Province is remarkable for the Monastery of Debra Libanos, where the famous Saint Tecla Haimanout, the founder of the power of the Clergy, was bred.

Gojam. *Gojam* is bounded on the North by the mountains of Amid Amid, on the South by the river Nile, on the West by another river, named Gult, and on the East by the river Temcl. It is about 40 miles long, from North to South; and somewhat more than 20 in breadth, from East to West; very populous; but inferior to the rest of Abyssinia in military character. It abounds in fine cattle, and is celebrated for containing within its borders some of the sources of the Nile.

To the East, and beyond the mountains of Amid Amid, lies the country of the Agowe; on the West, Buré, Umburma, and the country of the Gongas; on the South, those of Damot and Gafat, and Dingleber.

Dembes. *Dembes* occupies the space bordering the lake of that name, from Dingleber below the mountains bounding Guesque and Kuara.

Kuara. *Kuara*, to the South of Demben, is the *Macrobii* of the Ancients. There is in the lower part of this Province a colony of Pagan blacks, named Ganjar; derived, according to Bruce, from the black slaves who accompanied the Arabs after the invasion of Mohammed. The Governor of this country is one of the great

Officers of State: he has kettle-drums of silver, which he alone has the privilege of beating though the streets of Gondar.

Narea, Ras-el-Fed, Tchelga, and other frontier countries, are inhabited by Mohammedans, and usually governed by strangers. This district country is unwholesome, and covered with thick woods. The inhabitants are good horsemen, but make use of no other weapon than the broad sword.

General appearance. *General appearance.* The aspect of Abyssinia is generally wild and magnificent. The mountains are remarkable for their elevation, though their precise height has never yet been ascertained. Some have idly repeated, that they exceed the Alps and Pyrenees. Some resemble pyramids and obelisks, while others are flat and square, grouped with the utmost irregularity. The country abounds also in forests, morasses, deep and beautiful vallies and rivers. This renders travelling difficult, but it is also delightful, from the charm of perpetual and romantic variety.

The great salt plain, which extends over part of the tract between Amphiha and Masnah, is one of the most extraordinary productions of Abyssinia. It is about four days' journey across. For half a mile the salt is soft, but afterwards it becomes hard, like snow partially thawed. For about the depth of two feet it is pure and hard, when it becomes coarser and softer. The digging of this salt is rather dangerous, from the vicinity of the *Galla*, who will often attack the persons so employed, as well as the caravans which convey the salt to Asuala, where they are much welcomed upon their safe arrival.

Mountains. *Mountains.* The mountains are arranged in three ridges, the principal elevations, as is usual in such regions, being in the middle, and at the same time the most rugged and barren. On the East of the Kingdom are the heights of Taranta; toward the centre, the Lemalmou; and to the South, the Ganzu. Bruce represents the Taranta as so bare, that there was no possibility of pitching a tent; and recourse was accordingly had to a cave for lodging. The lower part of the mountain produces in great plenty the tree called *Kolquail*, which he found in a state of high perfection. The middle produced olives, which had no fruit; and the upper part was covered with the *Oxycedras* or *Virginia cedar*, called *Araz* in the language of the country. On the top is a small village named Ilalai, inhabited by poor shepherds, who keep the flocks of the rich people of the town of Dizan below. They are of dark complexion, inclining to yellow; their hair black, and curled artificially with a stick. The men have a girdle of coarse cotton cloth, swathed six times round their middle; and they carry along with them two lances, and a shield made of bull's hides. Besides these weapons they have in their girdles a crooked knife, with a blade about sixteen inches in length, and three in breadth, at the lower part. There is an abundance of cattle; the cows are generally milk white, with dewlaps down to their knees; their horns white, and their hair like silk. The sheep are black, having hair upon them instead of wool; but remarkable for its lustre and softness. On the top of the mountain is a plain, which, at the time of Bruce's visit, was sown with wheat. The air seemed excessively cold, though the barometer was not below 59° in the evening. On the western declivity, the cedars degenerate into shrubs and bushes

ABYSSINIA.

Lamalmou is on the North-West part of the mountains of Samen, and was ascended by Bruce by a winding path, scarcely two feet broad, on the brink of a dreadful precipice, and frequently intersected by the beds of torrents, which produced vast irregular chasms in it. On reaching the summit, it was found, that though from below it had the appearance of being sharp pointed, it was in reality a large plain, full of springs, which are the sources of most rivers in this part of Abyssinia. These springs boil out of the earth, sending forth such quantities of water as are sufficient to turn a mill. A perpetual verdure prevails; and it is entirely owing to indolence in the husbandman if he has not three harvests annually. The mountains of Adowa, in Tigre, Audu Gideon, or the Jews' Rock, in Samen, and the triple ridge of Afonassila, Litchambara, and Amid Amid, supposed by Mr. Bruce to be the Mountains of the Moon, are among the others of greatest notoriety and distinction.

Blue River

RIVERS. The principal river is Bahar-el-azrek, or Blue River, called by the natives, Abay. Its chief spring is a small hillock, situated in a marsh, in the country of the Agwus, whence it flows into the Lake Dembea, after emerging from which it pursues a semicircular course round the Provinces of Damot and Gojjum, then takes a northerly direction through Sennar, till in latitude 16° it unites with the Abiad, which is the Nile of the Ancients. The next considerable stream is the Tenezzé or Teneuz, which rises to the West of Antalo, and pursues a North-West course to the Nile, through Sennar. Mr. Bruce informs us, that it carries near one-third of the water which falls on the whole Empire; and when passing it, he saw the marks of its stream, the preceding year, 18 feet perpendicular above the bottom; nor could it be ascertained whether this was the highest point to which it had reached. It is extremely pleasant; being shaded with fine lofty trees, the water remarkably clear, and the banks adorned with the most fragrant flowers. At the ford where he crossed, this river was fully 200 yards broad, and about three feet deep; running very swiftly over a bottom of pebbles. At the very edge of the water the banks were covered with tamarisks, behind which grew tall and stately trees, that never lose their leaves. It abounds with fish; and is inhabited by crocodiles and hippopotami. The neighbouring woods are full of lions and hyenas. Malek is another large stream which joins the Abay, after a parallel course on the West. Two others, the Hannzo and the Hawash, flow towards the entrance of the Red Sea; the former loses itself in the sands of Adal.

Lake Tana.

The largest collection of waters in the country is the Lake Tana; which is also called the lake of Dembea. It has an island in the mid-st, of the former name. In the Southern extremity of the Kingdom is the lake of Zawaja, a chief town of the Hawash.

Climate.

The CLIMATE of Abyssinia is in general temperate and healthy; although the mountainous nature of its surface exposes different situations to the diversified effects of heat and cold, dryness and moisture, and of a free circulation or a stagnation of the atmosphere. In the more elevated districts the sky is clear, and the air cool. The inhabitants are healthy and sprightly; whilst those who live in the valleys, marshes, or sandy deserts, experience excessive heat, with a humid and suffocating air. From April to September there are heavy rains; and in the remaining season of drought the nights are cold.

ABYSSINIA.

Mr. Bruce observed, the thermometer stood at 32° on the summit of Lamalmou in the depth of winter, the wind north-west; clear and cold, attended with hoar frost, which vanished into dew a quarter of an hour after sunrise. He never saw any sign of the congelation of water upon the top of the highest mountains; but he observed hail to lie for three hours in the forenoon on Amid Amid. The range of the barometer and thermometer, according to a register which he kept at Gondar, from February 19, 1770, to May 31, 1771, will appear from the following table:

	Barometer.	Thermometer.	Wind.
April 29, 6½ a. m.	22.11	60°	S.
March 29, 2½ p. m.	20.11	75°	E.
April 12, 12 noon.		91°	W.N.W.
July 7, 12 noon.	21.6	54½°	W.

One of the native historians describes a fall of snow, for which no term had been previously invented, in a curious manner. "This village (Zintennam) has its name from an extraordinary circumstance that once happened in these parts. A shower of rain fell, which was not properly of the nature of rain, as it did not run upon the ground, but remained very light, having scarce the weight of feathers, of a beautiful white colour, like flour; it fell in showers, and darkened the air more than rain, and like to mist. It covered the face of the whole country for several days, retaining its whiteness the while time; then went away like dew, without leaving any smell, or unwholesome effect, behind it."

The rainy season commences about the end of Rainy season. April, and ends in September. To avoid the inconveniences that attend the overflowing of their rivers during this season, the Abyssinians have built many of their towns and villages on the mountains. They are generally mean, consisting only of one story, and constructed with straw and laths, earth and lime. In many of the villages the houses are separated by hedges, which being always green, and intermixed with flowers and fruit trees, enliven the scene, and contribute to the salubrity of the country.

DISEASES. With the rains all epidemic diseases FEVERS. disappear; but at other times the Abyssinians are subject to violent fevers, which prove fatal on the third day. Those who survive to the fifth day often recover, merely by drinking cold water, and by repeatedly throwing cold water upon them in their beds. The tertian fever is common. All fevers terminate in intermittents; and if they continue long, in dysenteries, which are always tedious, and often mortal. Bark and ipecacuanha, in small quantities, water, and fruit not over ripe, have been found the most effectual remedies. The dysentery, commencing with a constant diarrhoea, is seldom cured, if it begins with the rainy season; otherwise, small doses of ipecacuanha either remove it, or change it into an intermittent fever, which yields to the bark. Another endemic disease is called *Hanzeer*, the hogs or the swine, and consists in a swelling of the glands of the throat, and under the arms, which by ineffectual attempts for producing suppuration, and opening the tumours, becomes a running sore, and resembles the evil. In connection

ABYSSINIA. with this disorder, we may mention those swellings, to which the whole body is subject, but more particularly the arms, thighs, and legs, sometimes accompanied with ulcers in the nose and mouth, which deface the smoothness of the skin, and which, on this account, are much dreaded by the Abyssinians. The last two diseases sometimes yield to mercurials; but the last is speedily and completely cured by antimonials. Another complaint, called *farentit*, or the worm of Pharaoh, afflicts those who are in the habit of drinking stagnant water. It appears in all parts of the body, but chiefly in the legs and arms; and is a worm with a small black head and a hooked beak, of a whitish colour, and a white body of a silky texture, resembling a small tendon. The natives seize it by the head, and wind it gently round a piece of silk, or a bird's feather, and thus by degrees they extract it without any inconvenience or permanent scar. Mr. Bruce suffered much from this complaint, and the breaking of the worm in extracting it. The most terrible of all the diseases of this climate, is the *dephiantia*. The cicut, mercury, and tar-water, were unsuccessfully tried in this complaint; the greatest benefit was derived from whey made of cow's milk. To the alternation of scorching heat and chilling cold, thin clothing, the use of stagnant, putrid water for four months, and other such causes, these diseases may be partly, if not wholly ascribed. The small-pox was introduced into Abyssinia at the time of the siege of Mecca, about the year 356, and the Abyssinian army was the first victim to it.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—The variety of elevation, in different parts of this country, occasions a proportionate variety of soil and productions. In many places the mountains are barren and inaccessible. This, however, is compensated by the fertility of the valleys: wheat, barley, and other grain is raised in considerable crops, and the inhabitants have two, and sometimes three harvests in a year. Tef is their chief grain, which grows in every soil, and furnishes their bread. On the grounds which are unfit for the production of tef, a plant is raised, called *tuccoo*, which yields a black bread for the lowest classes. Wine is made only in one or two places; but there is every where the greatest profusion of fruits: a prodigious variety of flowers adorn the banks of the rivers. Among these is a species of rose, which grows upon trees, and is much superior in fragrance to those which grow on bushes. Senna, cardamom, ginger, and cotton, are likewise produced here in great quantities.

Other vegetable products are, the papyrus, the ancient material for paper; which Bruce supposes to have been a native of Ethiopia, and not of Egypt. The Balsam, balsam, or balsam plant; which attains the height of 14 or 15 feet, and is used for fuel. It is found on the coast of the Red Sea, among the myrrh trees behind Azab, all the way to Babelmandel. This tree produces the balsam of Gilead mentioned in Scripture. Along the same coast are the sassa, myrrh, and opocarpus trees. The sassa or opocarpus is used in manufactures. The Ensete, an herbaceous plant, in Naren, which thrives chiefly in swampy places, forms a considerable part of the vegetable food of the Abyssinians. When used for this purpose, it is to be cut immediately above the small detached roots, or perhaps a foot or two higher, according to the age of the plant.

The green is to be stripped from the upper part till it becomes white; and when soft, is very grateful and nutritious with milk or butter. The kolquall is a kind of tree, of which only the lower part is woody, the upper part being herbaceous and succulent. The flowers are of a fine golden colour, and the fruit turns to a deep crimson; so that the trees make a very beautiful appearance. The whole plant is full of a very acid and caustic milk. The Gire-gir, or Gesh-el-aube, a kind of grass found about Ras-el-Feel, grows to the height of about three feet six inches. The gugudi is a short tree, only about nine feet high, a native of Lamsalon. The flowers, which are yellow and very beautiful, turn towards the sun like those of the helianthus. The wansay, a tree common throughout all Abyssinia, flowers exactly on the first day on which the rains cease. It grows to the height of eighteen or twenty feet; having a thick bark and close heavy wood; the first part of which is white, but the rest of a dark colour. The flowers are of a beautiful white colour. It is held in great estimation by the Abyssinians, and is even worshipped by the Galla. Kusa is a beautiful tree, growing in the south and south-west parts of Abyssinia. It has a fruit like a bean, of a red colour, which in the early ages was made use of as a weight for gold and diamonds; and hence Mr. Bruce is of opinion that the name of the imaginary weight carat is derived. The woginoos, or brucea antisynterica, is common throughout the whole empire, but principally on the sides of the valleys. It is a sovereign remedy against the dysentery, a very common and fatal disease in hot countries. Mr. Bruce had experimental proof of its antisynteritic virtue. Cusso, or banksia anthelmintica, is a very beautiful and useful tree, being a strong anthelmintic, and used as such by the Abyssinians. Nook or nuk, a plant not to be distinguished from our marigold, either in shape, size, or odour, is sown very generally over the country, and furnishes all Abyssinia with oil for the kitchen and other uses. This country presents an inexhaustible field of research to the botanist. Mr. Salt, in his two recent journeys, added eight genera and a hundred and twenty-eight species. It is remarkable, that every bush of this country retains its verdure and productiveness in all seasons of the year. The process of fructification is singular, although the same part of the tree flowers only once in twelve months. The blossoms appear, and the fruit advances gradually to maturity, first on the western boughs, next on the southern, then the northern, and finally the eastern; which produces blossoms and fruit till the commencement of the rainy season. The leaves of the trees are of a tough texture, and furnished; in consequence of which they are adapted to resist the violent and frequent rains which descend.

QUADRUPES.—Both wild and tame quadrupeds, some of which are the most beautiful in the world, abound throughout Abyssinia. Some of the cow species have no horns, and have bosses on their backs: others, again, are distinguished by having horns of prodigious dimensions, capable of holding ten quarts each. The animal itself is inferior to the English cow. The disproportion between the animal and its horns induced Mr. Bruce to imagine that it was occasioned by disease; but Mr. Salt has since ascertained them to be natural protuberances. "Here" (at Gibba), he says, "for the first time I was gratified by the sight of the Galla oxen or Sanga, cele-

ABYSSINIA.

brated throughout Abyssinia for the remarkable size of their horns: three of these animals were grazing among the other cattle, in perfect health; which circumstance, together with the testimony of the natives, 'that the size of the horns is in no instance occasioned by disease,' completely refutes the fanciful theory given by Mr. Bruce respecting this creature. It appears by the papers annexed to the last edition of Mr. Bruce's work, that he never met with the Sanga; but that he made many attempts to procure specimens of the horns, through Yauir, a Greek, residing at Adowa. This old man very correctly speaks of them in his letters, as being brought only by the cavaliers from Antalo; and I have now ascertained that they are sent to this country as valuable presents by the chiefs of the Galla, whose tribes are spread to the southward of Enderbi. So far, then, as to the description of the horns, and the purposes to which they are applied by the Abyssinians, Mr. Bruce's statements may be considered as correct: but with respect to 'the disease which occasions their size, probably derived from their posture and climate;' 'the care taken of them to encourage the progress of this disease;' 'the emaciation of the animal;' and the 'extending of the disorder to the spine of the neck, which at last becomes callous, so that it is not any longer in the power of the animal to lift its head;' they all prove to be merely ingenious conjectures, thrown out by the author solely for the exercise of his own ingenuity. I should not venture to speak so positively upon this matter, had I not indisputably ascertained the facts: for the Rex having subsequently made me a present of three of these animals alive, I found them not only in excellent health, but so exceedingly wild, that I was obliged to have them shot. The horns of one of these are now deposited in the museum of the Surgeons' College; and a still larger pair are placed in the collection of Lord Valentia, at Arley Hall. The length of the largest horn of this description which I met with was nearly four feet, and its circumference at the base, twenty-one inches." See MISCELLANIES, Plate I.

Buffaloes are numerous, and very fierce. Antelopes are found in the more uncultivated districts, especially in those places which have been reduced from a state of cultivation to barrenness, by the desolating march of war; where they enjoy a quiet residence, free from the fear of being pursued among the wild oats. Hyenas, lions, felines, jackals, and wild boars, are also found; as well as the elephant, rhinoceros, camelopard, and others of the larger animals. The zebra is common in the southern provinces of Fatacio and Narca, where its mane adorns the collars of the war horses. Abyssinian horses are strong and beautiful, but small. The immense multitudes of baboons, apes, rats, and mice, are very destructive to those parts which are in a state of cultivation. Hares are plentiful; but, being reckoned unclean, are, like the wild boars, unused for food. The principal rivers are full of crocodiles and hippopotami.

Birds, &c.

BRUCE.—Birds abound in incalculable varieties, and amongst them many of the carnivorous kind. Many species of the eagle, vulture, and hawk are found, which appear every year after the tropical rains. They feed at first upon the shell-fish, which are in quantities on the edges of the deserts; whither they are forced by the flood, from the salt springs where they had been nourished, and are left when the rains subside. Their

ABYSSINIA.

nest supply in the carcasses of the large animals, as the elephant and rhinoceros, slain in the low country by the hunters. The multitude of rats and field mice which infest the country after harvest, afford them a further and an ample stock of provisions. To these menus of subsistence may be added, the cattle slaughtered by the Abyssinian armies, and the dead bodies which remain on the field of battle. These supplies, however, all fail at the commencement of the rainy season, when the hunters and armies return home, and the vast quantity of water which continually inundates the ground, renders it impossible for them to find other food.

Many of the birds feed upon insects, and others on grain or seeds of various kinds, which are supplied by the immense quantities of fruits and berries which ripen at all seasons of the year. It is an advantage to the granivorous birds, that the rains fall at different periods, in different parts of the country; which being crossed by a chain of mountains, that divide the seasons, they have but a short passage, from time to time, in order to supply themselves with food. There are many species of pigeons, which are migratory, excepting one kind, which occupies the eaves of houses or holes in the walls. The owls are remarkable for their size and beauty, but they are few in number. Those swallows which are common in Europe, appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from that continent; other kinds are unknown in Europe. The large birds which reside on the mountains of Samen and Taranta have tubular feathers, the hollow part being filled with a yellow dust, which issues out by pressure in great abundance. This was particularly observed by Mr. Bruce in the river or golden eagle; and the dust being viewed through a microscope with a strong magnifying power, appeared like fine feathers. One which he shot measured eight feet four inches, from wing to wing; and upwards of four feet and a half, from the tip of his tail to the point of his beak. The same traveller also particularly notices the black eagle; and to these Mr. Salt adds the goowle-goodie, a new species, about the size of a falcon. The crows have nearly an equal proportion of white and black. The raven has his black feathers intermixed with brown, the tip of his beak white, and a tuft of white feathers on his head, like a cup or chalice. Mr. Bruce saw no sparrows, magpies, woodcocks, or bats. Water-fowl, especially of the web-footed kind, were scarce; but vast numbers of storks cover the plains in May, during the rainy season. There is only one species of goose, called the golden goose, or goose of the Nile, which is common throughout Africa. Snipes are found in all the marshy grounds.

Abyssinia is excessively infested with swarms of locusts and ants: particularly by a species of fly called *Taalsayn*; which is somewhat larger than a *Taalsayn*, bee, with wings placed separate, like those of a fly, of pure green, without colour or spot. The head of this insect is large, the upper jaw sharp, armed at the end with a strong pointed hair, about a quarter of an inch in length; the lower jaw is furnished with two of these hairs. The legs are serrated in the inside, and covered with down. The motion of this insect is rapid, like that of a gnat-fly, producing a jarring noise, accompanied by a humming; which is no sooner heard than the utmost consternation prevails among the cattle, who instantly quit

ABYSSINIA.

their foul, and run wildly about, till they are exhausted with fatigue. The thick skin of the camel is no security against his attacks; and even the elephant and rhinoceros are obliged to roll themselves in the mire; which, when dried upon them, affords some resistance. This terrible insect is happily confined to the black foamy soil, and the sands of Albara afford a retreat from his pursuit.

Fishes.

Among the few fishes are the torpedo and the binny; the latter is good food, and grows to a considerable size. Its whole body is covered with beautiful scales, resembling silver spangles.

Serpents.

In Upper Abyssinia, Mr. Bruce states that he saw no serpents, and but very few varieties in the low country. The large snake called *boa*, which is about the thickness of an ordinary man's thigh, and often twenty feet long, is the most remarkable. The grassy verge of large ponds furnishes him a retreat. His chief subsistence is upon antelopes and deer, which he swallows piece-meal, after crushing their bones. There is also the cerastes or horned viper, which is commonly about thirteen or fourteen inches in length; the poison of which is contained in a bag under its canine teeth. It moves in all directions, and with great rapidity; springing suddenly upon anything it chooses to attack, after approaching, with its head averted, to within a proper distance. Mr. Bruce asserts the reality of the incantation of serpents and scorpions, which in some is natural, in others produced by medical preparations.

Government.

GOVERNMENT.—Nothing can be more irregular or despotic than the constitution of the government. It is, in fact, a legal despotism, there being no assembly of the people, and no privileged order of nobles to controul the absolute will of the sovereign; and yet it is unsupported by any such military force as is calculated to sustain its pretensions. Any one of the governors of the several districts is a match for his master, and his authority is even capable of being set at defiance by the meanest force. Though the crown is hereditary, it depends on the minister to choose the individual who is to enjoy it; and as he is of course wishes to have the government in his own hands, he never fails to fix upon an infant, during whose minority he rules, and who is not seldom sacrificed before he attains the years of maturity. Civil wars and commotions are the necessary result, and contribute to barbarize the people. The devastations committed by the soldiers are such, that "an army leaves nothing living behind, not even the residue of a habitation; but fire and the sword reduce everything to a wilderness and solitude. The beasts and birds, unmolested, leave the country to themselves, and increase beyond all possible conception. The slovenly manners of this savage people, who, after a battle, bury neither friends nor enemies; the quantity of beasts of burthen that die perpetually under the load of baggage, and variety of mismanagement; the quantity of oxen, and half-eaten carcasses of cows, goats, and sheep, which they consume in their march for sustenance; all furnish a stock of carrion sufficient to occasion contagious distempers, were there not such a prodigious number of voracious attendants, who consume them almost before putrefaction. There is no giving the reader any idea of their number, unless by comparing them to the sands of the sea. While the army is in motion, they are a black canopy, which extends over it for leagues. When encamped, the ground

is discoloured with them beyond the sight of the eye; and all the trees are loaded with them." Human life seems to be little respected. The number of criminals executed for high treason, whose bodies are cut in pieces and thrown about the streets, invite the hyenas to the capital, in the same manner that the carrion of the camp invites the birds of prey to follow it. To keep them off, "an officer called Serach Mansery, with a long whip, begins cracking and making a noise worse than twenty French positions at the door of the palace before the dawn of day. This chases away the hyenas and other wild beasts; this too is the signal for the king's rising, who sits in judgment every morning fasting; and after that, about eight o'clock, he goes to breakfast."

ABYSSINIA.
S.A.
Criminals.

The king is anointed at his election with plain oil of olives; "which being poured upon the crown of his head, he rubs into his long hair indelicately enough with both his hands, pretty much as his soldiers do with theirs when they get access to plenty of butter." To former times, however, the coronation ceremony was of a more splendid description. The king, dressed in crimson damask, with a great chain of gold about his neck, his head bare, and mounted on a horse richly caparisoned, advanced at the head of his nobility, passed the outer court, and came to the paved way before the church. Here he was met by a number of young girls, daughters of the amhares or supreme judges, together with many noble virgins standing on the right and left of the court. Two of the noblest of these held in their hands a crimson cord of silk, somewhat thicker than common whip-cord, stretched across from one company to another, as if to shut up the road by which the king was approaching the church. When this cord was prepared and drawn tight about breast-high, the king entered, advancing at a moderate pace, displaying his skill in horsemanship as he went along. Being stopped by the string, the damsels asked, who he was? To this he answered, "I am your king, the king of Ethiopia." But they replied, "You shall not pass; you are not our king." Retiring some paces, he again presented himself, and the question was repeated; when he answered, "I am your king, the king of Israel." But the same reply was still given by the girls. The third time, on being asked, "Who he was?" he answered, "I am your king, the king of Sion;" and drawing his sword, he cut the cord asunder. The damsels then cried out, "It is a truth, you are our king; truly you are the king of Sion." On this they began to sing halallelujah, and were joined by the whole army and the rest of the king's attendants. Amidst these acclamations, the king advanced to the foot of the stair of the church, dismounted and sat down upon a stone, resembling an altar of Anubis or the dog-star. A number of priests went in procession. The king was first anointed, then crowned, and accompanied half up the steps by the singing priests. He stopped at an aperture made in one of the steps, where he was fumigated with myrrh, sloes, and cassia; after which divine service was celebrated; and he returned to the camp, where fourteen days were spent in feasting and rejoicing. These ceremonies are now omitted on account of the expense; but some attention is still paid to the dignity of the government. The king is saluted, like the ancient Persian monarchs, with the title of "king of kings," and the royal person is approached with

Devastations of the armies.

ABYSSINIA.

every external sign of adoration, nor does any one venture to rise from the ground till he is ordered to do so. When the sovereign rides abroad, or gives audience, his head and forehead are perfectly covered, and his eyes only are seen, while one hand is placed upon his mouth. Communication is held with his subjects by means of an officer named *Kal-Haize*, the voice or word of the king. He sits enclosed in a balcony with lattice windows and curtains when in council, through a hole in the side of which he speaks to the *Kal-Haize*. No majority can prevail against the prerogative of the king, and they have even sometimes been punished with imprisonment for differing from his opinion. The constant prevalence of war has of late obliged him to expose his person in the field. He is then usually attended by an officer called *Lika Magwass*, who carries his shield and lance. Anciently such was the respect paid him, that no king ever fell in battle, and even now he is often secured by arraying himself in his insignia.

Justice ill administered.

Justice is but miserably administered. The complainants stand before the palace from day-break to evening, uttering loud cries in their respective languages. At those times when the rains prevent such as are really distressed from repairing to the capital, or standing in the streets, a set of vagrants are provided, whose business it is to imitate the querulous tones of sorrow; which they affirm is due to maintain the honour of the king, lest he should sit in his palace in lonely quietness. The phrase adopted in cases of real or fictitious affliction is, *Rele O jow hai*, Do me justice, O king!

Population.

POPULATION.—At present we have no satisfactory information with regard to the population of Abyssinia. The account of Alvarez is, that it is one of the most populous regions of the globe, but this is doubtless an exaggeration. Mr. Bruce, on the other hand, says, that it is difficult to raise the royal army to more than thirty thousand, but in so barbarous a state that it might be considered every tenth person joins the army. On a great occasion he declares it only amounted to twenty thousand. The truth may probably be found between these extreme representations. The general fertility of the country, and the salubrity of the air, are highly favourable to an extensive population.

Houses.

In general their houses are mean, consisting chiefly of clay, in a conic form, and thatched; they are separated from each other by hedges. The houses of the sovereign and grandees are spacious, but the only approach to architectural grandeur is to be seen in the churches, which are built on eminences, of a circular form, with conical thatched roofs, surrounded with pillars of cedar, within which is an arcade affording a refreshing retreat.

Gondar.

The present metropolis of the empire is Gondar, which is situated upon a mountain, and, according to Bruce, contains about ten thousand families, or fifty thousand persons. As the houses are only one story high, it occupies a considerable extent of ground. The royal palace at the west end of the town was once a considerable edifice consisting of four stories, flanked with square towers, and commanding a fine view of the country southward to the lake of Tanna. Great part of it is now in ruins. Koscam, the palace of the Heghe, is situated on the southern side of the mountains of the sun, called Debra Tzai. It is a square tower of three

Koscam.

stories, with a flat roof and battlements, encompassed by a wall of a mile in circumference, within which is a church, esteemed the richest in the kingdom. Higher on the hill are the houses of the people of rank, chiefly relations of the *Iughe*. Axum, the ancient capital, Axum, is celebrated for its extensive ruins. Tradition assigns its construction to the age of Abraham. Among the ruins are forty obelisks of granite, but without any hieroglyphics. There are also the traces of a magnificent temple originally 110 feet in length, with two wings on each side, a double porch, and an ascent of twelve steps. Siré is larger than Axum, but the houses are built of no better materials than clay, and covered with thatch. It stands on the brink of a steep narrow valley. Adowa is the capital of the province of Tigre, but does not contain above 300 houses; though it occupies a large space, by reason of the inclosures of a tree called *wanzy*, which surround each of the houses. It stands on the declivity of a hill, situated on the west side of a small plain surrounded by mountains. It is watered by three rivulets which never become dry even in the greatest heats.

ABYSSINIA.

The natives are of a dark olive complexion, and are so averse to white that they even dislike white grapes on account of the colour. To the conduct of the Jesuits may be ascribed in part this degree of aversion. Their dress is a large cotton cloth, with a blue and yellow border wrapped round them, and bound with a sash. They wear also a kind of breeches reaching to the middle of the thigh, and girt with a belt of white cloth, or, among the higher ranks, of red Indian cotton cloth, with girdles of silk or worsted brought from the Levant. A turban constitutes their head-dress.

Language.

LANGUAGE.—The language is an ancient offspring of the Arabic, and is divided into various dialects, of which the principal are, the Tigrin, or that of the province of Tigre, and the Amharic, now the prevailing language of the country. The Galanic is also considerably diffused. Ludolf and other missionaries have contributed to illustrate the Abyssinian language; and, as Mr. Murray, the editor of Bruce's Travels, has intimated, the characters are the Coptic forms of the Greek alphabet, modelled on the plan of the Arabic, deranged from their former order, and made rude by the hands of barbarous scribes.

COMPUTATION OF TIME.—The Abyssinian computation of time is, like that of the ancient Egyptians, by the solar year. Thirty days constitute their month, to which is added in the month of August five days and a quarter to complete the year. Every fourth year they add a sixth day. The year commences with the 29th or 30th of August, which is the first of their month *Mascaram*. Their common epoch is from the creation of the world, and they reckon 5500 years from the creation to the birth of Christ, rejecting the odd eight years of the Greeks, who make this period 5508 years. They make use also of other epochs, as from the council of Nice and Ephesus. In their ecclesiastical computations they follow the golden number and epoch. The epoch was invented by Demetrius, the twelfth patriarch of Alexandria, in the reign of Severus.

The Abyssinians have another method of computing time peculiar to themselves, which consists in denoting their years by the names of the evangelists. As they are familiar with their writings by reading them, in order, every year in their churches; when they

ABYSSINIA. speak of an event, they say, for example, it happened in the days of Matthew, that is, in the first quarter of the year, whilst they were reading the gospel of St. Matthew in their churches. Their computation of the time of the day is very arbitrary and irregular. The beginning of their day, which they call Naggô, comprehends the short duration of twilight. Mésot expresses the moment when the evening twilight begins between the setting of the sun and the rising of the stars. Mid-day is called Kater, which signifies entimination; and every other part of the day is indicated by pointing at the place in the heavens where the sun was, when the event they are describing occurred. It is sufficiently obvious from this statement, that the Abyssinian chronology must be most imperfect and incorrect, and that their history is necessarily involved in the greatest uncertainty and confusion.

Money. MONEY.—The use of money being unknown, the revenue is paid in bullion gold, and the products of the different provinces. Agowmidra pays annually to the king about 1000 ounces of gold, 1000 dabrass of honey, and 1000 or 1500 cattle; Damel pays 800 ounces of gold; Gijam, 80 ounces and 70 mules; Lasta, 1000 ounces; Tigré, the amount of 400 ounces in salt and cotton cloths; Walkait, 1500 ounces in cotton cloth.

Fossil salt and cloths. Fossil salt supplies the want of money. It is divided into square pieces, about a foot in length. The value of different commodities is also estimated by cotton cloths. At Massah several coins are current, which have been introduced by the considerable intercourse which this island maintains with the coast of Arabia. The Venetian sequin is equal to two and a quarter pataks; the pataka, or imperial dollar, twenty-eight harf; one harf is equal to four diwani; one diwani, to ten kibor; one kibor, to three boorjooke, or grains, which latter consist of small glass beads of all descriptions and colours, and which pass for money, whether broken or entire.

The waken or ounce is equivalent to ten derims or drachms, and twelve ounces make a litir or rotol, which may be called the Abyssinian pound. At Gondar, a waken is equal to six drachms, forty grains, troy weight, and is divided into ten drachms, of forty grains each. The ordinary value of a waken is from seventy-two to seventy-six of the salt pieces before described. The grain measure used in Abyssinia is the ardeb, which contains ten measures, called madra, each equal to twelve ounces Cairo weight. An ardeb of grain costs two derims or two pataks; an ardeb of telf the same; six or eight ardeb of focussou are equivalent to an ounce, or ten derims of gold.

Commerce. COMMERCE.—Its commerce is confined to the shores of the Arabian gulf, and its manufactures are altogether insignificant. The Abyssinians tan hides in great perfection, through the use of the plant merlombeja, a species of solanum, and the juice of the kolqual tree. Coarse cotton cloth is the staple of the country; but the only colour they have is the yellow, produced from the plant suf. In order to obtain a blue border, they unravel the threads of the blue cloth of Sursi, and weave them again into their own webs; such is their complete ignorance of the art of dyeing. Their earthenware may be considered as tolerably good.

MANNERS.—The manners of the Abyssinians are dreadfully barbarous. Continual warfare having insured them to blood from their infancy, children would not scruple killing one another, or grown-up persons, if they were able. Their cruelty is evinced even in the punishment inflicted upon criminals, one of which is flaying alive; another cutting in pieces with a sahere, which is done by officers and people of quality with the utmost deliberation and indifference. Mr. Bruce mentions a singular instance of this inhumanity. One day when passing along the streets of Gondar, he saw an officer of rank about to execute three men with his own hand, who had given some offence to the sovereign. This person requested him to stop till he had finished the business, as he wished to have some conversation with him. The aversion shown to such scenes was considered as a mark of pusillanimity.

The Abyssinians treat the brute creation with a cruelty that surpasses all other people on the face of the earth. They cut off pieces of flesh as steaks from the living animal, and eat it, not only raw, but still quivering with life; then closing up the wound, drive the poor maimed beast forward. It is called cutting the shulada, a practice, the mention of which has subjected Bruce to the imputations of romance and falsehood; but which, though at first questioned by Mr. Salt, is confirmed in his second journey. Mr. Bruce states, that when at no great distance from Axum, the capital of Tigré, he fell in with three soldiers "driving a cow: they halted at a brook, threw down the beast, and one of them cut a pretty large collop of flesh from its buttock; after which they drove the cow gently on as before." In another place he tells us, that the flesh was taken from the upper part of the buttock; that the skin was flapped over the wound, fastened with a skewer, and a cataplasm of hay put over all. This is considered as a great luxury at their feasts, a full description of one of which, by Bruce, will afford a striking illustration of Abyssinian manners. "In the capital, where one is safe from surprise at all times, or in the country or villages, when the rains are become so constant that the valleys will not bear a horse to pass them, or that men cannot venture far from home through fear of being surrounded, and swept away by temporary torrents, occasioned by sudden showers on the mountains; in a word, when a man can say he is safe at home, and the spear and shield are hung up in the hall; a number of people of the best fashion in the villages, of both sexes, courtiers in the palace, or citizens in the town, meet together to dine, between twelve and one o'clock.

"A long table is set in the middle of a large room, and benches beside it for a number of guests who are invited. Tables and benches the Portuguese introduced among them; but bull hides spread upon the ground served them before, as they do in the camp and country now. A cow or a bull, one or more, as the company is numerous, is brought close to the door, and his feet strongly tied. The skin that hangs down under his chin and throat, which I think we call the dew-lap in England, is cut only so deep as to arrive at the fat, of which it totally consists; and by the separation of a few small blood-vessels, six or seven drops of blood only fall upon the ground. They have no stone, bench, nor altar, upon which these cruel assassins lay the animal's head in this operation. I should beg his

ABYSSINIA.

Cutting the shulada.

Abyssinian feasts.

ABYSSINIA.

pardon, indeed, for calling him an assassin, as he is not so merciful as to aim at the life, but, on the contrary, to keep the beast alive till he be totally eaten up. Having satisfied the Mosaic law, according to his conception, by pouring these six or seven drops upon the ground, two or more of the sin fall to work; on the back of the beast and on each side of the spine, they cut skin-deep; then putting their fingers between the flesh and the skin, they begin to strip the hide of the animal half-way down his ribs, and so on to the buttock, cutting the skin wherever it hinders them, commodiously to strip the poor animal bare. All the flesh on the buttocks is cut off then, and in solid square pieces, without bones or much effusion of blood; and the prodigious noise the animal makes is a signal for the company to sit down to table.

"There are then laid before every guest, instead of plates, round cakes, if I may so call them, about twice as big as a pancake, and something thicker and tougher. It is unleavened bread, of a sourish taste, far from being disagreeable, and very easily digested, made of a grain called teff. It is of different colours, from black to the colour of the whitest wheat bread. Three or four of these cakes are generally put uppermost, for the food of the person opposite to whose seat they are placed. Beneath these are four or five of ordinary bread, and of a blackish kind. These serve the master to wipe his fingers upon, and afterwards the servant for bread to his dinner.

"Two or three servants then come, each with a square piece of beef in their bare hands, laying it upon the cakes of teff, placed like dishes down the table, without cloth or anything else beneath them. By this time all the guests have knives in their hands, and the men have the large crooked ones, which they put to all sorts of uses during the time of war. The women have small clasped knives; such as the worst of the kind made at Birmingham, sold for a penny each.

"The company are then rung, that one man sits between two women; the man with his long knife cuts a thin piece, which would be thought a good beef-steak in England, while you see the motion of the fibres yet perfectly distinct, and alive in the flesh. No man to Abyssinia, of any fashion whatever, feeds himself, or touches his own meat. The women take the steak, and cut it lengthways like strings, about the thickness of your little finger; then cross ways into square pieces, something smaller than dice. This they lay upon a piece of the teff bread, strongly powdered with black pepper, or Cayenne pepper and fossil salt; they then wrap it up in the teff bread like a cartridge.

"In the meantime, the man having put down his knife, with each hand resting upon his neighbour's knee, his body stooping, his head low and forward, and mouth open, very like an idiot, turns to the one whose cartridge is first ready, who stuffs the whole of it into his mouth, which is so full that he is in constant danger of being choked. This is a mark of grandeur. The greater a man would seem to be, the larger a piece he takes in his mouth; and the more noise he makes in chewing it the more polite he is thought to be. They have indeed a proverb that says, 'Beggars and thieves only eat small pieces, or without making a noise.' Having despatched this morsel, which he does very expeditiously, his next female neighbour holds forth another cartridge, which goes the same way, and

so on till he is satisfied. He never drinks till he has finished eating; and before he begins, in gratitude to the fair ones that feed him, he makes up two small rolls of the same kind and form; each of his neighbours open their mouths at the same time, while with each hand he puts their portion into their mouths. He then falls to drinking out of a large handsome horn; the ladies eat till they are satisfied, and then all drink together, '*Eure la joie et la jeunesse!*' A great deal of joke and mirth goes round, very seldom with any mixture of acrimony or ill humour.

"At this time the unfortunate victim at the door is bleeding indeed, but bleeding little. As long as they can cut off the flesh from his bones, they do not meddle with the thighs, or the parts where the great arteries are. At last they fall upon the thighs likewise; and soon after, the animal bleeding to death, becomes so tough, that the cannibals, who have the rest of it to eat, find very hard work to separate the flesh from the bones with their teeth, like dogs."

As the restraints of morality and honour have no marriage influence upon the Abyssinians, it is easy to perceive that marriage must prove but a very slender tie; indeed Mr. Bruce says, that there is no such thing, unless that which is contracted by mutual consent without any form, subsisting only till dissolved by dissent of one or other, and to be renewed as often as it is agreeable to both parties, who, when they please, cohabit together, after having been divorced and connected with others. "I remember," says he, "to have been once at Koscam, in presence of the Ittege, when in the circle there was a woman of great quality, and seven men who had all been her husbands, none of whom was the happy spouse at that time." There is no distinction of legitimate and illegitimate children; upon separation they are equally divided; the eldest son falls to the mother's first choice, and the eldest daughter to the father. If there is but one daughter, and all the rest sons, she is assigned to the father. If there is but one son, and all the rest daughters, he is the right of the mother. If the numbers are unequal after the first election, the rest are divided by lot. In a few rare instances some ceremony is used at a marriage, but the king himself only sends a message to the lady he chooses.

From some of the practices already detailed, we should be induced to believe that the Abyssinians were totally destitute of religion; or if they professed it, that it must be either a strange superstition, or a mere nominal faith. The latter is, in truth, the case; for, however barbarous their customs, and detestable their conduct, they assume the distinctive character of Christianity, which, however, is strangely distorted.

RELIGION.—The Abyssinians are said to have been converted to the Christian religion by Frumentinus, in the year 333. They are described as a branch of the Copts or Jacobites, with whom they agree in admitting but one nature in Jesus Christ, and rejecting the council of Chalcedon; on which account they are also called Eutychians and Monophysites. The term Copt properly applies only to those Christians who live in Egypt, Nubia, and the countries adjacent. The Abyssinian church is governed by a bishop or metropolitan styled Abuna, who is appointed by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria residing at Cairo. The Abuna

ABYSSINIA.

ABYSSINIA.

being a foreigner, and generally ignorant of the language and manners of the country, he is not permitted to meddle with the affairs of the government: his principal employment is the ordination of priests, deacons, and monks. Next in divinity is the Komos, or Hegumenos, a kind of arch-priest, who has the inferior priests and deacons, with the secular affairs of the parish, under his inspection. The deacons occupy the lowest rank of priesthood. They have canons also, and monks: the former of whom marry; the latter, at their admission, vow celibacy, but with a reservation, making a promise aloud before their superior to keep chastity; but adding in a low voice or whisper, 'as you keep it.' The Debararas, a set of cluniers who assist in the musical parts of the service, are, in general estimation, even more so than the Komos, though the latter be superior in rank. The emperor alone takes cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes, except a few smaller ones reserved to the judges, and confers all benefices except that of Abuna.

Monks.

The monks are divided into two classes, those of Debra Libanos, and those of St. Eustathios. They have not, properly speaking, any convents, but inhabit separate houses erected round their church. Their ignorance is extreme. The superior of the monks of Mahebar Selassie, in the north-west part of Abyssinia, is the Iteghed, who is of greater consequence in turbulent times than the Abuna. He is ordained by two chief priests holding a white cloth or veil over his head, and a third repeating a prayer; after which they lay their hands on his head, and join together in singing psalms. The churches are very numerous, owing to the prevalence of an opinion among the great, that whoever leaves a fund to build a church, or has erected one during his life, makes a sufficient atonement for all his sins. They are usually erected on eminences, in the vicinity of running water, for the purpose of affording facilities to the purifications and ablutions, which they practise according to the Levitical law. The churches are surrounded with rows of Virginia cedars, and being circular, with conical summits and thatched roofs, and encompassed on the outside with pillars of cedar, to which the roof projecting eight feet beyond the wall is fixed, furnish an agreeable walk in the hot or rainy season, and diversify the scenery. The internal partition and arrangement of the church is that prescribed by the Mosaic law; and many of the ceremonies and observances in their mode of worship are obviously derived from the ceremonial rites of the Jewish religion.

The religion of Abyssinia is, in reality, a strange compound of Judaism, Christianity, and superstition; the former appears to predominate. They practice circumcision, and extend it to both sexes. "They observe both Saturday and Sunday as Sabbaths: they eat no meats prohibited by the laws of Moses; women are obliged to the legal purifications, and brothers marry their brothers' wives. Their festivals and saints are numberless. As they celebrate the Epiphany with peculiar festivity, in commemoration of

Christ's baptism, and sport in ponds and rivers, some have supposed they undergo baptism every year. One of their saints' days is consecrated to Balaam's ass; another to Pilate and his wife, because Pilate washed his hands before he pronounced sentence on Christ, and his wife desired him to have nothing to do with the blood of that just person. They have four seasons of Lent: the great Lent commences ten days earlier than ours, and is observed with so much severity, that many abstain even from fish, because St. Paul says there is one kind of flesh of men, and another of fishes. They at least equal the church of Rome in miracles and legends of saints; which occasioned no inconsiderable embarrassment to the Jesuits, whom they presented with such accounts of miracles wrought by their saints, in proof of their religion, and those so well circumstantiated and attested, that the missionaries thought themselves obliged to deny miracles to be any evidence of the truth of a religion. Prayer for the dead is common, and invocations of saints and angels; and such is their veneration for the Virgin, that they charged the Jesuits with deficiency in this respect. Images in painting decorate their churches, and excite their reverential regard; at the same time they abhor all images in relief, except the cross. They maintain that the soul of man is not created; because, say they, God finished all his works on the sixth day. They admit the apocryphal books, and the canons of the Apostles, as well as the apostolical constitutions, to be genuine; but Solomon's Song they consider merely as a love poem in honour of Pharaoh's daughter. It is uncertain whether they believe in the doctrine of transubstantiation: Ludolph and Bruce differ on this question; but the latter affirms that they are now, with regard to doctrine, as great heretics, and with respect to morals, as corrupt as the Jesuits have represented them.

Abyssinia contains many Jews, Mahometans, and Pagans. The former have always been settled there in considerable numbers; but some of them have been proselyted to Christianity, either by coercion or from necessary motives: the rest chiefly occupy the mountainous districts, where they retain the ancient distinctions of Caraites and Talmudists. Ludolph mentions another sect, inhabiting the frontiers (l. i. c. 14.) between them and the Caffres, who dwell along the Nile, and who are supposed to descend from the captives taken by the kings of Assyria and Babylon, or from those who were dispersed over the earth by the destruction of Jerusalem. They were never incorporated with the other Jews, but have always been regarded as Salara, or strangers and exiles. Their Bible is in the corrupt Talmudic dialect. The Mahometans amount to about one-third of the inhabitants, and are intermixed with the Christians. Some of them cultivate the soil, but the most opulent are the factors, who have engrossed the trade of the Red Sea. The Pagans chiefly consist of the Gallas. Others are, besides, diffused scantily through the country.

ABYSSINIA.

ACACIA.

ABYSSINIAN CHURCH, in Ecclesiastical History, the name given to the church established in Abyssinia. See the preceding article on the Religion of the Abyssinians.

ACACALOTL, in Ornithology, the name of a bird

called by some *corvus aquaticus*, or the water raven; properly the pelicanus carbo, or cormorant; the *Tanlatul Mexicanus* of Gmelin.

ACACIA, EGYPTIAN THORN, or BINDING BRAN- TACT, in the Linnæan system of Botany, a species

ACACIA, of mimosa, of the class Polygamia, and order Monœcia. The flowers of this plant are used by the Chinese to produce that yellow which we see in their silks and stuffs, and to their painting on paper. The flowers being gathered before they are fully open, are gently heated in a clean earthen vessel, till they become dry and yellow; water is added, till there is enough to hold the flowers incorporated together. This mixture they boil till it becomes thick and yellow, when it is strained through a piece of coarse silk. Half an ounce of common alum, and an ounce of calcined oyster shells, reduced to a fine powder, is then put into the liquor. The diversity in the shades of yellow is produced by varying the proportion of acacia seeds and flowers: for the deepest yellow a small quantity of Brazil wood is required.

ACACIA, in the Materia Medica, the inspissated juice of the unripe pods of the Mimosa Nilotica of Linnaeus. The juice is brought to us from Egypt, in roundish masses, wrapped up in thin bladders. It is a mild astringent. The Egyptians use it as a remedy for spitting of blood, and it may be found in disorders arising from laxity and acrimony, in colic, for strengthening the eyes, and in gargarisms for quinseys. It is with us an ingredient in mithridate and theriaca, but is rarely met with in the shops. German Acacia, the juice of unripe seeds inspissated clearly to aerenia over a gentle fire, being substituted for it.

ACACIA FALSA; ACACIA THREE-THORNED, or Honeylocust; ACACIA INDIANA, and other species. See BOTANY, Div. II.

ACACIA, among antiquaries, something resembling a roll or bag, seen from the time of Anastasius on medals, in the hands of several consuls and emperors, to remind them of their mortality.

ACACIANS, the name of several sects of heretics, followers of Acacius, bishop of Caesarea, who flourished in the fourth century. Some of them maintained, that the Son was only a similar, not the same, substance with the Father; and others, that he was not only a distinct but a dissimilar substance.

ACAD, ACHAD, or ARCHAD, the town in which Nimrod reigned, situated in Babylonia, eastward of the Tigris.

ACADEME. Academus, an Athenian, to whose groves a sect of Grecian philosophers were accustomed to assemble. To them and their philosophy the words are still applied, and more generally to say assembly or society of persons, where learning and philosophy are the proposed objects; to universities, and schools, public and private.

But ye withdrawn from me this man, that he hath been nourished in my studies or schools of Athens, and of Academe in Greece.

Chaucer's Boece, b. i. fol. 211, c. iv.

From women's eyes this doctrine I derive,
They speak still the right promiscuous fire.
They are the books, the arts, the academes,
That show, containe, and nourish all the world:
Ere new at all in each priores excellent.

Shakespeare's *Lea's* Lear, p. 135, act iv. sc. 3.

River. Fye, fye, what things these academes are;
These book worms, how they look!

Evans. They're mere images.

No gentle motion or behaviour in 'em.

Beaumont and Fletcher's *Elder Brother*, act ii. sc. 1.

He that had only talk'd with him might find

A little academy in his mind;

Where wisdom master was, and fellows, all

Which we can good, which we can virtuous call.

Cooley's *Eclogues* on John Lisle, l. 20.

Academical study may be comprised in two points—reading and meditation.

Berkley's *Miscellaneous Philosophical*.

These academes do not refer merely to the lightness of this creature's [the sea-tortoise's] body, but to a wonderful sagacity and caution of this animal.

Ray's *Wisdom of God in the Creation*.

The muscles, whereby he is enabled to draw himself together, and gather up his whole body like a ball, the Farinian academes describe to be a distinct carter's muscle.

R.

Wide through poetic scenes the genius roves,

Or wanders wild in academe groves;

Thus initiate you poets adore,

Where Tindal decares, and Silex moves.

Pop's *Dunciad*, l. ii.

Unhappily, by too short a view of things, you have been apt to mistake the completion of your academic courses for the completion of your theologic studies.

Warburton's *Charges*.

The academes always talk of doubt and suspense of judgment, of danger in hasty determination, of confining to very narrow bounds the inquiries of the understanding, and of restricting all speculations which lie not within the limits of common life and practice.

Hume's *Essays*.

In a conference of the French Academy, one of the academicians desired to have their opinion on the conduct of Paul Veronese, who, though a painter of great consideration, had, contrary to the strict rules of art, in his picture of *Petrus and Andromeda*, represented the principal figure in shade.

See *Paris*, *Reynolds's Discourses*.

The ACADEMICS, or ACADEMISTS, were disciples of the school of Socrates and Plato. Their modern designation, since the restoration of learning, is Platonists.

The ancient academical philosophy was distinguished by a certain degree of doubt respecting the principles of knowledge; which, however, was cherished and recommended by Plato, not to undermine truth, but to promote that caution in the inquirer, which shall hold the mind in a due state of balance between implicit admission and absolute scepticism. To the latter, indeed, the previous attempts at philosophising had obviously led, by impressing the idea through their numberless and contradictory hypotheses, that truth was incomprehensible by the human mind. It was to remedy this abuse that Plato assumed the principles of the academical philosophy.

The school of Plato was divided into the Old, the Middle, and the New Academy. The former consisted of those of his disciples who taught the doctrine of their master without any mixture; of whom the principal were Speusippus, Xenocrates, Polemo, Crantor, and Crates. Upon the death of the latter, in the third century before Christ, the Middle Academy was founded by Arcesilaus of Eolia, who affirmed that though there was a certainty in the nature of things, yet everything is uncertain to the human understanding, and all confident assertions are absurd. His successors were Lycides, Evander, and Egeinus. This system was afterwards modified by Carneades, a Cyprian, who established the New Academy, and was succeeded by Clitomachus, Philo of Larissa, and Antiochus of Ascalon; after whom, in the 175th olympiad, the school was transferred to Rome. Warburton considers both the latter Academies as really the same, and essentially sceptical. (*Div. Legation*, vol. ii.)

ACA-
DEMY.

ACADEMY.

ACA-
DEMY.

THE ancient term ACADEMY is descriptive of a Garden, Villa, or Grove, in the immediate vicinity of Athens, where Plato taught, as mentioned in the preceding Article. Some have derived the name from Cadmus, who introduced letters from Phenicia into Greece, as well as the learning of Egypt; but its origin is commonly ascribed to Academus, or Ecademus, who lived in the time of Theseus, and who bequeathed it to the citizens for a Gymnasium. It was adorned by Cimon with fountains, trees, and walks, which Sylla employed in making battering engines during the siege of Athens. Hipparchus enclosed it with a wall, the cost of which was only defrayed by imposing a heavy taxation upon the people: hence, *ἱερογαστήριον* became afterwards a proverbial expression to denote any very expensive business. This delightful retirement was also used as a place of burial for illustrious men.

ACADEMY is now commonly used to signify a Society of learned men, associated for the advancement of the Arts or Sciences. Ptolemy Soter, for the encouragement and improvement of the liberal Arts in his dominions, founded an Academy at Alexandria, and provided it with a collection of books, which was the foundation of the Alexandrian Library.

Ptolemy
Soter.

Theodosius.

Theodosius the Younger established an Academy at Constantinople, and appointed Professors of every Science, with the view of making it a rival institution to that at Rome; which, with the other literary Seminaries, had been destroyed by the Goths, about the end of the IVth and beginning of the Vth centuries.

Charle-
magne.

The first Academy of which we have any account, was established by Charlemagne, at the instigation of his preceptor Alcuin. It consisted of the principal men of learning in the Court, and the Emperor was himself a Member. The language of the country was at that period in a very barbarous state, and one considerable object of the institution was to improve it, as well as to advance the interests of polite literature in general, by promoting a diligent attention to the writings of antiquity. Each Member was required to give an account of the authors he read; and at length they even assumed the names of the ancient authors with whom they were most pleased.

However honourable, and for the time useful, were the exertions of Alcuin, the institution perished at his death; and during several subsequent ages no attempts were made to advance the interests of learning. The occasional appearance of literary individuals, resembled only the meteors that dart through the midnight gloom, and after diffusing a momentary splendour, vanish for ever. There was no combination of effort, no union of mind; no association to promote or even protect knowledge: and if a happy superstition had not preserved the compositions of antiquity in the cells of the Monks, every spark of light must have been extinguished.

Greeks in
Italy.

The overthrow of the Roman Empire by the Turks, in 1453, induced several eminent Greek scholars to settle in the Western parts of Europe, particularly in Italy, where they imported vast treasures of Grecian antiquity, and were patronised by Pope Nicholas V. and by the Medicæan family. This led to the forma-

VOL. XVII.

tion of Libraries and Schools, which multiplied in every direction.

We shall arrange our account of the principal Academies according to their respective subjects.

MEDICAL. The *Academia Naturæ Curiosorum*, called also the *Leopoldine Academy*, was founded in 1632, by Jo. Laur. Bauschius, a Physician of Swinurth, in the Circle of Franconia; who, having invited other Physicians to a free communication of their cases and discoveries, was at length elected President of a new Society formed upon the general basis of such communications. The first meeting was held January 1, 1632. The contributions on given subjects proposed every six months by the President, were at first published separately; but in 1670 a resolution was adopted to publish a volume of observations every year. The first volume appeared in 1681, under the title of *Ephemerides*, which was followed, with some interruptions, by others of different titles. In 1687 the Emperor Leopold took the Society under his protection, who conferred several privileges on the Members, and elevated their Presidents to the dignity of Counts Palatine of the Holy Roman Empire. From him it took the name of *Cæsarea-Leopoldina Naturæ Curiosorum Academia*, or the *Leopoldine Academy*. This Academy had no fixed residence, or regular assemblies, but only an office, first established at Breslau, and afterwards removed to Norenberg, where all communications are sent. It consisted of a President, two Secretaries, and Councillors or Members. The Colleagues, at their admission, obliged themselves to choose some subject out of the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdom, for discussion, provided it had not been treated of by any Colleague before; and to furnish materials for the Annual *Ephemerides*. Each Member was required to bear, as a symbol of the Academy, a gold ring, on which was a book open, with an eye on the front. The opposite side had the motto of the Academy, *Nunquam otiosus*. See *Buchner Hist. Acad. Naturæ Curiosorum*, Hal. 1736. Other Academies of the same name were established on the continent, namely, at Palermo, in 1645; in Spain, in 1652; at Venice, in 1701; and at Geneva, in 1715.

CHIRURGICAL. The *Royal Academy of Surgeons* was instituted at Paris in 1731, the Members of which are not only to publish their own observations, improvements, and discoveries, but to communicate all that is written on Surgery, with the view of furnishing a complete history of the Art. A question in Surgery is annually proposed, and a gold medal, of five hundred livres value, given for the best answer.

The *Academy of Surgery* at Vienna was instituted by Francis II. in 1783, and placed under the direction of Brambilla. At first there were only two Professors, to whose instruction were committed 130 young men, 30 of whom had formerly been Surgeons in the army; but the number both of the teachers and pupils has been considerably increased. Adjacent to the building is a good botanical garden. The Emperor has provided a large and splendid edifice in Vienna, which affords accommodation to the teachers, the students, pregnant women, patients for clinical lectures, and servants. He also bestowed upon this Academy a medical

ACA-
DEMY.

Medical
Acad. Nat.
Curiosorum,
see Leop.
Acad.

Chirurgica
Acad. at
Paris.

Academy at
Vienna.

ACADEMY.

library, which is always open; a complete set of surgical instruments; an apparatus for experiments in natural philosophy; a collection of specimens in natural history; a variety of anatomical and pathological preparations; preparations in wax, brought from Florence; and many other useful articles. In this institution three prize medals, of the value of 40 florins each, are to be annually betowed on those students who return the best answer to questions proposed during the previous year. These prizes are in part owing to the liberality of Brendelins, the Protophurgus at Vienna, and are annually published.

Ecclesiastical.

ECCLESIASTICAL. An Academy of this description was instituted at Bologna, in Italy, in 1687, for the purpose of examining into the doctrine, discipline, and history, of each age of the church.

Cosmographical.

COSMOGRAPHICAL. About the commencement of the XVIIIth century a Cosmographical Academy was instituted at Venice, called the *Argonauta*, at the instigation of Vincent Cornelli, for the advancement of Geography; the device of which is the terraqueous globe, with the motto *plus ultra*. The publication of correct maps, both celestial and terrestrial, together with geographical, historical, and astronomical descriptions, constitutes the principal design. Each Member of the *Academia Cosmographica*, in order to defray the expense, subscribes a proportional sum, for which they are to receive one or more copies of each piece. For this purpose, three Societies are settled; one under F. Moro, Provincial of the Minorites in Hungary; another under the Abbot Laurence au Ray Payenne au Marais; the third under F. Baldigiani, Jesuit Professor of Mathematics in the Roman College. All the globes, maps, and geographical writings of Cornelli, have been published at the expense of the Academy.

Scientific Acad. Secret. Nat.

SCIENTIFIC. About the year 1560, the Academy called *Academia Secretorum Naturæ* was instituted at Naples, in the house of Baptista Porta; the design of which was to advance the knowledge of Mathematical and Physical Science. The Church of Rome, however, apprehensive that the diffusion of light would prove unfavourable to its Ecclesiastical pretensions, or at least persuaded that it was altogether unnecessary, soon laid an effectual interdict upon an association which was becoming exceedingly prosperous.

Acad. Lyn.

It was succeeded by the *Academia Lyncei*, established at Rome, by Prince Frederic Cesi, about the close of the same century, for the similar purpose of promoting Natural Philosophy. This Academy became illustrious in consequence of several of its Members, who were discoverers in Science; among whom may be noticed, in particular, the celebrated Galileo. Other institutions of a similar description arose almost contemporaneously, but none equalled the *Academia Lyncei*; and though they were in some degree useful, it was less by the induction of facts through the investigations of experiment, than by the less valuable and too often ill-founded plausibilities of speculation.

Acad. dei Cimento.

The *Academia dei Cimento* arose at the commencement of the XVIIIth century, under the protection of Prince Leopold, afterwards Cardinal de Medici. Among its chief Members were Paul de Buono, who in 1637 invented an instrument to show the incompressibility of water, consisting of a globular shell of gold; Alphonso Borelli, who wrote *De Motu Animalium*; Vincent Viviani, Francis Redi, and Count Laurence Magalotti;

the latter of whom published a curious work in 1687, under the title of *Saggi di Naturali Esperienze*, which appeared in an English translation by Mr. Waller, in 1684.

ACADEMY.

The *Academy degli Inquieti* at Bologna, incorporated afterwards into that of Della Tracina, produced some admirable discourses, which were published by Geminiano Montanari, in 1667, under the title of *Pravieri Fisico-Matematici*. This Academy met in the house of Eustachio Manfredi, in 1690, who is by some represented as the founder. He and his associates assumed the planetary system as their armorial badge, surrounded by a serpent with the tail in its mouth; the motto was *mens agitat*, whence they derived the name of *Inquieti*. In 1704 the institution was new modelled by J. B. Morgagni, with the assistance of E. Manfredi and Stenmeus, whose efforts were principally directed to the abolition of the scholastic methods of speculating, and the substitution of another and more successful mode of philosophising. In 1714 it was united with the Bononiam Institute, which has been richly endowed by the Popes, and was under Senatorial protection. The Director now acquired the title of President, and the School itself that of *Academy of the Institute*. From the patronage of Clement XI. it was afterwards generally termed *Academia Clementina*. It is a singular feature of this institution, that several Idies were not only admitted as Members, but elevated to the dignity of Professorships, among whom were Anna Manzolini, Professor of Anatomy; and Laura Bassi, celebrated for her knowledge of the abstruse Sciences, of whom an account is given in the VIth Volume of the *Commentarii Bononienses*. The building of the Academy comprises 40 apartments, besides halls underneath: the Library consists of 120,000 volumes, independently of an apartment filled with valuable manuscripts. The Cabinet of Natural History is remarkably fine.

In 1540 an Academy called *La Societa Scientifica* was instituted at Rossano, *Rossano*.

Rossanense degli Incerti was established at Rossano, in the Kingdom of Naples. Originally it was an Academy of Belles Lettres, but was made an Academy of Sciences in 1693, at the instance of the Abbot Don Giacinto Gimma; who, as President, under the title of Promoter-General, introduced a new set of regulations, by which he divided the Members into Grammaticians, Rhetoricians, Poets, Historians, Philosophers, Physicians, Mathematicians, Lawyers, and Divines, with a class apart for Cardinals and persons of quality. The Members are not allowed to assume the title of Academists, without a written permission from their President, which is not granted till the proposed publication has been sanctioned by the Censors of the Academy. The permission is considered as the greatest honour the Academy can confer, as the Institution, by their adopting it, becomes responsible for its contents. To this law the President is himself subject. No Academist is permitted to publish against the writings of another without leave from the Society.

Italy has always been the nursery of Academical Institutions, which have diffused a refinement over the general taste of that country, for which it has been highly celebrated. A mere catalogue of these Institutions, which Jarckius reckons at the number of 350, of which he gives the history of 25 in the city of Milan, would occupy many pages. Many have become extinct from being unsupported by the Princes; others have acquired lasting fame and stability—among which may

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be enumerated the Academy of Filarmonici at Verona, supported by the Marquis Scipio Muffei, to whose memory a marble statue is erected over the entrance of the Palace; the Academy of Rivaltrai at Padua; the Academy of the Muti de Reggio, at Modena. In the two latter, Sig. Vallinieri distinguished himself by learned and ingenious dissertation.

French
Academy.

F. Mersenne is said to have given the first idea of a Philosophical Academy in France, about the beginning of the XVIIth century, by the conferences of Naturalists and Mathematicians held occasionally at his lodgings; at which Gassendi, Des Cartes, Hobbes, Roberval, Pascal, Bondel, and others, assisted. Mersenne proposed problems for examination, or experiments for trial. These assemblies were soon succeeded by others more public, under the direction of M. Montmort and M. Thevetot the traveller. The example set by the French stimulated their neighbours the English, who determined on the establishment of a Philosophical Academy in Oxford, at the close of Oliver Cromwell's administration; which, after the Restoration, was erected into a Royal Society. The zeal of England, in its turn, animated the French; and Louis XIV. in 1666, assisted by the counsels of his Minister, M. Colbert, founded an Academy of Sciences at Paris, with a sufficient revenue to defray the charge of experiments and salaries to the Members.

Happy had it been for the Interests of humanity as well as of Science, had this principle of rivalry never exceeded the legitimate boundary of scientific and philosophical investigation; and if each had been always envious of bearing into the remotest wilds of ignorance the torch of Science, instead of unsheathing and striking into the heart of civilized society the sword of War!

Royal Academy of
Sciences.

The *Royal Academy of Sciences*, (for such was the name it assumed,) was founded, as we have said, in 1666 by Louis XIV., who having obtained some leisure by the peace of the Pyrenees, directed M. Colbert to form a Society of men of known ability and Science, to associate under the royal protection, and communicate their respective discoveries. Accordingly, the Minister having conferred with persons most conversant in Natural Philosophy and Mathematics, History and the Belles Lettres, formed them into the proposed Society. The Mathematicians and Philosophers met on Tuesdays and Saturdays, in a great hall of the King's Library, which contained the requisite books; the learned in History assembled on Mondays and Thursdays, in the hall where the historical works were collected; and the class of Belles Lettres held their meetings on Wednesdays and Fridays. On the first Thursday of every month all the different classes met together, and made a report of their proceedings.

The classes of History and Belles Lettres were soon disjoined from the rest, and united to the French Academy, whose particular object was the improvement of the language; so that the Royal Academy contained only two classes, viz. that of Natural Philosophy and Mathematics.

In 1699, at the suggestion of the President, Abbé Bignon, the King, by a proclamation dated the 26th of January, appointed a new set of regulations, dividing its Members into four kinds, viz. Honorary, Pensionary, Associates, and Elèves. The first class con-

tained 10 persons, and each of the rest 20. The Honorary Academists were to be all inhabitants of France; the Pensionaries all to reside at Paris; eight of the Associates allowed to be foreigners; and the Elèves all to live at Paris. The Officers to be, a President named by the King, out of the class of Honorary Academists; and a Secretary and Treasurer, to be perpetual. Of the Pensionaries, or those who receive salaries from the King, three to be Geometricians, three Astronomers, three Mechanics, three Anatomists, three Chemists, three Botanists, and the remaining two to be Secretary and Treasurer. Of the 12 Associates, two to apply themselves to Geometry, two to Botany, and two to Chemistry. The Elèves, or Pupils, one of whom was attached to each of the Pensionaries, were to apply themselves to the same kind of Science with the Pensionaries with whom they were connected, and not to speak, except when called by the President. No regular, or religious, to be admitted, excepting into the class of Honorary Academists; nor any person to be admitted, either for Associate or Pensionary, unless known by some considerable printed work, some machine, or other discovery. The assemblies were generally held on Wednesdays and Saturdays. To incite to diligence and investigation, the King engaged, in addition to the ordinary pensions, to give extraordinary bounties for the most meritorious performances; and to defray all the expense of the necessary experiments. The motto of the Institution was, *Invent et perfice*.

During his regency, the Duke of Orleans in 1716 augmented the number of Honoraries and of Associates, capable of being foreigners, to 12; admitted regulars among such Associates; and suppressed the class of Elèves, as calculated to create too great an inequality among the Academists, and productive of misunderstandings and animosities. He originated, at the same time, two other classes; one consisting of 12 Adjoints, who, as well as the Associates, were allowed a deliberative voice in matters relative to Science; and the other six free Associates, who were not attached to any particular Science, nor obliged to pursue any particular work. A Vice-President was also hereafter to be chosen annually by the King, out of the Honorary Members; and a Director and Sub-Director out of the Pensionaries. Other changes were introduced in the year 1755, when the King added classes of Natural History, Agriculture, Mineralogy, and Physics; and incorporated the Associates and Adjoints, limiting the Members of each class to six, three Pensionaries and three Associates; besides a perpetual Secretary and Treasurer, twelve free Associates, and eight Associate Foreigners. By this arrangement the Academy consisted of eight classes; Geometry, Astronomy, Mechanics, Physics, Anatomy, Chemistry and Metallurgy, Botany and Agriculture, Natural History and Mineralogy.

This Academy has been extremely useful, by repeatedly sending out persons to make scientific observations; and particularly in computing the meridian. Since its reestablishment in 1699, this Academy has published every year, with a few recent exceptions, a volume of the Memoirs which have been presented during the course of that year. To each volume is prefixed the history of the Academy, or an extract of the Memoirs, together with the eulogiums on such

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Academists as have died within the year, and other Academical transactions. M. Rouille de Meslay, Counsellor to the Parliament of Paris, founded two prizes, one of 2500, and the other 2000 livres, which were alternately distributed by the Parliament every year: the subject for the first, related to Physical Astronomy, the latter to Navigation and Commerce.

The History of this Academy in the year 1697 was written by Du Hamel, and continued afterwards by Fontenelle under the following titles: Du Hamel, *Historia Regia Academiae Scientiarum. Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences, avec les Mémoires de Mathématique et de Physique, tirés des Registres de l'Académie. Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences, depuis son Etablissement en 1666, jusqu'en 1699.* en 13 tomes, 4to. A new History has been written to the period when Fontenelle commences, with a series of works published in the name of the Academy.

National
Institute.

In 1793 the Academy was abolished by a decree of the Convention, as being a Royal establishment, and a new one formed, bearing the name of the *National Institute*. The Memoirs up to this period are contained in 139 volumes, in quarto.

Academies of considerable importance are also established in most of the principal cities of France;—as the Academy at Caen, formed by Letters Patent in 1705: the *Académie des Jeux Floraux*, at Toulouse, consisting of 40 Members, and one of the most ancient in the Kingdom: the *Royal Academy of Sciences and Polite Literature*, at Toulouse, whose first volume of transactions appeared in 1782. The Academy at Rouen, established in 1736; at Bordeaux, in 1703; at Soissons, in 1674; at Marseilles, in 1726; at Lyons, in 1700; at Montauban, in 1714; at Amiens, in 1750; at Dijon, in 1740: where in a handsome saloon are placed the busts of eminent men produced by the city, as Bossuet, Fevret, De Brogues, Crebillon, Piron, and Buffon, &c. &c.

Royal Acad.
at Berlin.

The *Royal Academy of Sciences* at Berlin originated in Frederic II. King of Prussia; who in 1700 modelled it after that of England; with the addition of the Belles Lettres. Alterations were afterwards introduced in 1710, particularly with regard to the President, who was made one of the Counsellors of State, and nominated by the King. The Members were divided into four classes; the first comprehending the pursuit of Physics, Medicine, and Chemistry; the second, Mathematics, Astronomy, and Mechanics; the third, the German History and Language; the fourth, Oriental Learning, with a view to the propagation of the Gospel among Infidels. Each class was to elect a Director, to be chosen for life. The Members of any of the classes to have free admission into the assemblies of all the others. The illustrious Leibnitz, the chief promoter of the institution, was the first Director. During some years the Royal favor did not shew upon them with any very ardent or benignant brightness; but at last, in 1743, Frederic III. King of Prussia, by inviting to Berlin the most distinguished foreign literati, by inciting his subjects to the cultivation of the Sciences, by distributing among them ample rewards, by conferring the honour of Presidency upon M. Maupertius, and taking upon himself the care of regulating the Academy, while he assumed the title of its Protector, inspired it with vigour, and raised it to eminence.

Two public assemblies are held annually; one in January, on the late King's birth-day, and the other in May, on the day of his accession to the throne. At the latter, a gold medal of 50 ducats value is given as a prize: the subjects are successively Natural Philosophy, Mathematics, Metaphysics, and Erudition. Since this period, the transactions of the Academy have been published in a number of volumes, under the title of *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences et Belles Lettres à Berlin*. A full account may be found in a work entitled *Histoire de l'Académie Royale des Sciences et Belles Lettres à Berlin*.

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Several new regulations were introduced by the King in 1788; as the appointment of a Directory, consisting of four to manage the funds, with a President, and two Members, to be chosen from among men of business. The Academy had the power of nomination, while the King retained the right of confirming or rejecting the choice. The Public Library at Berlin, with the Cabinet of Curiosities, was united to the Academy. These regulations were intended to liberalize the views of the Academy, and to promote the general improvement of the Arts among the people.

The *Imperial Academy of Sciences* at Petersburg was projected by Peter the Great: who, during his travels at Petersburg, in 1717, having noticed the advantages resulting from the establishment of Literary Institutions, formed the design of forming an Academy of Sciences in his own capital. Wolf and Leibnitz were consulted on this occasion; the plan of the Society arranged, and several learned foreigners were invited to become Members: but the death of the Czar prevented its immediate execution. His successor, Catherine I., who fully entered into the magnificent views of Peter, completed his arrangement in the month of December, 1725, when the first meeting was held in the presence of the Duke of Holstein, and many distinguished personages. On the first of August following, Catharine herself attended the meeting, when Bolfinger, the German Naturalist, delivered an oration on the advantages derived from the loadstone and the needle for the discovery of the longitude.

The Empress appropriated a fund of £4982. per annum to the support of the Academy; and 15 Members, eminent for learning and talents, were admitted and pensioned, under the title of Professors, in the different branches of Literature and Science. Of these the most distinguished were Nicholas and Daniel Bernoulli, the two De Lisle, Bulfinger, and Wolf. Peter II. withheld his patronage from the Academy, and even stopped the salaries of the Members. It was of course neglected by the Court, and languished for want of patronage; but it revived under the Empress Anne, being for some time directed by Baron Korf; but upon his death, an ignorant person being appointed President, many of the most able Members quitted the Kingdom. A second revival took place upon the accession of Elizabeth: the original plan was enlarged and improved; some of the most learned foreigners were induced to return to Petersburg; and two natives of genius and abilities, who had prosecuted their studies in foreign Universities, Lomonosoff and Rumovsky, were enrolled among its Members. These auspicious circumstances were regarded with the highest satisfaction by literary men, who anticipated

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the diffusion of light over the wide spreading domains of a barbarous Empire.

In 1758 an Academy of Arts was added, but in 1764 separated again by Catherine II. This Empress took the Academy under her immediate protection; corrected many of its abuses, and infused new vigour into every department. At her recommendation, men of eminence visited the various provinces of her dominions, for the purpose of obtaining information; and as the funds of the Academy were insufficient to defray the expense necessarily incurred by these expeditions, she contributed £2000; to be renewed whenever it might be requisite. The annual income was now increased to £10,659.

These literary travellers were ordered to pursue their inquiries concerning the different sorts of earths and waters; the best methods of cultivating the barren and desert spots; the local disorders incident to men and animals, and the best means of affording them relief; the breeding of cattle, particularly of sheep; the rearing of bees and silk-worms; the places proper for fishing and hunting; the different minerals; the various plants, with a view of forming a *Flora Russica*, or collection of indigenous plants; the Arts and trades. They were also instructed to rectify the longitude and latitude of the principal towns; to make astronomical, geographical, and meteorological observations; to trace the course of rivers; to take the most exact charts; and accurately to remark the manners and customs of the different nations, their dress, language, antiquities, traditions, history, religion; with whatever other information might conduce to the illustration of the real state of the Russian Empire. These expeditions, undertaken by Pallas, Gmelin, Stollberg, Guldensmidt, and other men of eminence, have produced, as might have been expected, a number of excellent publications on the internal state of the country, and have rendered the Academy truly illustrious.

The Academy is composed of 15 Professors, besides the President and Director. Each Professor has a house, and an annual stipend from £200, to £600. There are four Adjuncts, who are pensioned, attend the sittings of the Society, and succeed to the first vacancies. The meetings are held twice a week, and public assemblies thrice in a year.

The building and apparatus belonging to this Academy are extraordinary. It has a fine Library, consisting of 36,000 curious books and manuscripts; and an extensive Museum, in which the various branches of natural history are distributed in different apartments: it is rich in native productions, owing to the variety of specimens collected by the learned Professors before mentioned, during their expeditions through the Empire. The chamber of rarities and the cabinet of coins contain articles of extreme rarity and value. The Society has this modest motto, *Peculatum*.

The Transactions of this Society were first published in 1729, and entitled *Commentarii Academiae Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitane*, ad an. 1726, with a dedication to Peter II. The publication was continued under this form until the year 1747, when its Transactions were called *Novi Commentarii Academicæ*, &c. In 1777 the Academy again changed the title into *Acta Academiae Scientiarum Imperialis Petropolitane*, and made some alteration in the arrangement and plan of the work. The papers, which had been hitherto published in the

Latia tongue, are now written either in that language or French; and a preface is added, styled *Partie Historique*, which contains an account of its proceedings, meetings, admission of new Members, and other remarkable occurrences. Of the Commentaries, 14 volumes were published; the first of the new Commentaries made its appearance in 1750, and the twentieth in 1776. Under the new title of *Acta Academiae* many volumes have been given to the public, and two are printed every year.

The Academy was for several years torn by dissensions, owing to the misconduct of some of the Directors: but it was new modelled by an edict of the Empress; and its suspended publications resumed in a new series, called *Nova Acta*, &c.

The Academy of Sciences at Bologna, called the *Bolognese Institute of Bologna*, was founded by Count Maravigli, in 1712, for the cultivating of Physics, Mathematics, Medicine, Chemistry, and Natural History. Its History is written by M. de Linniers, from memoirs furnished by the founder himself. The Academy founded by Clement XI., a short time previously, was incorporated with this; and the city, for its encouragement, purchased, and appropriated to its use, the Palazzo Cesari. It has the following inscription at the entrance, *Bononiense Scientiarum et Artium Institutum, ad publicum totius orbis usum*.

The Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, or Swedish Royal Academy, originated in six persons of Royal distinguished learning, among whom was the celebrated Linnaeus; who first met on the 2nd of June, 1739, and formed a private Society. In the latter end of the same year their first publication made its appearance. This Society soon attracted public notice; and on the 31st of March, 1741, was incorporated by the King, under the name of the *Royal Swedish Academy*. It receives, however, no pension from the Crown, and is directed by its own Members. Although its fund is large, owing to various legacies and other donations, a Professor of Experimental Philosophy, and two Secretaries, are the only persons who receive any salaries. Each of the Members resident at Stockholm becomes President by rotation, and continues in office three months. There are two species of Members, native and foreign: the election of the former is held in April, and of the latter in July: no money is paid at the time of admission. The dissertations read at each meeting are collected and published four times in the year; they are written in the Swedish language, and printed annually in an octavo volume. The first 40 volumes, which were finished in 1779, are called the *Old Transactions*; in the following year, the title was changed into that of *New Transactions*. The papers relating to Agriculture are published separately, under the title of *Economica Acta*. Annual premiums, in money and gold medals, principally for the encouragement of Agriculture and Inland Trade, are also distributed by the Academy. The fund for these prizes is supplied from private donations.

In 1799 the Academy was divided into seven classes, viz. 1. *General and Rural Economy*, containing 15 Members. 2. *Commerce and the Mechanical Arts*, containing 15 Members. 3. *Exterior Physics and Natural History*, containing 15 Members. 4. *Interior Physics and Natural Philosophy*, containing 15 Members. 5. *Mathematics*, containing 18 Members.

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6. *Medicine*, containing 15 Members. 7. *Belles Lettres, History, Languages*, containing 12 Members. In 1800 the funds amounted to £400, derived from the exclusive sale of Almanacs.

The *Royal Academy of Sciences* at Copenhagen owes its institution, like the Swedish Academy, to the zeal of six literati, whom Christian VI., in 1744, ordered to arrange his cabinet of medals; and who, meeting occasionally, enlarged their plan by degrees, and consolidated it at length into a regular institution. One of the six was Pontoppidan, the author of the Natural History of Norway. The Count of Holstein was the first President. Christian VI., in 1743, at the instigation of the Count, took the Academy under his protection, endowed it with a fund, and ordered the Members to join to their former pursuits, Natural History, Physics, and Mathematics. This inspired the Members with fresh zeal; and the Academy has published 15 volumes in the Danish language, some of which have been translated into Latin.

The *American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, although it had been in contemplation previous to the commencement of the American war, was not established till the beginning of the year 1780; when the Council and House of Representatives in the province of Massachusetts Bay, having applied to the Legislature, obtained its sanction to the measure, with ample privileges. Its design was, avowedly, to promote the knowledge of the Antiquities and Natural History of the country; to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to encourage medicinal discoveries, mathematical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and experiments, astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations, and improvements in Agriculture, Manufactures, and Commerce; and to cultivate every Art and Science which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness of a free, independent, and virtuous people. The Members of this Academy are never to be more than 200, nor less than 40. The first volume of the Transactions was published at Boston in 1785.

The *Royal Irish Academy* arose, about the year 1782, out of a Society established at Dublin, consisting of a number of gentlemen, most of whom belonged to the University; and held weekly meetings for the purpose of reading essays on various subjects in rotation. Solicitous of promoting the interests of Literature and the honour of their country, these gentlemen afterwards formed a more extensive plan, and admitting only such names as might add dignity to their new Institution, became the founders of the *Royal Irish Academy*, which professes to unite the advancement of the Arts and Sciences with Polite Literature and the knowledge of Antiquities. The papers relating to Polite Literature have been more numerous than those of any other Academy not entirely of a literary nature. The first volume of their Transactions for 1787 appeared in 1788, and volumes have been since published in regular succession.

It should here be stated, that a Society was formed in Dublin, similar to the Royal Society in London, so early as the year 1693; but the state of the country being unfavourable to the cultivation of Philosophy and Literature, it declined. About the beginning of the present century the plan was resumed, and the Earl of Pembroke, then Lord Lieutenant, was President of a

Philosophical Society established in Dublin College. In the year 1740 a Physico-Historical Society was instituted; of which two volumes of Minutes are extant; but this Society soon perished.

ACADEMIES, or SCHOOLS of ARTS. Under this denomination must be included the Academy at Petersburg, established by the Empress Elizabeth, at the suggestion of Count Shuvalov, and annexed to the Academy of Sciences: the fund was £4000. per annum, and the foundation for 40 Scholars. Her successor formed it into a separate institution, enlarged the annual revenue to £12,000., and augmented the number of Scholars to 300: she also constructed, for the use and accommodation of the Members, a large circular building, which fronts the Neva. The Scholars are admitted at the age of six, and continue until they have attained that of 16; they are instructed in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, the French and German Languages, and Drawing; and are supported at the expense of the Crown. At the age of 14 they are at liberty to choose any of the following Arts, divided into four classes: 1. Painting in all its branches, of history, portraits, battles, and landscapes; Architecture; Mosaic; Enamelling, &c. 2. Engraving on copper-plates, seal-cutting, &c. 3. Carving on wood, ivory, and amber. 4. Watch-making, turning, instrument-making, casting statues in bronze and other metals, imitating gems and medals in paste and other compositions, gilding, and varnishing. Prizes are annually distributed to those who excel in any particular art; and from those who have obtained four prizes, 12 are selected, who are sent abroad at the charge of the Empress. A certain sum is paid to defray their travelling expenses; and when they are settled in any town, they receive an annual salary of £50., which is continued during four years. There is a small assortment of paintings for the use of the Scholars; and those who have made great progress are permitted to copy the pictures in the Empress's collection. For the purpose of design, there are models in plaster of the best antique statues in Italy, all done at Rome, of the same size with the originals, which the artists of the Academy were employed to cast in bronze.

The *Royal Academy of Arts* in London was instituted in 1768, for the encouragement of Designing, Painting, Sculpture, &c. &c. The King is Patron, and the Academy is under the direction of 40 Artists of the first rank in their several professions, who paint from living models of different characters. Nine of the ablest Academicians are annually elected out of the 40, to attend by rotation, to set the figures, to examine the performance of the Students, and to give the necessary instructions. There are separate Professors of Painting, of Architecture, of Anatomy, and of Perspective, who annually read public Lectures on the subject of their respective departments; besides a President, a Council, and other officers. The Academy is open to all Students desirous of cultivating the studies to which it is devoted. There is an annual exhibition of Painting, Sculpture, and Design, which have often great merit.

The *Academy of Painting and Sculpture* at Paris. This institution commenced at a very distant period. In the XIVth century we find the *Academy of St. Luke* at Paris, which in 1430 received many privileges from Charles VII.; these were confirmed by Henry III. in 1564; after which it became united to the Society

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of Sculptors, who met near St. Denis; but having fallen into decay, in consequence of disputes between the Painters and Sculptors, it was revived by M. le Brun, Sarazin, Cornelle, and others of the King's Painters, who having presented a petition to the King, obtained an *arrêt*, dated January 20, 1648. In the beginning of 1655 they obtained from Cardinal Mazarine a brevet and letters patent, which were registered in Parliament; in gratitude for which favour, they chose the Cardinal for their Protector, and the Chancellor for their Vice-Protector. In 1668, by means of M. Colbert, they obtained a pension of 4000 livres. The Academy consisted of a Protector, a Vice-Protector, a Director, a Chancellor, four Rectors, Adjuncts to the Rectors, a Treasurer, four Professors, one of which was Professor of Anatomy, and another of Geometry; several Adjuncts and Counsellors, a Historiographer, a Secretary, and two Ushers.

There were 19 Professors, each of whom kept the School for a month; and 12 Adjuncts to supply them in case of need. The Academists drew after the model of a naked man, whom the Professor in attendance set in two different attitudes every week. This was called *Setting the model*. In one week of the month, he placed two models together, which was called *Setting the group*. The paintings and models made after this standard were called *Academics*, or *Academy figures*. They had likewise a woman who stood for a model in the public School. Three prizes for Design were distributed among the Elèves or Scholars every three months; two others for Painting, and two for Sculpture, every year.

There was also an Academy of Painting, Sculpture, &c. at Rome, established by Louis XIV., in which those who had gained the annual prize at Paris were entitled to support for three years at the King's expense, with a view to their further improvement.

Academy of Ancient Music.

The *Academy of Ancient Music* was instituted at London in 1710, by several persons of distinction, and other gentlemen, who united with the most eminent performers of the time, in order to promote the study and practice of vocal and instrumental harmony. A Library was attached to this Institution, consisting of the best foreign and domestic compositions, both in manuscript and print. The Gentlemen of the Chapel Royal, and the Choir of St. Paul's, with the boys belonging to each, contributed their aid to promote the general object of the Society. In 1731 a charge of plagiarism brought against Bononcini, a Member of the Academy, threatened the existence of the Institution. Dr. Green, who took part with Bononcini, withdrew from the Society, taking with him the boys of St. Paul's. In 1734 Mr. Gates, another Member of the Society, and Master of the Children of the Royal Chapel, retired in disgust. From this period it became a Seminary for the instruction of youth in the principles of Music. The activity of Dr. Pepusch, one of the founders, was of great use in accomplishing this measure; and by the expedients of educating boys for their purpose, and admitting Auditor Members, the Academy continued to subsist.

Royal Academy of Music.

The *Royal Academy of Music* at London originated in the principal Nobility and Gentry of the Kingdom, uniting to promote the performance of Operas composed by Handel, and conducted by him at the Theatre in the Haymarket. This Institution attracted an extraordinary

degree of public attention, and flourished on: the subscription amounted to £30,000. The King, besides subscribing £1000., allowed the Society to assume the title of Royal Academy, consisting of a Governor, Deputy-Governor, and 20 Directors. A contest between Handel and Senesino, one of the performers, in which the Directors favoured the latter, occasioned its dissolution at the end of rather more than nine years.

The *Academy of Architecture* at Paris, established by M. Colbert, in 1671, consisted of a company of skilful Architects, under the direction of the Superintendent of the buildings.

The *Academy of Dancing* at Paris was erected by Louis XIV. with privileges above all the rest.

ACADEMIES OF LAW. There is a celebrated one at Beryta, and another of the *Stientes* at Bologna.

ACADEMIES OF HISTORY. The *Royal Academy of Portuguese History* at Lisbon was instituted by King John V. in 1720. It consists of a Director, four Censors, a Secretary, and 50 Members; each of whom is required to discuss, in Latin or Portuguese, some part of the Ecclesiastical or Civil History of the nation. In the account of each Diocese of the Church, the Prelates, Synods, Councils, Churches, Monasteries, Academies, persons illustrious for sanctity or learning, places famous for miracles or relics, must be distinctly related in 12 chapters. The Civil History of the Kingdom comprises the Government of the Romans to the present time. The Members who reside in the country are obliged to make collections and extracts out of all the registers, &c. where they live. Their meetings to be once in 15 days.

This Academy struck a medal in honour of their Prince: the front of which had his effigy, with the inscription *Johannes P. Lusitanorum Rex*; and on the reverse, he was represented standing, and raising up History almost prostrate before him, with the legend *Historia Revivens*. Underneath are the following words in abbreviation: *REGIA ACADEMIA HISTORIÆ LUSITANÆ, INSTITUTA VI. Idus Decembris MDCCCXX.*

The *Academy of Svanian History* at Tübingen was established for the purpose of publishing the best Historical writings, and the lives of the chief Historians, and for compiling new Memoirs.

ACADEMIES OF ANTIQUITIES. One has been formed at Cortona, in Italy, which is designed for the study of *Hetrurian Antiquities*; another at Upsal, in Sweden, for illustrating the Northern Languages, and the Antiquities of Sweden, which have received very important illustrations by its labours. The head of the Hetrurian Academy is called *Lucomon*, by which the ancient Governors of the country were distinguished.

Under the pontificate of Paul II., in the XVth century, an attempt was made in Rome to establish an Academy for Antiquities; but the persecuting spirit of the Pope rendered it abortive. Leo X. resumed and executed the plan; but, though the Academy flourished for a considerable period, it gradually decayed; others, however, of inferior importance, sprung from its ashes.

The *Academy of Inscriptions and Medals* at Paris was begun by M. Colbert, under the patronage of Louis XIV. in 1663, for the study of ancient monuments, and for perpetuating memorable events, especially those of

Academy of Inscriptions.

Academies of Law.

Academies of History.

Svanian History at Tübingen.

Academies of Antiquities.

Academy of Inscriptions at Paris.

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the French Monarchy, by Coins, Reliefs, Inscriptions, &c. The number of Members at first was confined to four, chosen out of those of the French Academy; who assembled in M. Colbert's library, generally on Wednesdays; but in 1691 the King having given the inspection of this Academy to M. de Pouchtrain, Comptroller-General, &c. he fixed their meetings on Tuesdays and Saturdays. From the paucity of its Members, it at first acquired the name of *Petite Académie*, but at length it was called *Académie Royale des Inscriptions et Mémoires*.

By a regulation of the 16th of July, 1701, the Academy was composed of 10 honorary Members; 10 Associates, each of whom had two declarative voices; 10 Pensionaries; and 10 Elèves, or Pupils; who met every Tuesday and Wednesday in the Louvre. Two public meetings were held yearly, the day after Elèves' and the 10th after Easter. The class of Elèves was suppressed, and united to the Associates. The King annually nominated their President and Vice-President; but the Secretary and Treasurer were perpetual. The Members themselves made the other elections.

A connected History of the principal events of the reign of Louis XIV., by means of Medals, was one of the earliest considerable attempts of this Institution; but various difficulties impeded the progress of this design for many years, till at length it was completed as far as the period of the Duke of Anjou's elevation to the Crown of Spain.

The Academy itself was of course introduced into this History, and one of the medals represents Mercury sitting, and writing with an antique sty' upon a table of brass; he leans with his left hand upon an urn full of medals, and at his feet are several others placed upon a card: the legend, *Hærum gratiam fides*; and on the exergue, *Academia regia inscriptionum et numismatum, instituta MDCLXIII.*, intimating that the Royal Academy of Medals and Inscriptions, founded in 1663, ought to give a faithful testimony of great actions to future ages.

The Memoirs of the Academy are published to several volumes. The motto is *Fæta mori*.

Academies
of Belles
Lettres,
French at
Florence.

ACADEMIES OF BELLES LETTRES. The Academy of *Umbidi* at Florence, afterwards called *Academia la Fiorentina*, or the Florentine Academy, was instituted in 1549, with the Grand Duke Cosmo I. for its Protector. It has given many excellent Italian translations of the ancient Greek and Latin Historians. It has paid peculiar attention to Italian Poetry: its Members have included most of the eminent men of Italy.

Humorists.

The Academy of *Humorists* originated at Rome at the marriage of Lorenzo Marini. On this occasion many persons of distinction were present, who to furnish some diversion, it being the time of the Carnival, recited verses, sonnets, and speeches; at first extemporaneously, and afterwards by premeditation; which gave them the denomination of *Belli Humeri*. At length they resolved upon the formation of an Academy of Belles Lettres; and changed their title for that of *Humoristi*; choosing for their device, a chind, which after being formed of exhalations from the salt waters of the ocean, returns in a gale shower. This motto was selected from Lucianus, *Redit exsine dulci*. The Academy of *Arcaidi* was instituted in the same city, about the year 1690, to promote the study of Poetry and the Belles Lettres, and comprehends Princes,

Academy
of Arcadi.

Cardinals, and other Ecclesiastics, as well as Wits of both sexes. It derives its name from a regulation, which, to avoid disputes about preeminence, required all the Members to appear masked as Arcadian shepherds. Within 10 years from its establishment, the number of Academists amounted to 600. They held their assemblies seven times a year in a meadow or grove, or in the gardens of some Nobleman. The seventh meeting is appropriated to the compositions of foreign or absent Members.

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The government of the Academy is by a Custos, who represents the whole Society, and is chosen every four years, with the power of electing 12 others yearly for his assistance. Under these are two Sub-Custodes, one Vicar, or Pro-Custos, and four Deputies or Superintendents, annually chosen. There are five modes of election. The first by acclamation; this is used when Sovereign Princes, Cardinals, and Ambassadors of Kings are to be admitted, upon which occasion the votes are given *circa voce*. The second is called annunciation; which was introduced in favour of Ladies and Academical Colonies, where the votes are taken privately. The third, representation, was established in favour of Universities, where the young genius are educated, who have each a privilege of recommending one or two Members to be ballotted for privately. The fourth, surrogation; whereby new Members are substituted in the room of those dead or expelled. The last, destination; whereby, when there is no vacancy of Member, persons of poetical merit have the title of *Arcadis* conferred upon them till a vacancy shall happen.

All the Members of this body, at their admission, assume new pastoral names, in imitation of the Shepherds of Arcadia. There are several brochures of this institution in different cities of Italy, all of which are under similar regulations.

ACADEMIES OF LANGUAGES. The *Academia della Crusca* at Florence, or *Academia Furfuraturum*, was formed in 1582, but obtained no celebrity till 1584, when a dispute arose between Tasso and several of its Members, which attracted considerable notice. It has produced an Italian Dictionary of great merit, and in this Academy Torricelli, the disciple of Galileo, delivered his discourse on the wind, the power of percussion, mathematics, and military architecture. It has been sometimes called the Bran Academy, on account of its employment in sifting out words and rejecting barbarisms, with a view to the improvement of the Italian language. It is now united with two others, viz. the *Florentina* and *Apatina*, or under the name of *Reali Accademia Fiorentina*.

The Academy of *Fructiferi* arose in 1617, at an *Fractilem*, assembly of Princes and Nobility, who met with a view to refine and perfect the German language. It flourished long under the direction of Princes of the Empire, who were uniformly chosen Presidents. In 1668 the number of Members amounted to upwards of 900. Its history is written in German, by George Neumark.

The *Académie Française*, or the French Academy, French took its rise from a private meeting of literary men in Academy, the house of M. Conart, in 1629. Six years afterwards it was formed into an Academy by Cardinal Richelieu, at the suggestion of M. Chapelain, chiefly for refining the French language and style, although it comprehended in its plan Grammar, Poetry, and Eloquence. The number of Members was limited to 40; out of whom

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DEMY.

a director, chancellor, and secretary, were to be chosen: the two former held their posts for two months; the latter was perpetual. The members had several privileges and immunities, particularly that of not being obliged to answer before any court but that of the king's household, called 'Droit de Comittimus.' At first they met in the cardinal Richelieu's apartment; then in that of the chancellor Seguier; and at last three times a week in the Louvre. At breaking up, forty silver medals were distributed among them, having on one side the king of France's head, and on the reverse, 'Protecteur de l'Académie,' with laurel, and this motto, 'A l'Immortalité.' The attendance of the academists was thus secured, as those who were present received the surplus otherwise intended for the absent. Eighteen at least were required to elect or expel a member, and no one could be chosen unless he petitioned for it. The religious orders were deemed inadmissible. Base and dishonest practices constituted the sole ground of expulsion, of which only two instances occurred: the first, of M. Granier, for refusing to return a deposit; the other, of the Abbé Furetière for plagiarism. This academy aimed not only to give rules, but examples of good writing. About twenty of their speeches have been printed. The style of the members has been ridiculed, as enervating instead of refining the French language; and they are charged with surfeiting the world with flattery, particularly of their founder. Every member, at his admission, was required to make a speech in praise of the king, the cardinal, the chancellor, and the person in whose place he was selected.

This academy has produced a variety of valuable publications, but it is chiefly celebrated for a dictionary of the French language; which, after the labour of fifty years, in settling words and phrases, was published in 1694. The history of this academy has been written by M. Petitou and M. l'Abbé d'Olivet.

A similar academy was founded at Petersburg, in 1753, on a plan suggested by the learned Princess Dashkoff, consisting of sixty members. The late empress provided a fund for its support and establishment.

Royal Spa-
nish Aca-
demy.

The *Royal Spanish Academy*, at Madrid, was founded by the Duke of Escalona. The first meeting, which consisted of eight academists, including the duke, was held in his palace, in July 1713. Fourteen were afterwards added, and the founder was chosen president. In 1714 the king granted them his confirmation and protection. Their device is a crucible in the middle of the fire, with this motto: 'Limpia, Fyn, da Explotor; 'It purifies, fixes, and gives brightness.' The number of members is limited to twenty-four, and their object is the cultivation and improvement of the language, by carefully selecting such words and phrases as have been used by the best Spanish writers; rejecting all low, barbarous, or obsolete terms, in order to form a dictionary wherein these may be distinguished from the former. The academy was to have its own printer, but not to put any thing to press without an order of council. As a further encouragement, the academicians have all the privileges and immunities enjoyed by the domestic officers in the king's service, and in the royal palace.

ACADEMY is also a term for schools and other seminaries of learning among the Jews, where their rabbins and doctors instructed their youth in the Hebrew lan-

VOL. XVII.

guage, and explained to them the Talmud, and the secrets of the Cabala: those of Tiberias and Babylon have been the most celebrated.

ACADEMY is a term expressive also of a public or private collegiate seminary or school, where youth are instructed in general literature and science. The Romans had two institutions of this nature; one at Rome, founded by Adriana, and the other at Berytus, in Phœnicia. In the former, the sciences were taught; the latter restricted its attention chiefly to law. Military schools were also common among the Greeks and Romans. The sixteenth century is celebrated for the origination of literary establishments of this description in various parts of Europe; of which, that formed at Paris was the most considerable; and on account of its comprehensive plan of education, obtained the distinguishing appellation of University. Frederic I. of Prussia founded an academy in Berlin, in 1703, designed for the instruction of the young nobility of the court; whence it obtained the name of the Academy of Princes: but it soon decayed. The chief cities of Italy contained them under the name of Campi Martii: the Greek professors were called *Tactici*, whose business was to teach the art of war.

In England we have a royal academy at Portsmouth, Academy at in which navigation, drawing, &c. are taught. It was Portsmouth, established in 1722, by George I. and is under the direction of the Board of Admiralty, which gives salaries to the masters. The students board themselves, the government only bestowing upon them education. Another institution, founded by George II. in 1741, under the direction of the Master-General and Board of Ordnance, subsists at Woolwich, called the Royal Military Academy. Young men are here instructed in the various branches of mathematics which are essential to form them for engineers. The sons of noblemen and military officers alone have now access to this institution, where they are termed gentlemen cadets, and are under the superintendence of a lieutenant-governor, and a captain, with two subalterns to each company, and an inspector of their studies. There are at present twenty masters, nine of which, including a professor, are mathematical; the rest are for fortification, drawing, French, chemistry, fencing, and dancing. New buildings have been recently erected by government for this institution, in an elegant Gothic style, immediately under Shooter's Hill, the duke of York laying the foundation stone on the twenty-seventh of May, 1803: they were occupied on the twelfth of August, 1806.

The dissenters of England, in consequence of the introduction of certain oaths after the restoration of Charles II. as pre-requisites to admission into the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, deemed it necessary to form establishments for education among themselves, to which they gave the name of Academies. Their success has been very considerable, and many of their students have obtained both theological and literary eminence. Some of these institutions have fallen to decay, others have arisen, and at present the most promising are those of Homerton, Huxton, Rotherham, and York, amongst the Independents and Presbyterians; and Bristol, Stepney, and Bradford, amongst the Baptists.

The importance of these seminaries to so large a class of the religious and literary part of the community, as the Protestant Dissenters of these kingdoms, and

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DEMY.Term
applied to
sem-naries.

ACADEMY. the absence of any detailed account of them in any general compendium of knowledge, may justify a brief historical sketch of the most celebrated of them in this place.

Homerton. The oldest of the dissenting academies, now in a flourishing state, is that which is established at HOMERTON, near London. Two foundations are united in this institution, one of which is nearly as old as the Restoration; the other was established in the year 1730. It was removed from Mile-end, in 1772, and had three professorships, filled at that time by Dr. Daniel Fisher, as classical tutor; Dr. Conder, as divinity tutor; and Dr. T. Gibbons, the biographer of Dr. Watts, as professor of rhetoric and belles lettres. The classical chair of this institution has always ranked high amongst dissenters. The establishment accommodates twenty young men, and has furnished the Independents with some of their most valuable pastors. Its principles are decidedly Calvinistic.

Hoxton. The *Evangelical Academy*, as it was originally called, now subsisting at HOXTON, is perhaps the next in importance among dissenters. It was founded in 1783, and removed to its present situation in 1791. It has a classical and a divinity tutor, and a lecturer in logic, rhetoric, and mathematics. The institution is calculated for thirty students, and the plan of education has of late years been much improved. The late Dr. Simpson presided over the institution generally, and in the office of divinity tutor, from the time of its removal, with considerable success. This is also a Calvinistic establishment.

Hackney. At HACKNEY, in 1786, the *New College*, as it was then called, was formed on Arian and Unitarian principles. From the names attached to its foundation, high hopes of literary eminence were entertained by its friends. Dr. Kippis, editor of the *Biographia Britannica*; Gilbert Wakefield, then a recent seceder from the ministry of the established church, and Mr. Belsham, presided over its concerns. Dissension, however, prevailing amongst the conductors of the institution, it dwindled into obscurity.

Rotherham. At ROTHERHAM, about five miles from Sheffield, subsists an academy of some eminence, that flourished in Yorkshire as early as the year 1756. Wm. Fuller, Esq., banker of London, was amongst its early and munificent patrons; and the late Dr. Williams, who was its chief conductor for many years, was a man whose writings have done much credit to this class of dissenters. From this academy the theological and classical chairs of Homerton were recently filled.

York. The *York Academy* was established in 1786, on the basis of the original and celebrated seminary at Warrington, where the names of Dr. John Taylor, of Norwich, Hugh Farmer, and Job Orton, graced the literary annals of dissent. Dr. Aikio also, father of Mrs. Barbauld, Dr. Priestley, and Dr. Eusfield, were successively tutors at this place. Dr. Thomas Barnes presided in this establishment at its removal to Manchester in 1786, and was one of the principal founders of the *Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society*. In 1803 it was removed to York: the number of students here educated is twenty; the classical and mathematical tutors have been celebrated; and the institution is the only one of the kind that subsists among what are properly called the English Presbyterians.

From the prospectus of the STEPNEY institution, circulated in 1810, and written by the Rev. R. Hall, of Leicester, we give the following extracts as illustrative of the objects which are generally proposed in these institutions:—"Having been supplied by the noble munificence of a worthy individual with a house and premises at Stepney, well fitted for an academy, we are desirous of realising the liberal intentions of the donor, by carrying into execution the plan of public utility he has mediated. At this period, no apology can be necessary for attempting to assist young men designed for the ministry in the acquisition of such branches of knowledge as may qualify them more completely for the successful discharge of that sacred function; since wintere prejudices unfavourable to learning may have formerly prevailed in serious minds, they appear to have subsided, and Christians in general admit the propriety of cultivating literature in the service of religion. From the recent multiplication of theological seminaries among protestant dissenters, such an inference may be fairly deduced. While we assert the absolute sufficiency of the Scripture for every saving purpose, it is impossible to deny the usefulness of the knowledge derived from books in unfolding many of its obscurities, explaining many of its allusions, and producing more fully to view the inestimable treasure it contains. The primary truths of revelation, it is acknowledged, offer themselves at first view in the sacred volume; but there are latent riches, and gems of inestimable value, which can be brought to light only by a deeper and more laborious research. There are numberless exquisite harmonies and retired beauties in the scheme of revelation, which are rarely discovered without the union of great industry with cultivated talent. A collection of writings, composed on various occasions, and at remote intervals of time, including detached portions of history the most ancient, and of poetry awfully sublime, but often obscure; a book containing continual allusions to manners unknown in this part of the world, and to institutions which have long ceased to exist, must demand all the aid ingenuity and learning can bring towards its elucidation.

The light of revelation, it should be remembered, is not opposite to the light of reason: the former presupposes the latter; they are both emanations from the same source; and the discoveries of the Bible, however supernatural, are addressed to the understanding, the only medium of information whether human or divine. Revealed religion is not a cloud which overshadows reason: it is a superior illumination designed to perfect its exercise, and supply its deficiencies. Since truth is always consistent with itself, it can never suffer from the most enlarged exertion of the intellectual powers, provided those powers be regulated by a spirit of dutiful submission to the oracles of God. The evidences of Christianity challenge the most rigid examination: the more accurate and extensive the inquiry, the more convincing will they appear. Unexpected coincidences between inspired history and the most undisputed remains of antiquity will present themselves, and striking analogies be perceived between the course of Providence and the superior economy of grace. The gradual development of the plan of revelation, together with the dependence of its several parts on each other, and the perfect consistency of the whole,

ACADEMY.

Stepney.

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DEMY.
—
ACÆNA.

will employ and reward the deepest investigation. In proof of the assistance religion may derive from learning rightly directed, we appeal to the writings of an Usher, a Newton, and a Bryant; to the ancient spoliators of Christianity, who, by means of it, unasked the deformities of polytheism; to the reformers, whom it taught to remove the sacred volume from the dust and obscurity of cloisters, and exhibit it in the dialects of Europe; and to the victorious impugnors of infidelity in modern times. Such are the spoils which sanctified learning has won from superstition and impiety, the common enemies of God and man. Nor must we forget to notice, among the most precious fruits of cultivated reason, that consciousness of its own deficiencies and sense of its own weakness, which prompts it to bow to the authority of revelation, and depose its honours at the cross, since its incapacity to solve the most important questions, and to satisfy the most distressing doubts, will be felt with the truest conviction, and attested with the best grace, by such as have made the largest essay of its powers. An unconverted ministry we look upon as the greatest calamity that can befall the church; nor would we be supposed to insinuate, by the preceding observations, that education can ever be a proper substitute for native talent, much less for real piety; all we mean to assert is, that the union of both will much enlarge the capacity of doing good. Without descending to particulars, we must be allowed to remark, for example, that the art of arranging ideas in their proper order, and of investigating the nature of different sorts of evidence, as well as acquaintance with the fundamental rules of composition and rhetoric, are of essential service to a public speaker.

“The existing state of society supplies additional reasons for extending the advantages of oecumenical education. If former periods have given birth to more renowned scholars, none ever produced so many men of reading and reflection as the present; never was there a time when books were so multiplied, knowledge so diffused, and when, consequently, the exercise of cultivated talents in all departments was in such demand. When the general level of mental improvement is so much raised, it becomes necessary for the teachers of religion to possess their full share of these advantages, if they would secure from neglect the exercise of a function, the most important to the interests of mankind. If in the days of inspiration there were schools of the prophets, and miraculous effusions of wisdom did not supersede human means of instruction, much less are they to be neglected in the present times, when no such communications are expected. To this we must add, that perverted literature is one of the most powerful weapons in the hands of the enemies of divine truth, who leave no effort untried to recommend their cause by the lustre of superior acquisitions, and to form in the public mind the dangerous association between irreligion and talents, weakness, and piety.”

ACADEMY Figure, an outline or drawing of a naked man or woman, from the life: it is usually taken on paper with red or black chalk, and sometimes with pastels or crayons.

ACÆNA, a tea-fee rod, used by the Grecians in measuring their leads

ACENA, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class

Tetrandria, order Monogynia, comprising only one species, which is a Mexican plant.

ACAJOU, or **CASHEU-NUT TREE**, in Botany. See **ACACARDIUM**, Botany, Div. II.

ACALYPHA, a genus of plants of the order Monadelphica, class Mucacea, called by many botanists *Ricinocarpos*, or *Tickfruit*. Linnæus, as edited by Melin, has made it a genus of the Monadelphia Dodecandria.

ACANTHABOLUS, called also *yobella*, an instrument for extracting thorns out of the flesh and bones from the æsopagus.

ACANTHOPTERYGIOSUS Fishes, a term used by Linnæus and others, for those fishes whose back fins are hard, osseous, and prickly.

ACANTHOS, **ACANTHUS**, or **ACHANTUS**, a town of Egypt, near Memphis, the present Hissia, or according to Savary, Dachbour, whither the waters of the Nile are conducted by a canal, and near which is the ruin of the temple of Osiris, and a pyramid.

ACANTHUS, an ancient town of Caria, in Asia Minor, mentioned by Melu Pomponius.

ACANTHUS, an ancient maritime town near Mount Athos, in Macedonia. When Xerxes invaded Greece he cut a treach from this place to Sane, about a mile and a-half to the south, round the foot of the mountain, and conveyed his fleet through it into the Singitic bay, by which he avoided the danger of sailing round the promontory. It is now called *Erisso*.

ACANTHUS, **BEAR'S BRECH**, a genus of plants of the order of Angiosperma, class Didymia.

ACANTHUS, in Architecture, an ornament representing the leaves of the acanthus, used in the capitals of the Corinthian and Composite orders.

ACANZI, the name of the Turkish light horse, which form the vanguard of the Grand Seigneur's army when on a march.

ACAPALA, or **ACATULPA**, a town in the province of Chiapa, in New Spain, situated on the Tabasco river, five leagues north-west from Chiapa.

ACAPULCO, called also *Los Rages*, a sea-port town of Mexico, and the capital of New Spain. Its harbour, formed out of the granite mountains, under a elusia of which it stands, is one of the most commodious in South America. To the north-west ships may ride out in safety to two cables' length, and there are 10 or 12 fathoms water close up to the rocks. At the entrance is the little island of Roqueta.

The vessel which it annually sends to Manila has been long celebrated in the history of this part of the world: it is a galloon of about 1400 ton burden, which sails in the early part of the spring, and returns in autumn. Its cargo is valued at 600,000*l.* to 700,000*l.*, of which the precious metals (chiefly silver) amount to 200,000*l.* or 250,000*l.* Wool, wines, oil, cocoa and cochineal, are the other chief exports. From Manila and the Philippine islands generally this vessel brings back silks, jewellery, muslins, calico, articles of jewellery and the finer eastern ware, and spices. Its arrival on the coast is the commencement of a kind of annual fair at Acapulco. The population is more than doubled; so that the merchants and others erect tents in the neighbourhood until the completion of their exchanges with the supercargoes. The town is at other times dull; and the population does not exceed

ACÆNA.
—
ACAPULCO.

ACCA-
PULCO,
ACCEDE

14000. There is a fort on the heights which mounts 31 guns, and commands the harbour. The whole aspect of the place, on approaching it, is exceedingly imposing; but the situation is said to be very unfavourable to health. Earthquakes are frequent here; the climate is very changeable; and though a passage for the air has been recently cut through the mountain at the back of the town, the stagnant waters in the neighbourhood, and burning summer heats, engender diseases particularly fatal to strangers, and to the general prosperity of the town. Its eastern trade, once so celebrated, is not now considerable. It is situated 100° W. long., lat. 16° 30'.

ACARAUNA, a small American fish, called by English sailors 'the old wife.'

ACARNANIA, now called II Carina and II Despotato, an ancient country of Epirus, divided from Ætolia by the Achelous. The inhabitants reckoned only six months in the year; they were warlike, luxurious, and incontinent; *Porcus Acarnus* was hence proverbial. To avoid being seized by the hair in battle, they never suffered it to grow long on the forehead. A famous breed of horses found here gave rise to another proverb, *Acarnianus irrog*, for a thing excellent in its kind.

ACARON, Accaron, or Ekron, a town of Judea, 34 miles from Jerusalem, and a short distance from Bethshemesh. It was the ancient boundary of Philistia on the north, and is supposed, by Bryant, to have derived its name from Accon, the god of flies.

ACARUS, the Tick or Mite, a genus of insects of the order of Aptera.

ACATALECTIC, a term applied to such verses as are not defective in their feet or syllables.

ACATALEPSY, synonymous with incomprehensibility. The Pyrrhonists asserted an absolute acatalepsy in regard to everything.

ACATIUM, in Ancient Navigation, a kind of military boat or pinnace wrought with oars. It is mentioned as a kind of fishing vessel by Suidas.

ACCALIA, solemn Roman festivals in honour of Acca Laurentia, Romulus's nurse; they were otherwise called *Laurentalia*.

ACCAPTURE, in English Law, relief paid to lords of manors.

ACCEDE', o.	} <i>n.</i>	Ad: <i>cedo</i> ; to go to.
ACCENABINES,		To go, or come to; to ap-
ACCESARY, or		proach, with assent or favour,
ACCESORY,		assistance, addition, or increase.
ACCESARY, or		} <i>ad.</i>
ACCESORY,	or favour, to assist; to add to,	
ACCESIBLE,	or increase.	
ACCESION.		

Beside all this he was full generously.

For upon him he had an *hota accese*.

That day by day him abooks full pretulys.

Chaucer, of the Black Knight, l. 271, col. 2.

And for I fele, it cometh alyne of the,

That to my harte these feet have note accese,

I dare thembid, anoyde, wretches and fre;

The Lords hath heard the voyce of my complaynte.

Hyatt.

He caused also the sayde goldsmith to be attached as *accersurge*, and arraigned hym at the saygones holden at Newgate, in London; where it was shewed, that they ought not by the laws to enygue of the *accersurge* before the principal.

Hall, repr. 1509, p. 859.

ACCEDE.
—
ACCE-
LEATE.

This liberty is all that I request.

That you knowledge of my perillage.

I may have welcome 'mongst the rest that was,

And true *accesse* and labour as the rest.

Shakespeare's Tem. of the S, act ii. sc. 1.

— Away, I praythe,

Do as I bid thee: There's no more to say;

Accesable is none but Milford way.

Id. Cym., act ii. sc. 2.

How safe, how easy, how happy a thing it is, to have to do with the King of Heaven; who is so pleased with our *accesse*, that he solicits suitors.

Bishop Hall's Contemplations.

— They soon,

With hundreds and with thousands, troop'd came,

Attended: all *accesse* was thurs'd: the gates

And postles wide, but chief free spacious wall

Turk's war-maid. *Milton's Paradise Lost, b. ii.*

He (the Earl of Stafford) had taken upon him the government of Hull, without any apprehension, or recognition, that it would ever make necessary to rebellion.

Clarendon's Rebellion.

This obvious reflection convinced me of the absurdity of the treaty of Hanover, in 1713, between France and England, to which the Dutch afterwards acceded.

Clesterfield's Letters, cii.

And vain were reason, courage, learning; all,

Till power accede; 'till Tudor's wild caprice

Smile on their cause.

Shakespeare's Ruined Abbey.

Ancient Troy, wasted on an empuiser at the foot of Mount Ida, over-looked the mouth of the Hellespont, whose streams received an *accrescence* of waters from the tribula of those immortal rivers, the Simois and Scamander.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

An *accrescence* is he who is not the chief actor in the office, nor present at its performance, but is *nonway* concerned therein, either before or after the fact committed.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

To him Massillon: I have mark'd a post

Accrescible and festive in their line.

To me thy choicest cavity commit.

Gloucester's Alchemist, b. xiii.

With longing eyes, and agony of mind,

The sailors view this refuge left behind;

Happy to bribe with India's richest ore

A sole *accrescence* to that barren shore.

Voltaire's Sappho, c. iii.

ACCEL'ERATE, v.

Ad: *celer*; to hasten.

ACCELE'RATION,

To hasten, to quicken,

ACCEL'ERATIVE,

add to, or increase the speed of.

The inhabitants of Bordeaux sent in some messengers in the darkest night, requesting him to *accelerate*, and speed his journey towards their city, informing him, that now the time was proper for his purpose; and time not taken, was labor mispent.

Hall, p. 226.

Often times I have seen in other, & have proved by experience, that the small consideration passed, and the great *acceleration* in business now present, maketh great inconveniences to time to come.

Golden Bunch, ch. xii.

We may offend as well in our ready *acceleration*, as in our delay. *Miles ran so fast down the gully, that he stumbled spiritually, and broke the tables of God.*

Bishop Hall's Contemplations.

Down falling greatness, urged on space,

Was followed hard by all disgraceful ways,

Now in th' point it *accelerates* an end,

Whilst misery had no means to defend.

Dante's Cird War, book iii.

The poor sinner's request is no greater than to be spared, and his argument is not because he is not guilty, or deserves no stripes, that would *accelerate* the stroke, to abate such daring confidence, and convince such horrible falsehood.

Comber's Companion to the Temple.

ACCELERATE.

ACCENT.

Lo! from the dread immensity of space,
Returning with accelerated course,
The rushing comet to the sun drenches;
And as he sinks below the shading earth,
With awful train projected o'er the heavens,
The guilty nations tremble.

Thomson's *Autumn*.

It is an attribute of many bodies to be moved; but motion may be in an endless variety of directions. It may be quick or slow, revulsional or curvilinear; it may be equable, or accelerated; or retarded.

Reed's *Example*.

ACCELERATION, the increase of velocity in a moving body. See MECHANICS, Div. ii.

ACCELERATING FORCE. See MECHANICS, Div. ii.
ACCELERATION of the Motion of Pendulums; and
ACCELERATION of the Motion of Projectiles. See
MECHANICS, Div. ii.

ACCELERATION, is also applied in the ancient astronomy, in respect to the fixed stars.

ACCELERATION, or ACCELERANDO, in Music, is generally applied to the quickening the time in the middle of a piece. In pathetic pieces, when delicately executed, it has an effect that has been much approved.

ACCELERATION, in Military Tactics, to carry a trench under the principal works of a fortified place, in order to take it by a prompt assault.

ACCELERATOES URINE, in Anatomy, the name of two muscles, which serve for expediting the discharge of the urine and semen. See ANATOMY, Div. ii.

ACCEND', v. } Ad: cendo; to kindle.

ACCENSION. } To set fire to; to inflame, to enlighten.

There are some sparks bodies, as for instance the comets, which, besides the light that they may have from the sun, seem to shine with a light that is nothing else but an accension, which they receive from the sun, in their near approaches to it, in their respective revolutions.

Locke's *Elements of Natural Philosophy*.

ACCENDONES, or ACCERONES, a kind of assistant-gladiators, whose office was to excite and animate the combatants.

ACCENSI, supernumerary soldiers taken from the fifth class of Roman citizens, and used as a kind of reserved force. They were denominated *quia accensibantur*, and *ad centum adhibebantur*. Also, an inferior order of officers, attending the Roman magistrates, in the number of ushers, sergeants, or tipstaves. They are supposed to have been so called from *accire*, to send for; and were sometimes employed to surround the people to the games.

ACCENT', n. } Ad: ceno, cantum. To sing.

ACCENT', v. } To sing or sound, or speak to, or
ACCENTUAL, } to unison with. Generally with a
ACCENTUATION, } reference to certain rules of pronunciation.

Accentuation is applied to the mechanical marking of the accents in printed books.

Harry, whose tuneful and well-measured song
First taught our English music how to span
Words with just note and accent, not to scan
With Mada's ears, committing short and long.

Milton's *Sonnet to Mr. H. Lovers*.

The bishoppe being thus determinately purposed launching the death of Edwards, and warily providing for himself, if by any chance he should be accused thereof craftily woeleth that the authority which he gave by writing, might seeme to bee taken expressly contrary to his meaning, by reason of accenting and pointing of the same.

Saunders's *Chronicle*, Howe's Ed. 1614.

Let us prevent his anger by sentencing ourselves: or if we do ACCENT, out, let us follow the sad accents of the angry voice of God, and imitate his justice, by condemning that which God condemns.

Taylor on *Ecclesiastical Power*.

You are to know, that as the ill pronunciation or ill accenting of words in a sermon spoils it, so the ill carriage of your line, or not fishing even to a foot in a right place, makes you lose your labour.

Hudson's *Angler*.

As. Mark'd you his hollow accents at the parting?

Qu. Mourn. Graves in his smiles.

Kings. Death in his blasphemous hands.

Deputy's D. of Gause, act ii. sc. 2.

How many dwellings are void of all noise, but the sad accents of dying persons, and the cries of the fatherless and widows.

Cumbe's *Companion to the Temple*.

I then observed Shakespeare standing between Batterton and Booth, and deciding a difference between those two great actors, concerning the placing an accent in one of his lines.

Fielding's *Journey from this World to the Next*.

ACCENT, in Grammar, an inflection of the voice, which gives to each syllable of a word its due pitch in respect of height or lowness. See GRAMMAR, Div. I.

ACCENT, in Music, an enforcement of particular sounds, by the voice or instruments, where the emphasis naturally falls. In common time, the first and third notes of a bar are accented, and in triple time, the first and last note. The whole mechanism of melody may be said to depend upon the judicious modification of these. In pieces adapted to the violin and violoncello, the varieties of accent are innumerable.

ACCEPT', v.

ACCEPTABLE.

ACCEPTABLENESS, or

ACCEPTABILITY,

ACCEPTABLY,

ACCEPTANCE,

ACCEPTANCE,

ACCEPTER,

ACCEPTIVE,

ACCEPTIVE,

ACCEPTIVE,

ACCEPTIVE,

ACCEPTIVE.

Ad: cupio. To take to.

Generally applied, when the thing taken or received, or the motive of the offerer, is pleasing, agreeable, approved of.

Much sweeter she saith, & more acceptable,

Is drunk when it is stolen privately

Then when it is taken in forme accusable.

Chaucer. *The Remede of Love*, fol. 324, col. 2.

And so infernale furies, that werke all wrang,

And so goddiss eik, quham now among

Dido standis ready to cum in point to de;

Renaunce the wordis, quhillis I sall say, quod ache,

Withdraw fra hyne soue cyete mychis, quaher

Behewis ancht be pursey for their crueltie & not I;

And thir our prayere accept, we soue beswick.

Douglas, book iv, p. 121.

As danith seith, the blisidnesse of a man whom God accepteth he ghyueth to him rightwynnesse withouten werks of the lawe, blessed be thei, whos wickednesse ben forgyuen and whos synnes ben hid.

Wolff. *Romanyng*, chap. iv.

For he seith in tyme wel playenge I haue herd thes, and in the dai of heethis I haue helped thes, lo now a tyme acceptable, lo now a dai of heethis.

R. 2 *Corymb*, chap. vi.

And petir opende his mouth and seide, in treuthis I haue foundun that God is not acceptor of persones, he seith ech folk he that dredith God and werthith rightwynnesse is accept to him.

Id. *Dreke*, chap. x.

But glorie and honore and pees to ech man that werthith god thing to the iew first and to the Grek, for acceptation of persones is not meetis God.

Id. *Romanyng*, ch. ii.

ACCEPT. If common writers in trifling or profane matters done with much high suit make measures to oblige and use y^e favourable acceptance of princes: how much are we all bound to your highness!
Erasmus Paraphrase of N. T. by P. Udal.
Preface to the Kings Master.

Infernal fury, ye wreckers of wrong;
 And Helios gods, who shadow at point of death,
 Revoke these wretches, and ere your heavy power
 Withdraw from me, that wicked folk desume:
 And our request accept, we you beseech.
 Sooner I would of death sustaine the smart
 Than breake one word of that I promised you;
 Except therfore my service in good part:
 None is alive that can it longer eschew.

Surrey.

Wyatt.

For be saith: I have heard y^e in a lyme accepted: & 1 y^e days of saluacion have I suckerd the. Behold, now is y^e accepted tyme;
 behold now is that day of saluacion. *Bible. Lond. 1539.*

And toward the education of your daughters,
 I heere bestow a simple instrument,
 And this small packet of Greeke and Latine booke:
 If you accept them, then their worth is great.

Shakespeare's Tem. of the Sk. p. 215, act ii sc. 1.

This is a faithful saying, and worthy of all acceptance, that Christ Jesus came into the world to save sinners. *St. Paul. 1 Tim. i. v. 15.*

Case. Please you to be acceptive young gentlemen?
 1 Pra. Yes sir, fear not: I shall accept. I have a foolish humour of taking, (aside) if you know all.

B. Jonson's Forerunner, act iii. sc. 1.

Cyn. And if you judge it any recompense
 For your fair pains, I have earned Diana's thanks,
 Diana thanks thee, and behests thee crown
 To gratify your acceptable seal.

B. Cynthia's Revels, act. v. sc. 1.

Such with him
 Finds no acceptance, not can find; for how
 Can hearts, not free, be tried whether they serve
 Willing or no, who will, but what they must
 By destiny, and can no other choose?

Milton's Paradise Lost, b. v.

After Luther had made a confession in Germany about religion, he was wont to be by the pope, to be taken off, and offered any preferment in the church that he would make choice of: Luther answered, if he had offered half as much at first, he would have accepted it.

When the school-men talk of *recta ratio* in morals, either they understand reason, as it is governed by a command from above; or else they say no more than a woman, when she says a thing is so, because it is so; that is, her reason persuades her 'tis so. The other acceptance has sense in it. *Id.*

The same epithet in several places accepts *sanctity* interpretation. *Fuller's Worthies.*

How couldst thou expect that God should accept of thy good belief, when thou didst so notoriously contradict it by a bad life?
Tillotson's Sermon.

"Friend," quoth the cur, "I meant no harm;
 Then why so captious—why so warm?
 My words in common acceptance,
 Could never give this provocation."

Gay's Fables, p. ii. f. 1.

Virtue is better accepted when it comes in a pleasing form. *Adventurer, No. 81.*

If the mind is at any time vacant from every passion and desire, there are still some objects that are more acceptable to us than others. *Hurd on the Human Mind.*

ACCEPTANCE, in Law, an acknowledgment of a bargain, debt, or demand, either directly or tacitly, which might otherwise have been defeated or avoided.

ACCEPTANCE, in Commerce, has a particular application to the subscribing, signing, or otherwise expressing one's self responsible for the sum contained in a bill of exchange or other instrument. What constitutes an acceptance is a nice question of law, but it is generally effected by writing the name of the

party made responsible in some conspicuous situation in the instrument, bill, or draft.

ACCEPTOR, or ACCEPTOR, the person who accepts a bill of exchange, &c.

ACCIDENT.

ACCEPTILATION, among civilians, an acquittance given without payment of any consideration.

ACCESS, ACCESSORY, &c. See ACCRUE.

ACCESSION, in Law, an accidental method of acquiring property, in consequence of its connection with some other property. By the Roman laws, such corporeal substances as received any direct natural or artificial accession entitled the original owner to the entire property in its improved state. The growth of vegetables, the pregnancy of animals, the conversion of metallic substances into any possible use, gave accession of this kind. Should the thing or substance, however, be by a new occupant or operator changed into a different species, as in the making oil from another's olives, or bread from his corn, the new property or improvement did not pass by accession. Among physicians, the word has been used for the paroxysm of a disease; in political affairs, for a prince's succeeding to the government upon the death of his predecessor, or otherwise. It has also been used for a profession of allegiance to the new possessor of the sovereign authority.

ACCESSORY, or ACCESSARY, in Common Law, is used for a person guilty of an offence, by connivance or participation. In high treason, all who participate are regarded as principals; the magnitude of the offence making the same acts by which he is only accessory to a common felony criminal in the highest degree. An accessory may become such either before or after the fact.

ACCESSORY NERVES, in Anatomy, a pair of nerves, which arise by several filaments from the medulla spinalis of the neck, and passing through the skull, terminate in the Trapezius. See ANATOMY, Div. ii.

ACCI, in Ancient Geography, a town of Terraconensis, formerly called Acti; supposed to be Guadix, to the east of the city of Granada in Spain. It is the Colonia Accitana Gemella, and was of some repute among the Roman colonies. The people were called Gemellenses, because the colony consisted of colonists from the third and sixth legions. It is now much decayed.

ACCIACATURA, a musical term, indicating the manner in which certain passages should be performed by sweeping the chords, and dropping sprinkled notes. The word is derived from *acciacare*, to break down.

ACCIDENTE, n. Ad: *caelo*, to fall in.
 ACCIDENT, } That which falls, or happens,
 ACCIDENTAL, } or occurs to: generally with a
 ACCIDENTALLY, } sub-addition, of something unforeseen, unexpected, unfortunate, unnecessary, without design, contrivance, or intention.

Thy maist supreme indissolubel substance
 Is an nature, thee persons, but discepance,
 Regardand eterne, remaimes an accident:
 For why thus art thou at this tyme present
 It that thou was, and euer sal be vanishe.

Donjon. Prologue to book x. p. 368.

And sithan thou seest thine fleshy body in kindly power faile,
 how should thou the accident of a thing be in more worthy of being
 than substantiall; wherefore shifte things that we clepe power,
 but are accident to the fleshye body, and so they may not have
 that surety in might, which wauente in the substantiall body.
Chaucer. Second booke of the Test of Love, fol. 302, col. 1.

ACCI-
DENCE.

The *fer* cause is Almighty God, that is cause of all things: the *net* cause is then three enemies; the cause *accidental* was hale.
Chamers. The Tale of Melibeu, vol. i. p. 104.

He booth himself to make laws and articles of *owr* faiths and to add to his sacraments to them, then cryt make, and to commende and to make the body of cryste, to scide awaye the substance of the bread, the *accident* as the whigtens, rowndnes, last & other qualities & qualities remayning.

The Exposition of Daniel, by George Jope, p. 105.

Wherefore sithe in all myne authors, I finde no matter, either greatly necessary, or much convenient to be spoken of concerning any high enterprise: I therefore, leaving both the nations, daily studying how to grow, and goon of the other, will turne againe to other thynges *accidental* whiche chaunced in this XII yere.
Hall, p. 173.

If all the yere were playing holidays,
To sport, would be as tedious as to worke;
But when they seldom come, they wish to come,
And nothing pleasant but rare accidents.

Shakespeare's 1st Hen. IV. p. 50, act i. sc. 2.

And not a man for being simply man,
Hath any honour; but honour'd for those honours
That see without him; as place, riches, and favour,
Prices of accident, as oft as merit.

M. Tro. & Cress. p. 92, act ii. sc. 3.

Jct. With an unbelov'd eye,
An *accidental* view, as men see multitudes,
That the next day dare not precisely say
They saw that face, or that, amongst 'em all,
Broomont and Fletcher's Maid in the Mill, act v. sc. 2.
Man, the accident was loud, and here before thee,
With useful cry, yet what it was, we hear not.

Milton's Samson Agonistes.

What the light is, whether a substance or an accident, whether of a corporeal or incorporeal nature, it is not easy to determine.

Hobbes's Apology, lib. i. cap. vi. sect. 1.

That which hath inclined to many, to think the sensitive life at least, to be nothing but a quality or accident of matter, generalists out of it, and corruptible in it, is that strange Protean transformation of matter into so many seemingly unaccountable forms and shapes.
Cudworth's Intellectual System.

Ideas, forms, and intellects.

Have furnish'd out three different sets;

Substance, or accident, divides

All Europe into different sides.

Prior's Man, c. iii.

Explore thro' earth and heaven, thro' sea and skies,

The *accidental* graves as they rise;

And while each present form the fancy warms,

Swift on thy tablets fix its fleeting charms.

Mason's Art of Painting.

If one of the legs of a man be found shorter than the other, the man is deformed, because there is something wanting to complete the whole idea we form of a man; and this has the same effect in natural faults, as maiming and mutilation produce from accidents.
Burke's Sublime and Beautiful.

ACCIDENT, in Logic, that mode or quality of a thing which is not essential to its being. Thus, smoothness or roughness, blackness or whiteness, are the accidents of a bowl; for these may be changed, and the body still remain a bowl. To opposition to substance, all qualities whatever are called accidents; as sweetness, softness, &c.

ACCIDENT, in Heraldry, a point or mark in a coat of arms, which is not essential to the general meaning of it, or that is called the essence of the armour. Edmondson allows them no meaning in blazonry.

ACCIDENTAL COLOURS, those which arise from the affections of the eye, in contradistinction to those which belong to light. See ASTRONOMY, div. II.

ACCIDENTAL POINT, in Perspective, that point in the horizontal line where the projections of two lines parallel to each other meet the plane of the picture.

ACCIDENTAL, in Music, such sharps, flats, and naturals, as occur not at the clef, and imply some change of key.

ACCIDIE, Tyrwhit says, is "French, from *Accyon*, Gr. negligence, arising from discontent, melancholy, &c. The Glossarist to the new edition of Piers Plouchein explains it, want of feeling; sluggishness, idleness." *Accyon* (*à non et epiaoc, cura*), incuria; carelessness, inertia.

ACCIPENSER, a genus of fishes of the order cartilaginei. They form a considerable article of commerce on the banks of the Caspian, and in various parts of Europe and America.

ACCIPITRES, or rapacious birds, the name of the first order of birds in the Linnæan system. This order corresponds to that of Fæves, and comprehends four genera, *Fulture, Falco, Strix, and Lanius*.

ACCISMUS, from *accipere*, a feigned refusal of something earnestly desired. It is supposed to be formed from *Acco*, the name of a curious woman once noted for this affectation. She is said to have run distracted when she found that old age had deformed her features. Plutarch mentions, that her name was used by mothers to terrify their children. The word is used in rhetoric for a species of irony.

ACCITE', v. Ad: *cico, citus*. To go or send for; to summon. See CITE.

When the place was rody, the Kyng and the Queene wer accited by Dueter Sanguier to appere before the Legates, at the fornamed place, the twentie and eight day of May.
Hall, p. 736.

A nobler man, a braver warrior,

Lives not this day within the city walls.

He by the sea-shore is accited home

From weary wars against the barbarous Gothes.

Shakespeare, Tit. And. p. 31, act i. sc. 1.

But in my desire, what was there to accite

So revenues and vast an appetite?

B. Jonson's Execution upon Falcon.

ACCLAIM', v. } Ad: *clamo*. To cry out, or
ACCLAIM', n. } shout to.

Applied to noisy and tumultuous expressions of assent, choice, approbation.

Justly did they followers hold the best ornaments of the earth
worthy of so better than they treading upon.—How happily did they
think their backs disrobed for thy way! How gladly did they
spend their breath in acclamations these!

Bishop Hall's Contemplations.

Glady then be mix'd

Among those friendly powers, who him receiv'd

With joy and acclamations loud, that one,

That of so many myriads fallen, yet one

Return'd, not lost.

Milnes's Paradise Lost, b. vi.

Cromwell return'd (from Worcester) in triumph; was receiv'd with universal joy and acclamations, so if he had destroy'd the enemy of the nation, and for ever secured the liberty and happiness of the people.

Clarendon's Rebellion.

The herald ends: the vaulted firmament,

With loud acclamations and vast applause is rent.

Dryden's Pseudo-Man.

ANCA. Thou shalt be crown'd:—

As iron crowns intensely hot shall gird

Thy hoary temples; while the shouting crowd

Acclaims thee king of traitors.

Shakespeare's Regicide, act v. sc. 6.

An amiable, accomplished prince succeeds the throne under the happiest of all auspices; the acclamations and united affections of his subjects.

James, letter xii.

ACCLAMATION, anciently denoted the use of words, vehemently uttered in a chanting tone, in the public assemblies, to express the warmest approbation. Ac-

ACCI-
DENCE.
AC-
CLAIM.

ACCLAMATION.

clamations are to be distinguished from applause, though they usually accompanied each other; acclamations being always vocal, and conferred on the parties, whether present or absent: but applause was expressed by the hands towards those only who were present.

The formulae of acclamations were various, corresponding to the occasion on which they were employed, though the adherence to this distinction was not very strict, the ardent feelings of the mind suggesting perpetual deviations. Those acclamations which expressed terror and benevolent feelings were called *laudationes*, and *bona vota*, or good wishes: acclamations of reprimand and contempt were denominated *exsecrationes* and *conaria*. Great disrespect, by acclamation, was shown after the death of Commodus. *Hosti patria honores detrahantur, parricidae honores detrahantur; hostis status undique, parricidae status undique, gladiatoris status undique*, &c., are the expressions handed down to us. The Roman writers speak of acclamations repeated five, twenty, and sometimes even sixty and eighty times.

The practice of acclamations appears to have originated in the theatre. During the earliest ages of the Roman commonwealth they were simple and artless; but became afterwards a sort of prescribed and formal ceremony, in which state we find them during the reign of Augustus, and even accompanied by musical instruments; sometimes they were irregular, and arose out of the occasion. Suetonius furnishes an instance in the time of Tiberius of a report of the recovery of Germanicus causing the people to run in crowds to the capital, with torches and victims, singing *Salva Roma, Salva Patria, Salvus est Germanicus*. Nero took every pains to improve the music of acclamations; for which purpose he brought home several of the Alexandrians, who had sung his praise at the Neapolitan games, to train the Roman people in their various modes of acclamation. Nero himself played at the theatre, when signal being given by clapping, five thousand soldiers, called *Augustales*, began the acclamatory chanting in praise of the tyrant, and the spectators were compelled to continue it. The band was divided into choruses, the chief of each of which had a salary of 40,000 sesterces. Persons of all parties vied with each other upon the occasion, echoing the praises of the emperor on every side in responsive melody. At the audience, the banquet, and the temples, the same excessive acclamations were bestowed, and in all the various forms of language. Constantine Porphyrogenitus has furnished an extraordinary specimen of literary trifling, by reducing this science of fuss and flattery into a pompous volume. While custom, and compulsion, however, commonly dictated these acclamations, which were bestowed alike on the good and the bad; on whoever happened to be invested with the imperial purple, their children, or their parasites; it is pleasing to read of those genuine expressions of the heart, which often escaped the subjects of Trajan, who had merited the title of *Optimus*. They would exclaim, "Happy citizens! happy emperor! long may he lend this great and virtuous life! long may he hear our ardent wishes for him!" This truly great man was seen to shed tears, while his countenance reddened with blushes upon such occasions. These honours were also conferred on the magistrates who presided at the games, and on persons of distinguished merit. The most usual

forms were, *felicitur, longiorem vitam, annos felices*. Those bestowed on the actors themselves, who gained the prizes in the games of the circus were frequently loud and extravagant.

Military acclamations were employed at the election of commanders and at a triumph. The victorious army accompanied their general to the capital, frequently repeating "Io triumphe," which the people re-echoed. A specimen of which is issued in Horace —

Tuque dum procedis, Io triumphe,
Non semel decessus, Io triumphe,
Circus omnis.

On a. lib. 4. 49.

Authors, who frequently recited their own works in public assemblies, were very solicitous for the appointed acclamations; which are said to have been characteristic of the person or subject, and accompanied, like those of the theatre in general, by music. Acclamations were also a part of the marriage rites.

The senatorial acclamations were more solemn than the foregoing. On an acceptable proposition of any kind being made, and especially on occasion of any communication from the emperor, the senators would rise simultaneously, and exclaim, "Omnes, omnes;" "Æquum est, justum est;" as in our popular assemblies we still say "all, all," &c. Elections and proclamations of emperors were thus accompanied; for though abolished by Claudian, they were soon renewed; and a portion of this custom, dictated by nature, has pervaded all countries on such occasions. When the emperors gave largesses of money or provisions the form usually was, *De nostris annis tibi Jupiter augeat annos*.

Acclamations were not unknown to the Hebrews. "Hosanna" was its common form. "God save king Solomon," musically accompanied, rent the air at the election of that monarch, and probably originated our well-known exclamation of loyalty, "God save the king."

Luitprand tells us, that the Greeks, at a procession where he was present, sang to the emperor Nicephorus *πολλὰ εἰπ*; that is, "many years." Plutarch mentions an acclamation as loud, on the occasion of Flamininus restoring liberty to Greece, that the very birds fell from the skies at the shout. *Λογὴ τυχῆ*, good luck, was a common Greek form of this custom.

The Turks at this day practise a similar ceremony, on the appearance of their emperors and grand viziers. Both amongst the Greeks and Romans, the names of gods and heroes were given to those whom they wished to extol. The acclamations were renewed after each division of the subject, at every fine passage, and sometimes at every pause in the discourse.

Bishops, and other ecclesiastical officers were elected in the primitive churches by acclamation, to which some have thought the term *κρίσις*, in the Acts of the Apostles, has some allusion. In the course of time, acclamations were admitted into the acts of councils, and the ordinary ecclesiastical assemblies. The people expressed their approbation of the preacher, sometimes by interrupting him with the exclamations, "Orthodox!" "Third Apostle," &c. These acclamations being carried to excess, and often misapplied, were frequently prohibited, and at length abrogated. Chrysostom reproved, but Augustine received them willingly.

ACCLAMATION MEDALS, among Antiquaries, such as

ACCLAMATION, *n.* represent the people expressing their joy in the posture of acclamation.

ACCLIVITY, *n.s.* Ad: *clivus*, to a cliff. That which slopes upwards; which rises or ascends.

The men [of the Alps] leaving their wives and younger children below, do, not without some difficulty, clamber up the *acclivities*, dragging their knee with them.

Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

ACCLIVITY, in a military sense, the slope of a hill, or of any work reckoned upwards, in opposition to its declivity. By some writers on fortification it is used as synonymous with *talus*, but this latter word is of more extensive signification, referring to slopes of every kind.

ACCLOY, or CLOY. Cloy is derived by Skinner from *Claudere*. Junius prefers *Clog*; which Skinner suspects is from *Log*. See CLOY.

"ACLOYE, *v.* (says Tyrrhit) may perhaps mean To cloy; to embarrass with superfluity."

But better is, that a wights long rest
Than *acloye* him of such doing
Of which he witter rede can not sing
And who so it doth, full fonde him self *acloyeth*
For office uncommittid off anuyeth.

Chaucer, fol. 247, col. 3.

No man, of what condition so ever he be, except he haue fester of armes or other learning in some ordinarie exercise, shall have his bodie lustie & his spirit quick; but shall be *acloyed* in all other things, and wander from street to street as a vagebond.

The Golden Bock, chap. xxi.

The mossie mow which these *acloyeth*
My vision small to much annoyeth.
Spenser's Shepherd's Calendar. February.

As then, so winde at all these blow,
No swelling clouds *acloyeth* the air;
The skie, like grom (clowd) of watchet hew,
Reflected Phœbus golden hew.

Spenser's Elegy upon Astrophile.

ACCOLL, or COLL. See COLL.

ACCOLADE, or ACCOLLE, a ceremony of knight-hood, from *ad*, to, and *collum*, the neck, alluding to the embrace which princes gave the new knight. This embrace, however, has been supposed by some to have been no other than a blow on the neck. It was in use among the ancient Normans. Originally it was performed with the naked fist; but was afterwards given with the flat of the sword on the shoulder of the knight. The word occurs in heraldry; sometimes to signify two things joined, or animals with crowns or collars about their necks; and to kevs, battons, maces, or swords, placed behind the shield *settee-wise*.

ACCOMA, a town of New Mexico, in N. America. It stands on a high mountain, and has a strong castle. It is the capital of the province. W. lon. 104° 15', N. lat. 35°.

ACCOMMODATE, *v.* Ad: *commodum*, to the advantage of.
ACCOMMODATE, *adj.* To act to the advantage,
ACCOMMODATELY, or for the benefit, or convenience of. To serve, to suit,
ACCOMMODATION, to adapt, to adjust.
ACCOMMODATOR.

But *utens* it [*sic* speaking in prison of the dead] hath bene approved and allowed of a long tyme, that it ought to be thus done, it becometh me, obeying to the law, to *accommodate* and apply my speyche to the *apoynt*'s will of every one of you, the most that I maye.

Theatride, by *Thos. Noctis*, Lon. 1550, fol. 54.

VOL. XVII.

As a king, which commandeth some goodly building to be erected, 6-th *accommodate* the same to that use and end, to which it was ordained; so it pleased God to command the light to be.

It was ordained; so it pleased God to command the light to be. *Barley's History of the World*. ACCOMPANY.

HAND. Sir, pardon: a souldier is better *accommodated*, then with a wife.

SHALL. It is well said, sir; and it is well said, indeed, too. Better *accommodated* I it is good, yea indeed it is: good phrases are surely, and every where commendable. *Accommodated*. It comes of *accommodate*: very good, a good phrase.

Shakespeare, 2 H. IV. p. 86. act iii. sc. 2.

—Thou art not noble,
For all the *accommodations* that thou bearest,
Are sur'd by baseness.

M. M. for M. p. 70. act iii. sc. 1.

K. Ja. However, what is necessary for you
At your departure, I am well content
You be *accommodated* with.

Ford's Perkin Warbeck, act iv. sc. 3.

It is not the endeavour of Moses or the prophets to *discover* any mathematical or philosophical subtilties; but rather in *accommodate* themselves to vulgar capacities, and ordinary speech, as nurses are wont to use their infants.

Bishop Wilkins, *Mot* and *Phil. Works*.

Though the ultimate design of these parables, and the coming of Christ mentioned therein, refer to the great day of judgment, yet both the duties, and the warnings, which are represented in these parables, seem to be very *accommodate* to the lust of our death.

Watts's Discourses.

Heaven! speed the canvas, gallantly unfurl'd
To furnish and *accommodate* a world.

To give the pole the produce of the sun,
And knit th' annual climates into one!

Cowper's Charity.

ACCOMMODATION, the analogical application of one thing to another. In Theology the term is used to signify the application of scripture to something resembling or analogous to its original purport. A prophecy is said to be fulfilled properly, when what is foretold comes to pass; or by way of accommodation, when any thing occurs to a place or people, similar to what, at some previous period, took place with regard to another.

There is considerable difficulty in the proper application of this mode of interpreting scripture; because it is obvious that if a passage, relating indubitably to one event, may be arbitrarily applied to another, merely because of some supposed or traceable resemblance, ingenious persons, who have no general comprehension of truth, nor any regard to its interests, may employ as many modes of interpretation as they have particular and subordinate purposes to serve. Dr. Owen entirely rejects the principle of accommodation, admitting only a typical signification. Some writers maintain that the rites of the ancient Mosaic law were, for the most part, imitations of the Egyptian and other Gentile observances; and that they were originally designed to abolish idolatry from Israel, who were so strangely addicted to that practice, by providing a substitute in the body of the ceremonial law so constructed. This idea has been considered by others as very questionable, and indeed as wholly untenable. The reader may consult MASON's *Michæas*, vol. i. p. 200—214, and Notes, p. 479—479.

ACCOMPANY, *v.* See COMPANY.
ACCOMPANIMENT.

To go or come together with. To follow or attend upon.

Lo if thou love her, love eke thine honestie
He she not yield, for what well befall,
If she sit idly, of very necessity
Her misde woul search ferre and eke wide

E

ACCOMP-
PANY.
ACCOM-
PLICE.

Namely if she be not *accomplice* :
How *accomplice*d, not with yang men.
But with rascals I mean or women.
Champer, Revels of Love, f. 3. col. 1.

Or like our Quene sail we've been *accomplice* to.
His friends accuse and children shall she be?
*Accomplice*d with many Trai-ne made
And Phrygianes servitude in bondage with his hide?
Dungles, bk. vi. p. 58.

So shall mine eyes in payne *accomplice* my heart,
That were the guides, that I'd be of love to find the smart.
Hyacinth's Complaint of the Finesse of his Love.

Now came still evening on, and twilight grey
H-d in her sober liveli all things dead;
Silence *accomplice*d; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, those to their nests
Were slunk.
Milton's Par. Lost, b. ii.

By our traffic into foreign countries, tho' we many times bring
home light and frivolous toys, yet they are often *accomplice*d with
gold and silver, both in coin and bullion.
Symonds's Dialogue concerning the Coin of the Kingdom.

The earl of Bristol, and secretary Nicholas, using likewise their
pretensions, by (Sir C. Hallett) submitted to the king's pleasure;
who delivered the seal to him in the council, in the Christmas time,
in the year 1657, which particular is only fit to be mentioned,
because many great affairs, and some situations *accomplice*d,
though not attended upon it.
Clarendon's Reflections.

Will most she sing of whom I make my choice,
And with her lot *accomplice* her voice.
Cromwell's Tracts of Obed's Art of Love.

All pretences of conscience are verily really to be suspected, which
are *accomplice*d with turbulent passion and a furious zeal.
Tillotson's Sermons.

In a mind truly virtuous, the scene of vice is always *accomplice*d
with the pity of it.
Spectator, No. 79.

— The Persian dames
(So were *accomplice*d all the eastern fair)
In sumptuous cars *accomplice*d by their maids,
A lascivious train, by Ariana grac'd.
Udine's Leonidas, b. viii.

ACCOMPANIMENT, ACCOMPANIMENTO, ACCOMPAGNA-
TURA, in Music, a vocal or instrumental accessory, which
may consist of an unlimited number of parts, and is
designed to enrich the harmony. The accompaniment
is used in recitative, as well as in song; on the stage,
as well as in the choir, &c. The ancients had different
kinds of instruments to accompany the chorus, from
those which accompanied the actors in the recitation.
Their accompaniments are generally supposed to have
consisted in nothing more than playing in octave, or in
unison to the voice; though the Abbé Fraguier
attempts to prove, but in vain, that they had actual
symphony, or music in parts.

ACCOMPANIMENT, in Painting, objects which are added
for the sake of ornament to the principal figures.

ACCOMPANIMENT, in Heraldry, something added to
a shield by way of ornament. The term is applied also
to several bearings about a principal one; as a salient,
head, &c.

ACCOMPLICE, n. Ad: *complex, plico*; to knit
together.

One who is knitted, joined, or united with another;
who co-operates with, aids or assists another. In ancient
writers it is most commonly found without sex
prefixed.

His *accomplice* all myn in this mada
Shen to there haly adf and drede;
And wote they clearest and leppit in there ames
This Quene that foundest was for his smart harmes.
Dungles, b. xi. p. 324.

Who the Duke of Exeter heard that his *accomplice* were taken, and
his councillors apprehended, and his friends and allies put into pris-
on, he lamented his own chance and beweped the misfortune of
his friends.
Hall, p. 19.

And now of late Duke Humphry's old allies,
With banish'd Eleanor's base *accomplices*,
Attending their revenge, grew wild and rous'd,
And threaten death & vengeance to our house.
Dugdale's Historic Reptiles.

Link'd hand in hand, the *accomplice* and the dove,
Their way exploring to the chamber came.
Dugdale's Gods's Cypres and Myrrha.

And then, the run'd *accomplice* of his treason,
Declare thy means and expect thy doom.
Johnson's Jewes, act v. sc. 1.

The prince who refuses to be judge, instructs his people to con-
sider him as the *accomplice* of his ministers.
Gibbon's Roman Empire.

ACCOMPLISH, v. Ad: *complex*. To fill up
ACCOMPLISHED, v. to; to fulfil.
ACCOMPLISHMENT, v. To fulfil; to perform, exe-
cute fully; to supply, to furnish. To succeed in, to
acquire, to obtain.

And Tullius saith, that great things be not *accomplish*d by
strength, as by deliberateness of body, but by good counsel, by
solicitude of persons, and by science: the which three things
so be not feble by age, but rather they encrease and encrease day
by day.
Champer, Tale of Melcham, vol. ii. p. 88.

From the full *accomplishment* of the things proclaimed, concerning
the reedifying of Hierusalem, which *accomplishment* and ful-
fillment of the works was done in the 32 of Darius Longi.

The *Exposition of Daniel*, by George Aysc, p. 160.

What with his tenants, servants, followers, friends,
And their alliances and amities;
All that shun universally stands
His hand, help up to any enterprise.
With which *accomplishments* so mighty grows,
Forward he tends with hope to attain a crown.
Daniel's Civil Wars, book v.

So shall my word that goeth forth out of my mouth; it shall not
return unto me void, but it shall *accomplish* that which I please.
Isaiah, lvi. 11.

To whom our general ancestor replied,
"Daughter of God and man, *accomplish*d Eve."

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

If we consider the moon as another habitable earth, then the ap-
pearances of it will be altogether exact and beautiful, and may argue
us so that it is fully *accomplish*d for all those ends to which Pro-
vidence did appoint it.

Dr. Wilkins's Mathematical and Philosophical Works.

Or grant, that with extreme surprise,
We find ourselves at study, woe;
And twenty pretty things are known,
Of which we can't *accomplish* one.

Prior's Alma, canto iii.

When I went abroad, I first went to the Hague, where gaming
was much in fashion, and where I observed that many people of
shining rank and character gam'd too. I was then young enough,
and easily enough, to believe that gaming was one of their *accomplish-
ments*.
Chatterfield's Letters.

I'll make a proof, how I advance in
My new *accomplishment* of dancing.

Charcoal's Ghost, book iii.

ACCOMPLISHMENT, in Theology, is a term used in
speaking of events predicted by the Jewish prophets in
the Old Testament, and fulfilled under the New. Vario-
us distinctive words are used to designate particular
kinds of accomplishment, as the literal, the mystical,
the spiritual. Those prophecies, in which the Jews
find an accomplishment about the period when they
were first uttered, are called Jewish; those which
Christians apply to Christ, or the era of his dispensa-
tion, derive a distinctive epithet from this circum-
stance.

ACCOM-
PLICE.
ACCOM-
PLISH.

AC.
COMPT.

ACCOMPT, n.

ACCOUNT, v.

ACCOUNT, n.

ACCOUNTABLE.

ACCOUNTANT, adj.

ACCOUNTANT, n.

ACCOUNTING.

advantage. To value, to esteem, to regard.

Liste & I will rede the parcels what amountes,

If any man in dede wille kende in accounts.

R. Bruner, p. 135.

And many of hem that ascenden curiouse thingis broughten togidre
boken and brennynde hem before alle men, and whaene the prais of
the weren accusid that founden in many of fifti thousande penes,
to strenght the word of god wexide and was coutermyd.

Wicklyf, *Doct.*, chap. xix.

And thus ben thei the worst of all
of hem, whiche reioys we with full
to dede both, and eke in thought.
For thei accomptes their wrathought,
But it there be shudgye of blood.

Gower, *Con. A.* bk. iii.

And whan thei wroth both alofte,
This leures began to mouste.
And of the counseill thus accompte
He wt, whiche his fader taught,
Til that the sonne his wynges caught.

Id. *Con. A.* bk. 4.

At the dreadful day of dome, where dede men shullen ryse
And cunnen alle bi fow Crist, a cowntes to elde
How we labele oure lyfe here, and bus lawes kepte,
And how we dede day by day.

Finnis of Piers Plowman, repts. 1813, p. 164.

Men hat ben ryche
Aren a cowntable to Crist, and to the kyng of brene.
R. repts. 1813, p. 218.

Cut off euen in the blossomes of my sinne,
Vnboasted, disappointed, vnnazeld,
No reckening made, but sent to my account
With all my imperfections on my head.

Shakespeare's *Ham.* p. 238, act i. sc. 5.

ANAL. I make my judge my jury; he accomptant,
Whether, with all the sagacious of spleens,
Of a suspicious rage can plead, thou hast
Enfer'd the likelihood of scandal.

Ben Jonson's Indis Trial, act iv. sc. 2.

For this cause chiefly we thought it good, to yelde up an accompt
of our faith in writing.

Jewel's Defence.

I know others have treated already of the same subject, and given
a laudable account of the City of London, but gold may often be
told over without feeling the fingers.

Howell's Laudisopolis, Dedication.

An humble man looks upon all his plenty and prosperity, not as
his own, or the reward of his desert, but as the depositum of the
Great Master of the family of heaven and earth; talents entrusted
to him as a steward, and an accomptant to employ for his master's
use, service and honour.

Hall's Contemplations.

The opinions of more worlds than one has in ancient times been
accounted a heresy.

Bp. Wilkins's Met. and Phil. Works.

To love's account they plac'd their death of late,
And now transfer the sad account to fate.

Parrot's Epigram.

We are held
Accountable; and God, some future day,
Will reckon with us roughly for th' abuse,
On what he deems no mean or trivial trust.

Cowper's Task, b. vi.

I know no beast in England whose voice I do not account musical,
save and except always the baying of an ass. *Cowper's Letters*.

ACCOUNT, or ACCOUNT, a mode of reckoning by
numbers. It is particularly used to express the series
of books which merchants and bankers have to record
their transactions.

ACCOUNT is also a term employed to signify the
computation of time: as the Julian, the Gregorian
Account.

ACCOUNT, or ACCOMPT (*computus*), in Law, a writ or
action which lies against a bailiff who refuses to render
the detail of his transactions in behalf of a lord or
of others. The most liberal and extensive action is
for money had and received by defendant to plaintiff's
use. This form of action is equivalent to a bill to
equity; and will lie, in most cases, where money is in
the hands of a person, belonging to another, the pay-
ment of which is refused. In the process of outlawry,
the stat. 13 Ed. III. c. 23, gives an action of account to
the executors of a merchant; the stat. 25 Ed. III. c. 5,
to executors of executors; the stat. of 31 Ed. III. c. 11,
to administrators; and by the stat. 3 and 4 Ann. c. 16,
actions of account may be brought against the exe-
cutors and administrators of every guardian, bailiff
and receiver; and by one jointenant, tenant in com-
mon, his executors and administrators, against the
other as bailiff, for receiving more than his share, and
against their executors and administrators; and the
auditors appointed by the court may examine the party
on oath.

ACCOUNTANT, or ACCOUNTANT, a person professing to
treat, to keep, or to revise accounts: in a more limited
sense, an officer appointed to keep the accounts of a
public company.

ACCOUNTANT-GENERAL, an officer in the court of
chancery, appointed to receive all monies lodged in court
instead of the masters, and to deposit them for security
in the bank of England. No fees can be taken, on pain
of being punished for extortion.

ACCOUNTS, PUBLIC, *Commissioners of*, five persons
appointed, by letters-patent, under the act of 25 Geo.
III. c. 52, invested with the powers formerly entrusted to
the 'Auditors of the Imprest,' "to examine and
state in what manner, and at what times, the receipts,
issues, and expenditures of the public monies are ac-
counted for; and to consider and report by what means
and methods the public accounts may in future be passed,
and the accountants compelled to pay the balances
due from them in a more expeditious and less expensive
manner."

ACCORD, v.

ACCORD, n.

ACCORDABLE.

ACCORDANCE.

ACCORDANT.

ACCORDANT, adj.

ACCORDING, n.

ACCORDING, v.

TO agree, to conform, to comply,
to grant.

Hii cude away mild & sweet, & turnde al to loue,
An hynde for to cote, & her felle in effer syde,
þo hi i wys hem accorded, vnto þoþe lode þu cryde
As songe, To þeum laudans, offer in þe noue,
As to gode weende, & cude hem oþer aboute.

R. Glosener, p. 309.

þi hii were to þe batelle fress in eþþer syde,
Some frend hym by þe gie bet, & bytwee hem goode ryde
k. 2

AC.
COMPT.
ACCORD.

ACCORD.

And made *accord* betweene them, but þe kyng addis all þat lond,
Edified by gode Humour, silence in þe bond.

R. Gloucester, p. 237.

Thus is relation rect. eight as adjectif & substantif
Accord is alle kynde, which is antecedent
Indirect þing fy, as he so coveted
Alle kyng kynde, to knowe and to folwe
Wi quite cause to takee two, and come to be þe sumbere.

Faunt of Flora Wisdomen, repr. 1813, p. 56.

For in the dai surges be apperide to hem chidryng, and he ac-
corded hem in pena and acide, men ghe ben britheren, whi noȝen
ghe oth ethre?

Wielſ, Deba, chap. vii.

Of instruments, of strings in *accord*
Heard I so play, a rausching sweetness
That God, that makre is of all and Lord,
No heard never better, as I geue
Therewith a wind, vaneth it might be leuen
Made in the leaues grene, and noiſe soft
Accordant to the founes song on left.

Chaucer, The dreamer of Floure, fol. 246, col. 1.

Throughout the world if it were sought,
Faith words yough a man shall finde it,
They be good chape, they cost right nought,
Their substance is but only wintre!
But well to say, and so to menue,
That sweete *accord* is million menue.

Hyar.

Nyle ghe berre the glock with unſeifful men, for what parting of
rightwyseneſſe with wickednes? or what felowſchipe of light with
darkenes? or what *accord* of crist to belin? or what part of
a ſeifful with the unſeifful? and what coſent to the temple of
God with mawmyn?

Wielſ, 2 Cyneth, chap. vi.

Charlys ber him so lightly that he slewe of the Pagays an
excoſynge nombre, to be *accordant* with reaso.

Folysen, repr. 1811, p. 133.

Where she sat in a fresh greene laury tree
On the further side sunn right by me
That gaze so passing a delicious meal
According to the elegance full well.

Chaucer, The Floure and the Leafte, fol. 366, col. 4.

But moſt *accordingly* it [the kyngdome of West Saxen] ſhould
be releſed from the ſtrey yre of Cerdicus to the laſte yre of
Aluredus, for he made nœ monerchy of al vii kyngdomes.

Folysen, p. 80.

Res. If, duke of Burgenie, you would this peere
Whome wast givest growth to th' imperfect
Which you have cited; you must buy that peace
With full *accord* to all our iust demands,
Whose treasures and particular effects
You haue encheatid briefly in your hands.

Shakespeare, Hen. 5, p. 92, act v. sc. 2.

But wooe her, gentle Paris, get her heart,
My will to her consent, is but a part;
And shee agree, within her scope of choise,
Lyes my content, and faire *accord*ing voice.

Id. Rom. & Jul, 55, act i. sc. 2.

Laf. But I hope your Lordshippe thinke not him a scouldier.
Res. I do assure you, my Lord, he is very great in knowledge and
accordingly valiant.

Id. All's Well, p. 210, act ii. sc. 5.

So can they both themselves full oath persuade
To faire *accordance*, and both faults to shade,
Eyther embracing other lovingly,
And swearing faith to eyther as his blisde,
Neuer thenceforth to miserie runny.
But eyther others came to maintaine mutually.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. v. cant. viii.

Because the Father, to whom in heaven supreme
Kingdome, and power, and glory appertain,
Hath honour'd me *accord*ing to his will,
Therefore to me their doing he hath assign'd.

Milton's Par. Lost, b. vii.

Whither also came Hubert de Burgh, escaped out of prison, and
joins them; [the confederate lords; the earls of Chester, Gloucester,

and others,] taking intermutual oaths. That no one without other
should make their *accord*.

Baker's Chronicle.

ACCORD.

ACCOST.

To do our endeavour or our best, is not to be understood equally
in all the periods of our life, *according to the work or effect itself*, not
according to our natural powers, but it is accounted for by the general
measures and great periods of our life.

By Taylor's Polymath Discourses.

Cleopatra, the daughter of Philip, and sister to Alexander the
Great, being married against Antigonus, of her own accord, inclined
to Ptolemy, and left Surdes, to go unto him.

Usher's Annals.

The heroes pray'd, and Pallas, from the skies,
Accords their vow, succeeds their enterprises.

Pope's Hom. Il. b. x.

If men are treated *according to reason*, they must be treated *ac-*
cordant to what they are: the virtuous, the just, the compassionate,
Ac. as such, and the vicious, unjust, cruel, &c. *according to what they*
are.

Woodlark's Religion of Nature Delineated.

Yes, magic lyre! now all complete
Thy slender frame responsive rings;
While kindred notes, with undulation sweet,
Accordant wake from all thy vocal strings.

Mum's Ode on Æthel Harp.

Analogical reasoning is not, in all cases, to be rejected. It may
afford a greater or a less degree of probability, *according as* the
things compared are more or less similar in their nature.

Reid's Essays on the Powers of the Human Mind.

Christ had told his disciples, that, when he should "be taken from
them, then they should fast." *Accordingly*, the primitive Christians
used to fast oft.

Burnet's History of the Reformation.

It strikes me as a very observable instance of providential kind-
ness to man, that such an exact *accord* has been coördinated between
his ear, and the sounds which, at least in a rural situation,
it is almost every moment visited.

Cowper's Letters.

ACCORD, in Law, a verbal agreement between two
or more persons, to satisfy an offence which one has
committed against another by some recompense.

ACCORD, in Music, is synonymous with concord, or
sometimes with chord.

ACCORD, in Painting, the harmony which pervades
the lights and shades of a picture.

ACCOST', or } Latus lateri jaguam, says Skin-
ACCOST', } ner, from the LAT. COSSA.

ACCOSTABLE, } To go near to, to the coast or
side of, to approach; and then,

To speak to, to direct the discourse to, to address.

No is there hacker which mangleth her on perch,
Whether high tower-ing or avowning low,
But I the measure of her flight doo mure,
And all her pray, and all her diet know:
Such be our joys which in these frowns grev.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. vi. cant. ii.

The French are a free, debonnaire, agreeable people; both men
and women.

Hume's Letters.

Lapland hath since been often surrounded (so much as accords the
me) by the English.

Feller's Warlike, in Derogation.

He had no sooner perpetrated his crime, than thousands horrors
haunted him night and day. He thus accosts the devil: "Oh wretch!"
says he, "it is thou which hast destroyed me!"

Guarison, No. 148.

Now off at sea, and from the shallows clear,
As far as human voice could reach the ear,
With taunts the distant quail I accost,
"Hear me, O Cyclop! Hear, aggressive beast!"

Pope's Hum. Od. bk. x.

As these I sing, a solemn sound
Accosts mine ear; I look'd around,
And lo! an ancient sage
Hard by an ivy'd oak stood near,

Pope's Hum. Od. bk. x.

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Pope's Hum. Od. bk. x.

ACCOST.

—
AC-
CROACH.

That forc'd the case, where many a year
Had been his hermitage.

Mickle's Ode on Knowledge.

If you would convince a person of his mistake, accost him not upon that subject when his spirit is ruffled or discomposed with any circumstances of life; and especially when he has heated his passions in the defence of a contrary opinion.

Watts's Improvement of the Mind.

ACCOUPLE, or COUPLE. See COUPLE.

The young galleons of France had roves guarded with one colour, cut in two or twelve parties very richly to behold; and so all the English men accepted themselves with the French men lovingly together, and so rode to London.

Groffon, repr. 1809. vol. ii. p. 256.

ACCOURAGE. See COURAGE: used as we now use Encourage.

After two years Philometer obtained helce of the Romans to recover his lost cities, and then encouraged of the Romans he expelled his enemies tyrannic hands and army.

The Expressions of Daniel by George Jago, p. 198.

ACCOUNT, v. } Sax. Cūþ, is the p. p. of Cūn-
ACCOUNTMENT, } ORN. to know. ACCOUNT is, to try, to prove.

To account, then, may be to provide with arms, tried, proved: but subsequently applied generally, To provide with dress, trappings, ornaments, equipments.

Uncouth is by Fairfax also applied to an armed man. In the edition of Chaucer, quoted by Junius and by Tyrwhit (i. v. Timberterre), we find *Yecote*,—in Speght, 1598, it is merely *Cote*.

There was many a timberterre
And milours, that I dare well weere
Yowre bar craft full perfectly,
The timberis up full sottilly
Thei casten, and heuþ þen full oft
Upon a finger false and soft,
That thei en failed never mo.

R. R. 769.

When we survey the bare out-works of this our globe; when we see so vast a body, actuated with so noble a furniture of air, light, and gravity; with every thing, in short, that is necessary to the preservation and security of the globe itself—what else can be concluded, but that all was made with manifest design?

Derham's Physico-Theology.

Nat. jun. What feuler object in the world than to see a young, fair, handsome beauty, unhandsonely dighten, and incongruously accoutred?

Messinger's Fatal Downy, act iv. sc. 1.

With such accoutrements, with such a form,
Much like a porpise, just before a storm,
Onward he rose.

Churchill's Independence.

ACCREDIT, v. Ad: *credo*. To trust to. To give trust or confidence to: to give that consequence or importance which arises from trust or confidence.

I am better pleased, indeed, that he (the Analytical Reviewer) censures some things, than I should have been with unmitigated commendation; for his censure will (to use the new diplomatic term) accredit his praises.

Cropper's Letters.

ACCREDIT, v. } Ad: *credo* (a *creo*.) To grow
ACCREDIT, v. } to. Growing to. Adding to.
ACCREDIT, v. } augmenting.

What we call a false stone, and is often found in grand pits amongst us, being of an hemispherical figure, hath five double lines arising from the center of its basis, which if an overcast direct them, do commonly concur and meet in the pole thereof.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

ACCROACH, v. See ENCROACH.

In semblant (as men sayre) is gile,
And that was proved thilke while.
The ship, which wende his helpe accroache,
Druke all to peeces on the roche.

Gower. Con. d. h. ii.

And fire, when it to towne approacheth,
To hym anone the strength accroacheth;
Till with his hete it be deuoured,
The towne may not be succoured.

Gower. Con. d. h. v.

AC-
CROACH,
—
ACCUBA-
TION.

ACCROCHE, or ACCROCHE, in Heraldry, a French term which denotes a thing's being hooked with another; or a charge hooked together.

ACCROCH, in Law, from the French *accrocher*, to grapple to, to encroach. It is used to signify delay. Thus in French *accrocher un procès*, is to stay the proceedings in a suit.

ACCURIE, or } Croy; crea; is in Sax. a crowd, a
ACCURIE, v. } crew.

ACCURMENT. } To accrue may therefore mean to crowd or swarm together. To add to, or increase the number or quantity of; to arise, or spring from; to be produced or derived from, in addition, or accession.

But toward the end six Arthegal renewed
His strength still more, but she still more decreed.
At last his luckless hand he leu'd it on high,
Having his fowls all in one accured,
And therewith strike at her so hideouslie,
That seemed nought but death wote be her destinie.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. iv. cant. vi.

I cannot imagine what *accurements* will hence (as *ex tempore* pro) come to the public: it may be, some advantages may be to the private interests of man.

Dr. Taylor's Apologie for Authorised and Set Formes of Liturgie.

We must love them [our wives] as dearly as one of our limbs, & be as kind to them as we are to ourselves; for, indeed, in being affectionate to them, we make them so to us, and the advantage finally accrues to ourselves, so that we must love them for our own sakes.

Comenius's Companion to the Temple.

Good men consult their party as little as their judgment and experience, when they admit the great and essential advantages accruing to society from the freedom of the press, yet indulge themselves in peevish or passionate exclamations against the abuses of it.

Junius's Letters, Pref.

Know, your arrears with every hour accrue,

For mercy shows, while woe is justly due.

Gower's Conteritum.

ACCUBATION, from the Latin *accubare*, compounded of *ad*, to; and *cubo*, I lie down; a posture of the body at table between sitting and lying. The Greeks first used this posture, which was originally borrowed from the eastern nations. Homer represents his heroes as seated round the wall, with a table before each, on which was placed his separate portion of meat and drink. He mentions three descriptions of seats: *Δίππερ*, containing two persons, and usually occupied by persons of the nearest condition; *Θήριον*, on which they sat upright, with a footstool for the feet: *Κλυστρύς*, on which they sat leaning backwards. Sitting, according to the present European fashion, appears to have been the most ancient posture at table, and deemed the most honourable. It obtained in almost every country with which history or tradition have made us acquainted. Philo observes, that Joseph ordered his brethren to sit according to their ages. (lib. de Joseph.) No man in Macedonia was permitted to sit at meals till he had killed a boar without the aid of nets; and on an occasion in which Alexander the Great entertained four hundred commanders, he placed them upon silver seats, covered with purple cloth.

During the ages of the republic, the Romans sat at meat: thus Virgil,

"Perpetuis soliti patres conastere mensis."

Æn. 8.

ACCUBATION.

Horace describes the order of sitting, in the eighth satire of the second book:

*Suavius ego & propius me Viceris Sabius, & Iulia,
84 memini, Varus: cum Servilio Baldrone
Vilidus, quon Meccius adloqueret umbras;
Nomenclatus erat super ipsius, Porcius Iulius.*

The habit of reclining at table was no doubt introduced in consequence of that luxury and indulgence which gradually superseded the hardness of earlier times. At first it was only adopted by the men; children, women, servants, and persons in general of inferior condition, continuing to sit at meals. As luxury, however, overcame the sense of delicacy, women did not hesitate to recline. Hence Suetonius mentions, that at an entertainment of the emperor Caligula, he placed all his sisters below himself, *uxore supra cubante*, 'his wife lying above him.'

The method of arranging themselves at table was as follows:—A low round table was placed in the *cœnaculum*, or dining-room, called also *cenatio*; and, about this, usually three, sometimes only two, beds or couches; and according to their number, it was called *bichinium* or *trichinium*. These were covered with a sort of bedclothes, richer or plainer according to the quality of the person, and furnished with quilts and pillows, that the guests might lie the more commodiously. There were usually three persons on each bed; to crowd more was esteemed sordid. In eating, they lay down on their left sides, with their heads resting on the pillows, or rather on their elbows. The first lay at the head of the bed, with his feet extended behind the back of the second; the second lay with the back of his head towards the navel of the first, only separated by a pillow, his feet behind the back of the third; and so of the third or fourth. The middle place was esteemed the most honourable. Before they came to table, they changed their clothes, putting on what they called *cenatoria vestis*, the dining garment; and pulled off their shoes, to prevent soiling the couch. *PETISC. Lex. Ant.*

Infra aliquem cubare is the same as lying in one's bosom, which is mentioned in the Gospel of St. John, when at table with Jesus.

At the commencement of an entertainment, the posture which they assumed was usually wholly recumbent, with their breasts against the pillows; afterwards they leaned on the elbow. If they were indisposed for conversation, the recumbent position was maintained, which is often represented in ancient sculpture.

From the period of the heroic ages, the guests were arranged at table according to their rank; so that persons of the greatest distinction had the uppermost seats, and subsequently a *nomenclator* was employed at public entertainments to call every guest by name to his proper place. The heroes seem to have been ranged in long ranks, and the chief personages at the top of each row on both sides of the table. Thus, in the ninth Iliad, Achilles places himself uppermost on one side, and Ulysses on the other, when he entertains the ambassadors of Agamemnon,

—ὅς τ' ἔπειτα πρὸς Ἀχιλλεύῳ
ἄφρονι φέρειν ἴδ' ἐλθέειν θέλει
Ταίης ἐδ' ἑλίου.—

In Persia, the middle place was accounted the most honourable, and always given to the king; in Greece,

the nearest to the table; at Rome, the last or uppermost part of the middle bed or couch was the place of greatest distinction. In convivial and friendly parties, the arrangement of the guests was often not very solicitously observed; attention being paid rather to convenience or suitability of age, profession or known inclinations, to loquaciousness or taciturnity. The Pharisees, and others among the Jews, appear to have been extremely particular of their situation at table, considering it as involving the question of respectability: hence our Saviour's language, "the Scribes and the Pharisees love the uppermost rooms at feasts, and the chief seats in the synagogues." (Mat. xxiii. 6.) Plutarch records a singular instance of feeling, with regard to this point of honour. At a splendid entertainment given by Timon, in which every one was desired to recline in whatever place he preferred, a certain person came in a very elegant dress and attended by a numerous retinue; but no sooner had he approached the door, and taken a view of the guests, who had already arranged themselves in the room, than he suddenly withdrew; and being followed by several of the company, who eagerly inquired the cause of this proceeding, he remarked, "there was no fit place left for him." See MISCELLANIES, Plate II.

ACCUM'BENT, *n.* } Ad: *cumbo*. To lie or lean
ACCUM'BENT, *adj.* } to.

"Now there was leaning on Jesus bosom one of his disciples whom Jesus loved;" which gesture will not so well agree unto position of sitting, bed is natural, and cannot be avoided in the laws of accubation. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

ACCUM'BER. See CUMBER, ENCUMBER. Used as we now use ENCUMBER.

He sette not his bencher to hire,
And lette his shepe ascounde in the mire,
And ran unto London, unto Seint Pauls,
To asken him a chanerrie for woules,
Or with a butchered to be withold;
But dwelt at home, and kepte wel his fold.

Chaucer. Prologue to the Parson's Tale, vol. i. p. 21.

Alas, the clear cristall, the bright translucent glasse,
Duth not betray the colours hid which underneath it lase,
As doth th' *accumbent* aprise the thoughtfull throughe discusse,
Of feares deite of secret love that in hartes we crosse.

Wyll.

A little time his yoft is agreeable,
But ful *accumbent* is the ruing
For misted slowny the disceivable
Full often thus counsels doursouring
Thus ben we ever in drede and reding

Chaucer. The Complaint of Unnes, fol. 327, col. 1.

ACCUM'ULATE, *v.*

ACCUM'ULATE, *adj.*

ACCUMULATION,

ACCUMULATIVE,

ACCUMULATIVE.

By this meaning and pilosity thys Alexander gat, accumulated, and heaped up a great summe of money.

Hall, p. 492.

For her submy pion made to hym, he negligences Goddes lawes,
hoerel order, and Christyan religio, promysyng to accomaite
mychishe upon mychishe, desyred of her the mariage of her
daughter hys naturall nyce, whiche thyng he woulde not have
thought lykely to have obteyned.

Id. p. 431.

Great Stratford! worthy of that name, though all
Of thee should be forgotten, but thy fall,
Crush'd by imaginary treason's weight,
Which too much courage did accumulate.

Denham, on the Earl of Strafford's Trial and Death.

The greatness of sin is, in most instances, by extension and accumulation.
Taylor's Potemal Discourses.

ACCUBATION.

—
ACCUMULATIVE.

ACCUMULATING. Sparring, and accumulating without reason or use, is both sin and folly. *Sweden's Sermons.*

The speculator, when he has carefully observed how much may be performed by a single hand, calculates, by a very easy operation, the force of thousands, and goes on accumulating power till resistance vanishes before it.

Advertiser, No. 45.

It fares the land, to hastening like a prey,
Where wealth accumulates, and men decay!
Goldsmith's Unhappy Pilgrims.

The miser, who accumulates his annual income, and lends it out at interest, has really spent it in the gratification of his avarice.
Hume's Essays.

ACCUMULATION, among lawyers, refers to the coacervation of titles to the same thing, or of several circumstances in the same evidence.

ACCUMULATION, in Heraldry, is the addition of some new honour or honours to the shield by marriage, military achievement, or by the special leave of the heraldic authorities. It is synonymous with the modern term "quartering of arms."

ACCUMULATION, in Agriculture, was an ancient term used by the Romans to express the covering up the roots of trees with the earth which previously surrounded them. Affluence is directly opposed to this method.

ACCUMULATION of Degrees is the assumption of several of them together, or at shorter periods than is allowed by the regulations of an university.

ACCUMULATIVE TREASON has sometimes, by a violent construction of the law, been acted upon, where no single circumstance of the case would of itself have amounted to treason. The most memorable occurrence perhaps of this description in English history was that of the trial of Lord Strafford, in the reign of Charles I., to which the poet DENHAM so happily alludes in the preceding quotation.

ACCURACY,	} Ad: cura, care.
ACCURATE,	
ACCURATELY,	
ACCURATENESS,	

Care, caution; and consequently, correctness, freedom from fault or error.

The knowledge of one action, or one simple idea, is oftentimes sufficient to give me the notion of a relation: but to the knowing of any substantial being, an accurate collection of sundry ideas is necessary.

Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding.

That the earth, speaking according to philosophical accurateness, doth move upon its own poles, and on the religious, is now the received opinion of the most learned and skilful mathematicians.
Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

Thus nicely trifling, accurately dull,
How one may tell, and tell—as he is fool.

Mallet's Fustal Criticism.

Let us consider whether logic is, or may be made, subservient to any good purpose. Its professed end is to teach men to think, to judge and to reason, with precision and accuracy.

Reid's Analysis of Aristotle's Logic.

The more accurately we search into the human mind, the stronger traces we every where find of his wisdom who made it.
Burke's Sublime and Beautiful.

ACCURSE. See CURSE.

Hil miggie aora je fole quon, jat Sejut Edward slou.
R. Gloucester, p. 296.

He accursed alle thulke men, that he habbe worth throught,
That of us false preste no abbe ske him nougt.

Ch. p. 474.

— Drede ju sh je late
Lost Crist in his caritative of yow a curse menje.
Finn of Peter Pluckman, reprint, 1813, p. 7.

But though we or an angel of heave prechide to ghou ACCURSE, binds that that we has prechid to ghou, binds that that we has prechid to gen, be he accursed, as I have said before, and now ACCURSE. Alsoone I sen, if any preche to ghou binds that that ghe has undungen, be he accursed.

Wiel, Galathes, chap. 1.

His eye two for pils of his bet
Out stream'd—as an swift as welles two
The high sides of his eures apart
His speck him left, venicles might be sey
O death alas, why wilt thou do me day
Accursed by that day which that nakere
Shope me to be a liue creature.

Chaucer, Fourth Booke of Troilus, fol. 177, col. 3.

Neurthelous though we sure wolve, or an angel from heave,
preche any othes gowt unto you, the that which we has preched
vnto you, holde him as a cursed. As I myde before, so saw I now
sayne, yf any manne preche any othes thynge vnto you, then
that ye have receivd, holde him accursed.

Bible, Lund. 1551.

But when he saw y^e he myght not reconeye them by day
means, he than went expostulate, & denouncid them accursed, but
if they restored the goods of the Church by a settyen day.

Felton, p. 275.

F. I am accursed to rob in that theefe's company: that nasall
hath remoud my horse, and tied him I know not where.

Shakespeare, 1 H. IV. p. 54, act ii. sc. 2.

— Fast by, hanging in a gelbs chain,
This penitent world, in liquor as a sin
Of smallest magnitude, close by the moon,
Thither, full fraught with mischievous revenge,
Accurs'd, and in a cursed hour he flies.

Milton's Par. Lost, li. ii.

Accursed is he that, gueth the name and glorie of God unto a
creature that is no God.

Arden's Apophry.

The Council of Gangra accurs'd those who make a difference
between married and unmarried priests.

Cramer's Companion to the Temple.

Heavy, O Lord! on me thy judgments lay,
Accurs'd I am, while God rejects my cry;
O'erwhelm'd in darkness and despair I groan,
And every place is Hell, for God is gone.
Frederick's Consideration on Psalm lxxxviii.

Danger, whose limbs of Giant mould,
What mortal eye can erst behold?
And with him thousand phantoms join'd
Who prompt, to deeds accurs'd, the mind.

Colin's Ode to Fear.

ACCURSED, a term used in the Hebrew language synonymously with crucified; for whoever died upon a tree was considered as accursed. "If a man have committed a sin worthy of death, and he be to be put to death, and thou hang him on a tree; his body shall not remain all night upon the tree, but thou shalt in any wise bury him that day—for he that is hanged is accursed of God." Deut. xxi. 23.

ACCUSE, v.	Ad: causa, a cause. "The accusation" (in the common version) set above the head of Jesus Christ at his crucifixion, is called by Wielit "The Cause."
ACCUSABLE,	To bring a cause or case, or charge against.
ACCUSANT,	
ACCUSATION,	
ACCUSATIVE,	
ACCUSATORY,	
ACCUS'ER,	

As Conscience to the kynge a wurde him bope
And sevic Syon Kfing by Crist late clerke amende
Thi kyngdom fore here courtynge, wol cot of kynis wofude
And holy chaunce jowr hon woth harmed for even.
Finn of Peter Pluckman, reprint, 1813, p. 36.

Nyle ye grase that I sen to accuse you meritis the fadir; it is
Mores that accurs'd you in whom ye lisen. For if ye beleveden
to Meynes penitence ye schulden bliue also to me: for he swet
of me. But if ya bliuon not to hase letten's ow schulen ye bliue
to my wordis?
Wiel, Jon. chap. 5.

ACCUSE. To which I answer, that it is not custom to ransome to damage any man before that he is accused have his accusers present, and take place of defending to putte awei the crymes that ben putt agens him.

Wiclyf, Ordin, chap. xiv.

To whom I answered: It is not the manner of y^e Romayne for favour to delivour any man that he shuld pene, before that he whiche is accused, have y^e accusers before hym, and have licence to answer for him selfe concerninge the cryme layde agaynst him.

Bible, 1539.

Therefore I bid wente out without forth to hem and wide, what wronge bringes he agens this man? then answeren and seiden to him, if this were not a mynyere we hadden not bitaken him to thee.

Wiclyf, Jon. chap. xviii.

O cruel day, *accuser of the ioy*
That night and love have stole and fast yuvio
Accused be thy coming into Troy.

Clauser, Third booke of Troilus, fol. 174, col. 2.

Thus cometh *accusor*, as when a man seeketh occasion to annoyne his neighbour which is like the craft of the devil, that waiteth both day and night, to accuse us all.

B. The Perennant Tale, vol. ii. p. 324.

And now they beyng beat of both sydes, with burnynge hartes they prepare they *accusations* they runne to y^e iudges.

Erasmus, Para. of N. T. by P. Udall, Mus. ch. 5, fol. 22, col. 2.

Ere hym self with the foremost can stand
Under the walls pattern to his hand
To assault, and with loose vom on hys
The kyng Latines fast accuse he:
Drawwand the golden wytnes, how agens
He is constrainynt on fies to moue bargaine.

Douglas, bk. xlii. p. 431.

And dorged Yorke, that reaches at the moone,
Whose sur-revenging arme I have pluckt back,
By false accuse doth leuell at my life.

Shakespeare, 2 H. VI. p. 131. act iii. sc. 1.

I am sorry my integrity shoul breed
So deepe suspicion, where all faith was meant;
We come not by the way of accusation,
To taint that honour every good tongue blesses.

Id. H. VIII. p. 218. act iv. sc. 1.

ACCUSEUR. Alas, my lord, hang me if ever I spake the words: my accuser is my practice, and when I did correct him for his fault the other day, he did yve upon his knees he would be swan with me.

Id. 2 H. VI. p. 124. act i. sc. 3.

— Prepare you, lords,
Summon a session, that we may arraigun
Our most displayd lady: for as she hath
Bene publickly arraid, so shall she have
A tust and open trial.

M. Wier, T. p. 286. act ii. sc. 3.

Thus they in mutual accusation spent
The fruitless hours, but neither self-convincing,
And of their vain contest appear'd no end.

Milton's Par. Lost, bk. ix.

A good cause receives more injury from a weak defence than from a frivolous accusation.

Andrew Marvell's Works, Pref.

Other creatures [besides men] have not judgment to examine the quality of that which is done by them; and therefore in that they do, they neither can accuse nor approve themselves.

Hobbes's Ecclesiastical Polity.

Notwithstanding all thy banishes here, thy own conscience shall be not only thy accuser and witness, but thy judge and executioner too.

Stillingfleet's Sermons.

If virtue or gratitude should prove too strong for temptation, and a young man persist in honesty, however instigated by his passions, what can secure him at last against false accusation?

Adventurer, No. 62.

She [Fancy] bids the flattering mirror, form'd to please
Now blast my hope, now vindictive despair;
Bids my fond verse the love-sick parody cease;
Accuse my rigid fate, acquit my fair.

Schrauter's Elegy to the Winds.

He who accuses another to the state, must not appear himself unmoved by the view of crimes with which he charges him, lest he should be suspected of fiction, or of precipitancy, or of a consciousness that, after all, he shall not be able to prove his allegations.

Cropper's Letters.

ACCUSATION signifies, in law, the imputation of a crime or fault to any person; such a nature as exposes the individual, against whom it is preferred, to judicial punishment.

In Rome, there was no *calumniator publicus*, or public accuser, for public crimes; every one might prosecute crimes that had a bad public tendency. Lord Kaimes remarks, that this was a faulty institution, because such a privilege given to individuals could not fail to be frequently made the instrument of venting private ill-will and revenge. Cato, though innocent, was accused forty-two times. The accusation of private crimes was received only from those who were immediately concerned.

Vossius distinguishes between the three terms of the Roman law, accusation, postulatio, and delatio, in the following manner:—accusatio expressed the final presentation of a charge; postulatio, leave granted to bring it; delatio, the first exhibition of it to the judge.

By the laws of Pompey, a. v. c. 702, the accusers were allowed two hours for pleading their cause and the party accused three hours for a reply.

By the laws of the Inquisition, a person is necessitated to accuse himself of whatever crime may be imputed to him. On the slightest report that a person is a heretic, or even that he is suspected of heresy, an inquisitor will receive the denunciation of a stranger, who generally abuses the office of accuser, because, if he should fail in his proof, he is exposed to the law of retaliation. The unhappy culprit is now visited with all the terrors of the institution, to induce him to self-crimination, which has urged the confession of whatever has been imputed, and even the voluntary invention of crimes that had no existence.

By the old French law, the procureur-general only, or his deputies, can form an accusation, except for high treason and coining, where accusation is open to all. In other cases, private persons can only become denouncers.

By the constitution of England, no man in this country can, generally, be imprisoned or condemned on any accusation, without trial. No man can be vexed with any accusation, but according to the law, nor molested by petition to the king, unless it be by indictment or presentment of lawful men, or by process at common law. No person is obliged to answer upon oath to any question respecting any crime by which he criminate himself.

The institution of a grand jury is admirably calculated to prevent groundless accusations, and to restrain the servile zeal of public prosecutors. Before a party can be put on his trial, the grand jury of the county must 'find a bill' against him, that is, declare on oath that the evidence brought before them is sufficient to warrant a trial. This jury consists of twenty-four freeholders, chosen by the sheriff.

Political writers urge various arguments, both for the encouragement and discouragement of accusations

ACCUSE.
—
ACCUS.
TOM.

against great men. Nothing, according to Machiavel, tends more to the preservation of a state, than frequent accusations of persons trusted with the administration of public affairs. This, accordingly, was strictly observed by the Romans, in the instances of Camillus, accused of corruption by Manlius Capitolinus, &c. Accusations, however, in the judgment of the same author, are not more beneficial than calumnies are pernicious; which is also confirmed by the practice of the Romans. Manlius, not being able to make good his charge against Camillus, was cast into prison.

Solon facilitated public accusations, deeming general liberty to be endangered without this check upon the individual. At Athens, if an accuser had not the fifth part of the votes on his side, he was obliged to pay a fine of a thousand drachmas. Æschines, who accused Ctesiphon, paid this fine. At Rome, a false accuser was branded with infamy, by marking the letter K on his forehead. Guards were also appointed to watch the accuser, lest he should attempt to corrupt the judges or the witnesses.

ACCUSATIVE, the fourth case of Latin nouns, denoting the relation of the noun on which the action implied in the verb terminates. In English this relation of the noun is either shown by its position, or by the assistance of prepositions. See GRAMMAR, Div. ii.

ACCUSTOM, v.

ACCUSTOM, n.

ACCUSTOMABLY,

ACCUSTOMANCE,

ACCUSTOMABLY,

ACCUSTOMARY,

See CUSTOM.

To be wont to do any thing constantly, habitually, usually.

Which burge was as a mans thought
After his pleasure to him brought
The queene herselfe accustomed aye
In the same burge to play
It seereth neither must nor rather
I have not heard of such another.

Chaucer's *Dreams*, fol. 362. col. 5.

The queene then askes of gold, for the manie,
Ane richly covey, set all with precious stanes
Had hid it full of the rich Hypocrites,
Into the quills grete Belus accustomed was
To drink vnguarde, and fro him every king
Descend of his geneology and thyng.

Douglas, bk. l. p. 36.

And then as he [Henry V.] was curst accustomed to do, he went on foot to the chief church in the towne and rendred to God his most hearty thanks for his prosperous successe and fortunate chace.

Hall, *rept.* 1809, p. 78.

And like as doe both the sensible thinges and accustomed are that he is wont to do, so the enyemour set more his intencion on wise men, then on rices or fooles.

The *Golden Booke*, chap. vii.

He also made ordinances to wythele strumpettes out of the cytie, and penyancement for all accustomed bad wretches, w^{ch} many other good ordinances and laws.

Folger, *rept.* 1811, p. 375.

After which murder fynished y^e sayde knyght Rafo, with his adherents fled unto y^e place of y^e Isle of Arris, where the Duke of Burgoyne was; accustomedly to reside.

B. p. 560.

For which cause, the more we doubt
To doe a fault, whic we are out
Or suffer that may be my shame
Against our old accustomed.

Chaucer's *Dreams*, fol. 357, c. l.

VOL. XVII.

ACCUS-
TOM.
—
ACCE-
DAMA,

And further eik the sunnyng young Pallas
Our son, our hope, our comfort and solace
I sal aduise in fellowship, quod he,
As his master, to exerce vnder the,
And forse the fate of kythele chelyere,
Hard martiall deile hanting by and by,
To be accustomed, and behald the frist
For wonder following thy works in young zere.

Douglas, bk. viii. p. 261.

But they of Love, and of his sacred leue,
(As it should be) all otherwise deuise
Then we poore shepherds are accustomed here
And him to rise and seere all otherwise.

Spenser's *Astrophel*.

Which things granted [viz. the prayers of their petition] Her
Majesty should have experience of our accustomed obedience.

Knox's *Trat.* of the Reformation.

The Dutch, accustomed to the raging sea,
And in black storms the frowns of Heaven to see,
Never met tempest which more angry'd their fears,
Than that which in the Prince's look appears.

Waller's *Instructions* to a Painter.

King William answered, [Philip of Spain,] that he was ready to do him the homage accustomed for Normandy; but would do him none for England, which he held only of God and his sword.

Sir H. Trollop's *Introduction* to the *Hist.* of England.

Poets accustomed by their trade to feign,
Of substitute creations of the brain
For real substance, and themselves deceiv'd,
Would have the fiction by mankind believ'd.

Churchill's *Farcewell*.

I shall always fear that he who accustomed himself to fraud in little things, wants only opportunity in practicing it in greater.

Adams, *rept.* No. 419.

ACE, a. acc, Gr. Fr. ac. A card marked only with one point. Hence used to express a single or a very small thing.

Dan. No die, but so are for him, for he is but one.

Lat. Less than an acc. man. For he is dead, he is nothing.

Shakespeare, *Mid. N. D.* p. 161. act v. sc. 1.

Ger. Then will I
(For wise men must be had to prop the republick)
Not hate ye a single acc of a sound senator.

Brown and Fletcher's *Prophets*, act i. sc. 3.

As I am an inch, or so many feet, or so many passengers after him or her, I may be perceptive of an acc before then.

Barton's *Anatomy* of *Mel*.

Give me an acc of trumps, and see
Our Ned will beat me with a three;
'Tis all by luck that things are carried;
He'll suffer for it when he's married.

Shelton's *Levities*. To a Friend.

Thus are of chance! whose glorious soul
On the four were doomed to roll,
We never yet with honour caught,
Nor on poor virtue lost one thought.

Chandler's *Duolet*, book i.

By several statutes of the reign of king George II. all private lotteries by tickets, cards, or dice, (and particularly the games of faro, basnet, acc of hearts, hazard, passage, rully polly, and all other games with dice, except back-gammon,) are prohibited under a penalty of two hundred pounds.

Black Com.

ACELDAMA, or CHAKEL-DAM, in Scripture history, a place beyond the brook of Sikkim, without the south wall of Jerusalem, called the Potter's field, on account of clay being dug out of it of which pots were usually formed; and the Fuller's field, because they dried cloth there. Being afterwards purchased with the money which was given for the blood of Jesus Christ by the Jewish high priests and rulers, it was called 'Aceldama,' the field of blood. It is still shewn to travellers. The place is small and covered with an arched roof. The bodies deposited

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ACE-
DAMA.
—
ACEPHA-
LOUS.

in it are, it is said, consumed in three or four days, or even less. Druymar, a monk of Corbie, says, that in his time there was a hospital in this place for the entertainment of French pilgrims in their journey to the Holy Land.

ACEMELLA, or ACWELLA, the name of seeds from the island of Ceylon, which were celebrated for their faculty of dissolving stones. They were successfully used in that island for dissolving calculi, and curing ophthalmic disorders. See Phil. Trans. 1700-1. vol. xiii. p. 760.

ACENTETUM, or ACANTEYA, in Natural History, the ancient name appropriated to the purest and most beautiful species of rock crystal. It was sometimes formed into cups and vases, which were held in high estimation; and was obtained from the island of Cyprus.

ACEPHALI, or ACEPHALITES, from *acephalos*, headless. The title of a certain faction in the fifth century who had been deprived of their chief, Monogus, by his submission to the counsel of Chalcidon; which party was afterwards formed into three divisions; and from which sprung, in the succeeding century, several sects in the church who refused to follow a particular leader. It seems to have been first applied to the persons who refused to follow either John of Antioch, or St. Cyril, in a dispute that happened in the council of Ephesus, in 431. This epithet was also given to those bishops who were exempt from the jurisdiction and discipline of their patriarch. The Acephali were generally Eutychians, or persons who believed there was only one nature in Christ.

In the reign of king Henry I. the levellers received this distinctive appellation, because they were not believed to possess even a tennement to entitle them to have the right of acknowledging a superior lord. In our ancient law books, it is used for persons who held nothing in fee.

ACEPHALOUS, or ACEPHALUS, an appellation which the credibility of some ancient cosmographers and naturalists has bestowed upon tribes of people whom they fancied to be formed without heads, or at least, with such a different arrangement of their features as to supersede the ordinary method of its construction. The Blemmyes, an African nation, situated near the source of the Niger, are so represented, or misrepresented, by Ptolemy, who says they had eyes and mouths fixed in their breasts. Ctesias and Solinus give a similar account of a people resident on the Ganges in India, who had no neck, and whose eyes were placed in their shoulders. Meli, Suidas, Stephanus, Bezanianus, and several others, have transmitted to posterity similar absurdities. Nor have these been confined to ancient writers; many modern travellers have diversified their writings by reports which evidently originate in the same love of the marvellous, and dislike to close observation and accurate research.

Taking the whole, however, as a fable, its origin has been variously explained. Some have considered it as of the nature of a metaphorical illustration, anciently used with regard to such as had less sagacity or prudence than others. Others again, with great probability, interpret these stories by supposing that certain ancient voyagers had been imposed upon by the strange and fantastical dress of barbarians seen at a

distance from the coasts, toward which they sometimes approached.

Naturalists furnish a variety of instances of individuals born, by some lush nature, without heads. Wepler gives a catalogue of such acephalous births, from Sthenclus, Lictus, Paracus, Wolfius, Mauricani, &c. Cou-ult also *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxx. p. 311.

ACEPHALUS is also used in poetry to express a verse whose beginning is defective: and some have applied the word to all verses which begin with a short instead of a long syllable.

ACER, the MAPLE or SYCAMORE TREE: a genus of plants belonging to the class Polygamia, order Monœcia.

ACERBITY, *adj.* acerb, acies, acer, sharp. Sharpness generally applied to that sharpness which we call bitterness.

It is true that purgatory (at least as is believ'd) cannot last a hundred thousand years; but yet had may by the ardor of the flames in twenty years equal the eternal torments of twenty thousand years.

Taylor's Dissertation from Popery.

ACERRA, a particular description of altar which the Romans erected near the bed of a deceased person. On this altar incense was daily offered till the time of performing the funeral ceremony. The original intention seems obviously to have been to get rid of any disagreeable smell. The law of the twelve tables prohibited the erection of acerra.

The custom in question prevails among the Chinese, who, in a room hung with mourning, place an image of the dead person on the altar; every one that approaches is expected to bow four times, and offer gifts.

ACERRA was a term applied also to a small pot which contained the incense and perfumes to be offered on the altars of the gods and before departed persons.

People were obliged to offer incense in proportion to their estate and condition; the rich in large quantities, the poor only a few grains; the former poured out *acerra plena*, a full acerra, on the altar, the latter took out three pieces.

The Jews had their *acerra*, in our version, 'censers,' and the Romanists still have their 'incense pots.'

ACERRÆ, in Ancient Geography, a town in Campania, on the river Clanis, now ACERRA, at no great distance from Naples. It was a Roman colony, and its inhabitants were distinguished for their bravery. "Acerranis," says Livy, "plus animi quam vivum erat." Another town, now called *La Gioia*, in the territory and to the south-east of Lodi, had the same name. The siege of this town by the Romans, which anciently was a very considerable place, is described by Polybius. It still subsists, and by means of large drains, which are now dug about it, the inhabitants are relieved from those apprehensions of being inundated, by which, as Virgil and Livy state, they were formerly agitated.

ACESINES, or ACESINUS, in Ancient Geography, a considerable river of Persia, which falls into the Indus. The reeds upon its banks are so remarkable in size, that a piece between two knots served as a bridge to cross the water. Alexander built a city on the banks, under the direction of Hephestion. Ptolemy says, that this and the Ganges furnished gems. The modern Jenuab is probably the Acesines of the ancients; so at least

ACEPHA-
LOUS.
—
ACE-
SINES.

ACE-
SINES.
—
ACHÆ-
ANS.

Rennell supposes, and not without advancing good proofs. See *ARRIAN De Expedit. Alex. lib. v.* and *STRABO, Geog. vol. ii.*

ACESTA, a Sicilian town, which derived its name from king Acestes, called also Segesta. *Æneas*, by whom it was built, left a part of his crew here when he was setting out for Italy. This is mentioned in Virgil's fifth *Æneid*.

ACETABULUM, an ancient vessel equal to about one-eighth of our pint. It may be supposed to answer to our vinegar-croets. It was also a Roman measure, used both for liquid and dry things, chiefly in medicine.

ACETABULUM, in Anatomy, the cavity formed in a bone for articulation in that species called 'Enarthrosis.' It signifies also a glandular substance found in the placenta of some animals.

ACETARY, a term applied to the inner part in certain fruits, and surrounding the core; so named from the sourness of its taste.

ACETIAM, or *ac etiam billæ*; also to a bill to be exhibited in law, a clause where the action requires bill, devised by the officers of the King's Bench, and added to the usual complaint of trespass.

ACETITES. For an account of these, see *CHYMISTRY, Div. ii.*

ACETOSA, in Botany, *ROSEAE*; by Linnaeus joined to the genus 'Rumex.'

ACETUM, VINEGAR, the vegetable acid of the chemists.

ACHABYTOS, or ACHARYTUS, in Ancient Geography, a mountain in Rhodes, on the summit of which Jupiter had a temple.

ACHÆA, in Ancient Geography, a well fortified town of the island of Rhodes, and the most ancient in that island, said to be built by the Heliades. *DIDO. Sic. l. v. c. 57. tom. i.*

ACHÆANS, ACHÆI, or ACHIVI, sometimes applied, and particularly by the poets, to all the people of Greece, but properly to the inhabitants of Achæia Propria. The term is derived from Achæus, the son of Xuthus, king of Thessaly, who, being banished from his kingdom, settled in Athens, and, heading a small force consisting of Athenians and Ægileans, recovered possession of Thessaly; but having committed manslaughter, was obliged to fly to Laconia, a province of Peloponnesus. There he died; and his posterity assumed the denomination of Achæans, till they were expelled by the Doræ and Heræclidæ. Upon this they advanced a claim upon Achæia, founding their title upon their descent from the eldest son of Xuthus; and having driven out the Ionians, they substantiated their claim by forcible possession, under the conduct of their king Tisamenus, the son of Orestes. The cities, twelve in number, were divided between the four sons of Tisamenus; who, with their cousin, a grandson of Orestes, reigned jointly, for some time over this new state. They were able to resist the Heræclidæ, and preserve their laws and liberty, even after the rest of Peloponnesus had been subdued, till at length the form of government was altered into a mixed democracy. Political harmony prevailed among all classes, and they were formally united into one compact body; and though inconsiderable in point of wealth and extent of territory, they were celebrated for probity, justice, and the love of liberty. When a dis-

pote arose betwixt the Lacedæmonians and Thebans respecting the victory at Leuctra, which was claimed by both parties, it was referred to their decision.

The Achæans preserved their liberty and republican form of government till the time of Alexander the great; after whose reign they were either subject to the Macedonians, who had made themselves masters of Greece, or were oppressed by tyrants of their own, and became a prey to all the evils which result from political discord. Each town was attentive only to its private interest, and there was no stability in the state. About the 124th Olympiad, A. C. 280, when Pyrrhus invaded Italy, the Achæan republic renewed its union, and restored its old institutions. The inhabitants of Patre and of Dymæ were the first advocates of freedom. The tyrants were banished; and the league comprised at length the whole of Greece, with the single exception of the Lacedæmonians. The fundamental constitution of this confederacy was as follows:—A public council was held, in which affairs of importance were determined, and a register appointed to record its transactions. It was convened once a year, and at first had two presidents, who were nominated alternately by the different towns and states; but they soon elected only one, who presided in the council and commanded the army. By the Greeks he was called *strategos*, and by the Romans *prætor*. He continued in his office two successive years. Next in authority to the prætor were the ten *demurgi*, who were appointed to act as his privy council, and were empowered on extraordinary occasions to summon a general assembly. The Achæan league was formidable to all the surrounding countries for upwards of 120 years; but internal dissensions became at last more fatal to it than the arms of Rome, to which, in the year n. o. 147, this people finally submitted.

ACHÆFORUM PORTUS, a harbour of the Chersonesus Taurica, on the Euxine; another, in the vicinity of Sigæum, into which the Xanthus falls.

ACHÆORUM LETTUS, the name of several harbours: one in Cyprus, another in Trous, and others in Æolia, Peloponnesus, and on the Euxine.

ACHÆORUM STATIO, a place where Polyxenus was sacrificed to the shade of Achilles; and where Hecuba killed Polymnestor. It is on the coast of the Thracian Chersonesus.

ACHAGUA, an Indian nation in the kingdom of Granada, inhabiting the woods which border on the river Ele. They use poisoned arrows, with which, as well as with their spear, they almost invariably hit their mark. Like most other Indian tribes they are given to intoxication, but are generally represented as gentle and inoffensive in their usual habits. They are formed into settlements by the Jesuits, in the year 1661.

ACHAIA, properly the narrow district which extended westward along the bay of Corinth, now called Romania Alta. All Greece was originally included under this name. In the times of the Roman state it was applied to all the cities beyond the Peloponnesus which had entered into the Achæan league; after the dissolution of which, Greece was divided by a decree of the senate into the province of Macedonia, including Thessaly, and that of Achæia, comprising all the other states of Greece.

ACHAIE Presbyteri, or the Presbyters of Achæia, were those who were present at the martyrdom of St.

ACHÆ-
ANS.
—
ACHAIA.

ACHEEN. leads from the town to the royal palace, which is at a small distance, and about three-fourths of a mile round. It is defended by a wall of considerable strength, and a ditch or moat, but is a rude and clumsy edifice, without beauty, or any regular plan of architecture. The houses are built of timber, bamboos, and other slight materials. The king is the chief of the Mahometan princes who possess the maritime districts.

There is a considerable trade carried on here, particularly with the ships resorting to it from the Maldives, and the Coromandel coast; but only small vessels can enter the harbour; and the commerce is greatly restricted by the circumstance of the king being himself the principal merchant; and claiming also an import duty of 12 baes from every 100. The Achenses, however, are not, as among Europeans, cursed with that frequent want of social and domestic comfort called *credit*. All their trading and commercial transactions are carried on with ready money, consisting of gold dust, and a small gold coin about the size of one of our old shillings. For the accommodation of the dealers in the bazaar, or public market, there is a small leaden coin; but payments are generally made in gold dust. For this purpose, the owner carries about with him a convenient pair of scales; and keeps his dust in bags, made of thin membranes, or pieces of bladder, of various kinds.

In Mr. Marsden's History of Sumatra, we have the following account of the government, &c. of this place. "The grand council of the nation consists of the king or sultan, four *coloballangs*, and eight of a lower degree, who sit on his right hand; and sixteen *cajoorans*, who sit on his left. At the king's feet sits a woman, to whom he makes known his pleasure: by her it is communicated to an eunuch, who sits next to her; and by him to an officer named *enjoaring* gondong, who then proclaims it aloud to the assembly. There are also present two other officers, one of whom has the government of the bazaar or market, and the other the superintending and carrying into execution the punishment of criminals. All matters relative to commerce and the customs of the port come under the jurisdiction of the *shabandar*, who performs the ceremony of giving the *shop*, or licence for trade; which is done by lifting a golden-hafted ereese over the head of the merchant who arrives, and without which he dares not to land his goods. Presents, the value of which are become pretty regularly ascertained, are then sent to the king and his officers. If the stranger be in the style of an ambassador, the royal elephants are sent down to carry him and his letters to the monarch's presence; these being first delivered into the hands of an eunuch, who places them in a silver dish, covered with rich silk, on the back of the largest elephant, which is provided with a machine (*houder*) for that purpose. Within about an hundred yards of an open hall, where the king sits, the cavaliers stop, and the ambassador dismounts, and makes his obeisance by bending his body, and lifting his joined hands to his head. When he enters the palace, if an European, he is obliged to take off his shoes; and having made a second obeisance, is seated upon a carpet on the floor, where *betel* is brought to him. The throne was, some years ago, of ivory and tortoise-shell; and when the place was governed by queens, a curtain of gauze was hung before it, which did not obstruct the audience,

but prevented any perfect view. The stranger, after **ACHEEN**. some general discourse, is then conducted to a separate building, where he is entertained with the delicacies of the country by the officers of state, and in the evening returns in the manner he came, surrounded by a prodigious number of lights. On high days (*aree ryah*) the king goes in great state, mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, to the great mosque, preceded by his *coloballangs*, who are armed nearly in the European manner."

"Achese has ever been remarkable for the severity with which crimes are punished by their laws: the same rigour still subsists, and there is no commutation admitted, and is regularly established in the southern countries. There is great reason, however, to conclude, that the poor alone experience the rod of justice; the nobles being secure from retribution in the number of their dependents. Petty theft is punished by suspending the criminal from a tree, with a gun or heavy weight tied to his feet; or by cutting off a finger, a hand, or leg, according to the nature of the theft. Many of these mutilated and wretched objects are daily to be seen in the streets. Robbery on the highway, and house-breaking, are punished by drowning, and afterwards exposing the body on a stake for a few days. If the robbery is committed upon an *imam* or priest, the sacrifice is expiated by burning the criminal alive. A man who is convicted of adultery is seldom attempted to be screened by his friends, but is delivered up to the friends and relations of the injured husband. These take him to some large plain, and forming themselves in a circle, place him in the middle. A large weapon, called a *gadoobong*, is then delivered to him by one of his family; and if he can force his way through those who surround him, and make his escape, he is not liable to further prosecution; but it commonly happens that he is instantly cut to pieces. In this case his relations bury him as they would a dead buffalo, refusing to admit the corpse into their house, or to perform any funeral rites."

The surrounding country is generally kept in such a state of rich cultivation, that provisions, both in the city and the neighbouring villages (which are very numerous and populous), are commonly cheap, and in great abundance. E. lon. 95° 46', N. lat. 5° 36'. **ACHEEN-HEAD** is a small Cape on the northern coast of Sumatra. 95° 40' E. lon. and 5° 26' N. lat.

ACHELOUS, in Mythology, the son of Oceanus, or Sol, by Terra. He first married Perimede, the daughter of *Æolus*, but afterwards wrestled with Hercules, for Deianira, and being vanquished, he assumed the shape of a bull; when Hercules breaking off one of his horns, he retired into the waters with disgrace. *Æchelus* is said, by some of the heathen writers, to have been immediately changed into a river. With others, this fable of the horn gives rise to the cornucopia, or horn of plenty; Hercules, or the Graes, having filled the broken horn of *Æchelus* with a variety of fruits, and consecrated it to Jupiter.

ACHELOUS, a river of Epirus, separating *Ætolia* from *Acarnania*, and falling into the *Ionian* sea. It had various names with the ancients; and from the rapidity of its stream, and some peculiar division of its mouth, formed by the mud islands that abound there, is supposed to have been the river alluded to in the foregoing article.

**ACH-
LOUS.**

ACHER-
NER.
ACHIEVE.

ACHERNER, or ACHARNER, a star of the first magnitude in the southern extremity of the constellation Eridanus, but invisible in our latitude.

ACHERON, a river of Thesprotia, in Epirus. A name given by Homer to one of the rivers of hell; probably from the dead appearance of the waters of this river. The god of the stream was the son of Ceres, without any father, and hid in hell for fear of the Titans. Hell itself was frequently called Acheron by the poets.

ACHERSET, an ancient measure of corn, said to be the same in contents with our quarter, or eight bushels.

ACHERUSIA, an Egyptian lake near Memphis, over which Diodorus states the bodies of the dead to be conveyed, and that they afterwards receive sentence by impartial judges, in presence of all their friends and contemporaries. The boat was called *Baris*, the boatman *Chiron*. The fable of Chiron and the Syx was imported into Greece, from this circumstance, and adopted by all the poets into the mythology of the country. There was also a river of this name in Calabria. Alexander, king of the Molossians, who was warned by an oracle to "fly from the borders of the Acherusia," being ignorant of this, felt himself safe in that country, and was slain on its banks. *Justin*, xii. c. 2. There is a lake of Epirus of this name, through which the Acheron runs.—Also, a peninsula of Bithynia, called Acherusia, on the Exine, near Heracles; and a cave of the same name, through which Hercules passed in pursuit of Cerberus, and brought him up from hell. *Xenophon*, *Anab.* vi.

ACHETA, in the Linnæan system, the third species of the genus *Grællus*, or Cricket.

ACHIA, a Malayan word for all sorts of fruits and roots pickled with vinegar and spice.

ACHICOLUM, the fornix, tholus, or sudatorium, a warm room attached to the ancient baths; called *archibolus* by some writers.

ACHIEVE', <i>v.</i>	} <i>F. Acherer</i> , perducere ad caput (<i>cherf</i>) vel finem, says Minshew; ad caput deducere, Skinner. To bring to an end, to accom- plish, to finish, and consequently, to acquire, to obtain.
*ACHIEVABLE,	
ACHIEVANCE,	
ACHIEVEMENT.	

In R. Brunne, it is written *Chere*; from the French *Chevir*; (*venir* a chief; *Meisage*.) Chief, chiefe, or chief, is still used in composition in *Mischief*. *Non chiefe* is used by Wm. Thorpe in opposition to *unischief*.

For if I consented to you to do hereafter your will for her chiefe, or master (that may befall to me in this life, I come in my conscience that I were worthy hereafter to be caused of God.

Statt Tracts, v. i. p. 181.

William tok his leue, his way to Scotland chie, Wele met William chere, & alle pat his pen.

R. Brunne, p. 146.

And after that her thought gan for to cleve
And said, he which yf nothing vnderstaketh

Nothing asketh, be him loth or dre.

Chaucer, *Troilus*, b. ii. fol. 162, col. 1.

And for to speke in othe waie,
Full ofte tyme I haue herle said,
That he, which hath no loue achieved,
Hym thinketh that he is not releued.

Gower, *Conf.* d. b. vi.

He grunted in them yordan for they foules and offences, by which gentill meane and easy indolence, he recooured to him the hartes of the whole multitude, obtaining; that, by fyre and loungey wodes, which he could not haue achieved with sharpe strokes, and bloody woundes.

Hall, *repr.* 1509, p. 294.

The protector was thristed for the acheyage of his protemed enterpryse, and thought every day a yere tyll it were performed.

Id. p. 350.

Mon. But, good lieutenant, is your general worthy?

Castro. Most fortunately; he hath achieved of a maid

That surpasses description, and wilde faine.

Shakespeare, *Othello* p. 316, act ii. sc. 1.

Laon. A victorie is twice itself, when the achiever brings home full numbers.

Id. *M. ar. act* v. p. 161, act i. sc. 1.

And now great deeds

Had been achieved, whereof all Hell had rung.

Had not the snaky sorceress that way

Fast by Hell's gate, and kept the fatal key

Ru'd with hideous outcry, rush'd between.

Milton's Par. Lost, b. ii.

What sober man doth not in his thoughts afford a more high and hearty respect to these poor fishermen, who by their herical activity and patience did honour God in the propagation of his heavenly truth, than to all those Hector in chivalry, those conquerors and achievers of mighty exploits, who have been renowned for doing things which seemed great, rather than for performing what was truly good?

Barnes's Sermons.

No exploits so illustrious, as those which have been achieved by the faith and patience, by the courage and prudence of the ancient saints; they do far surpass the most famous achievements of Pagan heroes.

Id.

For hereafter reaching treacherously to attempt what he (Thomas Stuckley) could not lawfully achieve, he went over into Italy.

Falmer's Works, in *Devonshire*.

But living virtue, all achievements past,

Meets every still to grapple with at last.

Waller's Fanny, *act* on the *Lord Protector*.

Amongst the ancient Greeks, this bath was not much frequented, being rarely used but after the accomplishment of some very great work which required abundance of labour and toil; as the ending of a war, or achieving any great and painful enterprise.

Falmer's Antiq.

Instead of glorious feats achieved in arms,

Bid rising arts display their mimic charms!

T. Watson's Poem on the Bank of the Franch of Wales.

ACHILLEA, YARROW, MILFOUL, NOBLEBLED, or SNKEZWORT, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Syngenesia; order Polygamia Superflua.

ACHILLEA, in the Materia Medica of the ancients, a name given to the gum now called Sanguis Draconis, or Dragon's Blood.

ACHILLEID, ACHILLEIS, an unfinished epic poem of Statius, in which he proposed to give the whole life and history of Achilles.

ACHILLES, a term in the schools applied to the chief argument alleged by each sect of philosophers in behalf of their system. The allusion is to the importance of the hero Achilles among the Greeks. Hence, with reference to any prevailing argument, as Zeno's against motion, it is said, "this is his Achilles;" q. d. his master-proof.

ACHIMBASSI, the name of an officer who pre- sides over the practice of medicine at Calcut; examining candidates and licensing those whom he deems to possess the requisite qualifications.

ACHIMENES, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Dithymia; order, Angiosperma.

ACHIOTTE, or ACHOTZ, a foreign drug, used for a red dye, and in the preparation of chocolate. It is

ACHIEVE
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ACHIL-
OTT'S

ACHIL-
—
ACHIMM

the same with the substance more usually known by the name of annatto, and is a native of the West Indies. The seeds when used for dyeing are softened and pounded in water until the kernels are separated from a kind of tough pulp which surrounds them: the whole mass is then strained and boiled, the scum forming the pigment. This is now carefully inspissated in another vessel, moulded into lumps when cool, and packed for sale. The double Gloucester cheese is said to be coloured with this dye, of which the English once formed a flourishing manufacture at St. Angelo. The achiotte, which is now prepared by the Spaniards, is also used medicinally in the West Indies for dysentery, and as a remedy against suspension of urine.

ACHIROPETOS, the ancient name of certain miraculous pictures of Christ and the Virgin, supposed to have been made without hands.—The most celebrated of these is the picture of Christ, in the Church of St. John de Lateran at Rome; said to have been begun by St. Luke, but finished by angels.

ACHILYS, from *αχλος*, darkness; a term applied to dimness of sight. Also a blue speck over the cornea. *Cullen's Nosology*.

This word is used also to denote a disorder of the womb, called by the Latins *suppessus uteri*.

By the ancient Greek writers, it was applied to the first cause, which preceded the creation and chaos.

ACHIMM, or **ΕΣΧΙΜΜ**, a considerable town of Upper Egypt, on the eastern bank of the Nile, called by the ancients Chemmis, and Ptenopolis, by the Copts Samin. Though reduced from its former magnificence, it is still one of the finest towns of Upper Egypt. The streets are spacious and clean, and it is under the superintendence of an Arab prince, and a well regulated police. It has a manufacture of earthenware, and stuffs, principally cotton, which have been much celebrated. Abul Feda speaks of a temple here, which is comparable to the most celebrated monuments of antiquity. But the immense stones, sculptured with innumerable hieroglyphics, are now lying, some scattered about the streets, and others transferred into a mosque, where they are placed without regularity or taste. On one of them may be traced four concentric circles, in a square: the innermost of which contains a sun: of the next two, one contains 12 birds, the other 12 animals, almost effaced, which appear to be the signs of the zodiac. The fourth has 12 human figures: which M. Savary imagines to represent the 12 gods, the 12 months of the year, and the 12 signs of the zodiac. The four seasons occupy the angles of the square, on the side of which is discernible a globe with wings. It seems probable, that this temple was dedicated to the sun, and that the whole of these hieroglyphics mark his passage into the signs of the zodiac, and his annual revolution. They may be considered as evidences that the Egyptians were acquainted with astronomy from the earliest times.

At this place is also a convent of Franciscans, established for the entertainment of the persecuted Christians in Nubia. One hundred yards south of this edifice is a triumphal arch, built by the emperor Nero, with the Greek inscription **ΙΑΝΙ ΘΕΩ**. But the most remarkable object of attention is the serpent Haridi, which is worshipped. More than a century ago, Sheikh Haridi died here. The Mahomedans deemed him a saint, and accordingly raised a monument to him, covered with a

cupola, at the foot of the mountain, whither the people flocked from all parts to offer up their prayers. A artful priest pretended that God had caused his soul to pass into the body of one of those harmless serpents which abound in the Thebais. Having taught one to obey his voice, he surprised and captivated the vulgar by his surprising tricks, and pretended to cure all disorders. Some fortunate instances of success occurred, which gave him great celebrity; upon which, consigning his serpent to the tomb, he only produced him to oblige princes, and opulent persons. Succeeding priests availed themselves, in the same manner, of the popular credulity, and easily induced the multitude to believe in the serpent's immortality. They cut it in pieces in presence of the emir, and put it under a vase for two hours; when lifting up the vase, they had the address to substitute one exactly resembling it. Such a miracle could not fail of extending the fame of Haridi, and establishing its claim to religious adoration. If it crawls out from under the stone, and approaches the suppliant, it is a sign that his malady will be cured; but of course this does not take place till a proper offering has been presented. In extraordinary cases, a young virgin is required to come and join in the solicitation for a cure: she is adorned with her gayest apparel, and crowned with flowers; and bending down in a praying attitude, as the priests are inclined, the serpent comes out, makes circles round the young suppliant, and goes and fastens himself upon her person. The virgin, attended by a vast multitude, now carries him along the town. These ignorant people believe in the serpent Haridi, as firmly as in the prophet; and its virtues are even admitted by the Christians of the country, as well as the Turks; but they affirm it is the demon Asmodeus, who slew the seven husbands of Tobit's wife; and that, after metamorphosing him, the angel Raphael brought him to Achimm, where God allows him to work miracles to deceive the infidels. The country around Achimm is remarkably fertile, producing sugar and cotton, and some of the finest corn in Egypt.

ACHMOUNAIN, a village in Upper Egypt, remarkable for the ruins it contains, particularly a superb portico in excellent preservation. It has numerous hieroglyphics descriptive of the time, place, and deity, in whose honour it was erected.

ACHOMBONE, the capital of the canton of Axim, on the coast of Africa; defended by a Dutch fort, and planted with avenues of fruit trees. A river of the same name runs through the town.

ACHOR, a valley of Jericho, near the river Jordan. It derives its name from Achan, the troubler of Israel, who was here stoned to death.

ACHOR, in Medicine, a species of Herpes, or Scald-head.

ACHOR, in Mythology, the god of flies; to whom, according to Pliny, the inhabitants of Cyrene sacrificed, in order to obtain deliverance from the insects, and the disorders occasioned by them.

ACHRADINA, or **ACRADINA**, one of the ancient cities and divisions of Syracuse, and the best fortified as well as the largest and most beautiful part of it. It was adorned with a very large forum, beautiful porticoes, an elegant prytæneum, a spacious senate-house, and a superb temple of Jupiter Olympius. The rocks of this district possess a peculiar quality, by which dead

ACHRIM.
—
ACHRA
DINA.

ACHRA- bodies may be preserved in them for a long period, and large excavations are made in them for that purpose.

ACHIRAS.

ACHIRAS, or **SAPOTA PLUM**, a genus of Plants, of the class Hexandria; order Monogynia.

ACHROMATIC, (of a, privative, and *χρῶμα*, colour,) a term first introduced into astronomy by De la Lande.

ACHROMATIC Telescopes, such as are contrived to remedy the aberrations in colours. See **TELESCOPE**, Div. ii.

ACHTELING, a liquid measure used in Germany. Thirty-two *achtelings* make a *hemer*; four *schilling*, or *ellings*, make an *achteling*.

ACHYRANTHES, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Pentandria, order Monogynia.

ACIA, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Dodecandria, order Monadelphia.

AC'ID, *n.*

Ac'id, *adj.*

ACIDITY,

ACIDULATE,

ACES'CENT,

ACES'CENT.

The smoke of sulphur will not black a paper, and is commonly used by women to whiten Tuffian, which perfume by so soon, vitulina and penetrating spirit ascending from it.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

In spring like youth it yields on acid taste;

But summer deth, like age, the sourness waste;

Thou cloth'd with leaves from heat and cold secure;

Like Virgins sweet, and beautiful when mature.

Dehman's Old Age, part iii.

"Was it for this?" she cry'd, "with daily care,

Within thy reach I set the vinegar,

And fill'd the casket with the acid tide,

While piper-water worms thy bait suppli'd?"

Gay's Lamentations of Glumskilch.

ACIDS. See **CHEMISTRY**, Div. ii.

ACIDITY, that quality which renders bodies acid.

ACIDIFICATION. See **CHEMISTRY**, Div. ii.

ACIDALUS, a fountain in Orchomenus, a city of Boeotia, in which the Graces, who are sacred to Venus, bathed. Hence the epithet *Acidalia*, given to Venus, (Virgil.)

ACIDOTON, in Botany, a genus of the Monocotyledon Polyandria class and order.

ACIDULOUS denotes a thing that is slightly acid: it is synonymous with the word sub-acid.

ACIDULE, mineral waters, brisk and sparkling when poured from one vessel into another, owing to a quantity of free carbonic acid.

ACIDULATED, a name given to medicines that have an acid in their composition.

ACIDUM Pingue, an imaginary acid, which some German chemists supposed to be contained in fire, and by combining with alkalis, lime, &c. to give them their caustic properties.

ACILA, in Ancient Geography, a trading town on the Red sea, from which, according to Ptolemy, the Scenite Sabai set sail for India. Now Zider.

ACIRS, the name of the destructive hurricanes of snow which prevail among the Cevennes, in the south of France. Ravines are instantly filled up by them, so that travellers cannot escape; and villages are sometimes so rapidly covered, that the inhabitants have

no means of communication but by cutting subterraneous passages.

ACIS, in Mythology, a Sicilian shepherd, the son of Faunus and the nymph Smerethis. Galatra falling passionately in love with him, his rival, the giant Polyphemus, was so enraged, that he crushed Acis to death with the fragment of a rock; after which the gods are said to have turned him into a river, which rose near the foot of Ætna, and is now called Jaci, Il Fiume Fredda, Acì, and Chiacì, conformably to the Sicilian dialects. Several other places derive their names from this shepherd, as Acì Aquileia, Acì Castello, Acì Terra.

ACKNOW', v.

ACKNOWLEDGE,

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT,

ACKNOWLEDGING.

To acknowledge is from

A.S. *Canican*, to know,

and *Leggan* to lay.

The old verb is *knowleche*, knowledge; and is constantly so written in Tyndale and his contemporaries: it was then written (as in the examples from Joye) *knowledge*, without the *e*.

You know, but will not *knowledge*: i. e. will not lay down before us; own, confess, that you know.

So ech that denyeth the same hath not the faillir, but he that knowlethek the same hath the faillir also.

Wiclif, I. Jan. ch. ii.

Eke shamefastness was there, as I looke bede,

That blushed red and darest not ben knowe

She lover was, for thereof had she drede

His stood and hing her visage downe

Chaucer. Court of Love, fo. 354, c. 4.

Whosoever denyeth the same, the same hath not the father he that *knowlethek* the same, hath the father also.

Bible, 1538.

Thus was Sir Robert of Arthours at the Queenes commandement, but he durst not speake nor be *acknowledged* thereof.

Guyton, repr. 1809, vol. i. p. 318.

The example of Darius first teacheth the office of a crystiane to repent, is beleue, and to *acknowledge* his synnes after the lawe and gospell.

The Exposition of Daniel, by George Jeye, p. 94.

— Hang, beg, storne, die in the streets,

For by my soule, He woe *acknowledge* thee,

Not what is mine shall never do thee good.

Shakespeare's Rom. & Jul. p. 79, act iii. sc. 5.

For the text openly preacheth, and prayeth, the faith of such *acknowledgers*, for the promises require that we beleue that God both may and will helpe us.

The Exposition of Daniel, by George Jeye, p. 46.

There is a mode in giving entertainments, and doing any courtesy else, which truly binds the receiver to an *acknowledgement*, and makes remembrance of it more acceptable. *Hooker's Letters*.

Remember that altho the deliberations require your great *acknowledgements*, yet there is somewhat more required; namely, a real practical glorifying of God. *Hall's Contemplations*.

That their hearts might be comforted, being knit together in love, and unto all riches of the full assurance of understanding, to the *acknowledgement* of the mystery of God, and of the Father, and of Christ.

Colossians, chap. ii. v. 2.

'Tis the first offspring of the Graces;

Bears different forms in different places;

Acknowledg'd first where'er he's bred,

Yet fancied finer when conceiv'd.

Greene's Riddle on Beauty.

How shall *acknowledgement* enough reward

Thy worth unparalleled.

Smallfield's Regicide, act iv. sc. 3.

It must be *acknowledg'd*, that some of the moral laws which are now known and *acknowledg'd* to be our duty, were not received as such, before the gospel appeared in the world.

Pierce's Sermons.

ACIRS.

ACKNOW,

ACKNOW. **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT** Money, a sum paid by copyhold tenants, in some parts of England, on the death of their landlords, as an acknowledgment of their new lords, as money is usually paid on the attornment of tenants.

ACOLD.

ACKWORTH, a village, near Pontefract in Yorkshire, distinguished by a benevolent institution for the education of the children of quakers. This school belonged originally to the Foundling Hospital, London; but in the year 1777, being offered for sale, with 85 acres of adjoining land, the respectable society of Friends bought the property, and endowed it at an expense of 7000*l.* for the education of their own youth of both sexes. Ten guineas are paid for the admission of each pupil; the average number on the establishment is about 300, who are furnished with all the necessities of life, and trained for all its useful stations. The edifice is spacious, and built entirely of stone; and part of the eastern wing has been converted into a chapel. The business of the institution is conducted by two committees of Friends, one of whom is always a resident of London: and the annual expense of the education of the children to their parents is said not to exceed ten or twelve guineas. The house has a south aspect, and the situation is extremely healthy.

ACLOYE, *v.* } See **CLOY**.
or CLOY.

But better is, that a wights tong rest
Than enterme him of such doing
Of which he neither rede can use sing
And who so it doth, full foole himselfe acloyeth,
For offere vncomfitt, oft smoothe.
Chaucer, The Asenble of Fowles, fol. 247, col. iii.

ACME, from the Greek ἀκμή, the highest point of any thing, or crisis. It is a term usually applied to the maturity of an animal immediately previous to decline; and by physicians, to express the utmost violence or crisis of a distemper.

ACMON, according to some of the Greek mythologists, the most ancient of the gods, said to have produced chaos, and alone to have been immortal. Also the name of Lynceus, who was the companion of Theseus, mentioned by Virgil, *Æn.* x. ver. 128.

ACMONIA, and **ACOMONIA**, an ancient town of Phrygia Major; also a town on the borders of the Thermocon. Both these places were, according to the Scythian traditions, built by king Akmon, whose conquests extended over some parts of Asia Minor. This city contains many medals of gold, bronze, and silver. The same name is applied to a city of Dacia built by Severus, and called Severicum; distant 12 German miles from Temeswar, to the south-east, and the position of the Roman colony, called Ulpia Trajana.

ACNIDA, **ACNIDINUM**, a genus of plants of the class Diercia, order Pentastidia.

ACOMETE, or **ACOMETTI**, the name of some monks in the fifteenth century, who performed a sort of haunting service, night and day, in their places of worship, without any intermission. In vindication of their practice, these monks appealed to the apostolic precept, which requires us to "pray without ceasing." There is a kind of acometti now subsisting in the Romish church. The term is formed of *χομω*, to sleep, and *α*, privative.

ACOLD, *adj.* } See **COLD**.
or COLD.

VOL. XVII.

And as it should so beide
A pious lazar upon a tide
Came to the gate and said weate:
That these might be nothing grate—
Thus laid this pious in great distress,
At cold and hunger at the gate.

Gower, Con. A. book vi. c. 9.

Prick my hand,
And it will bleed; a fever shakes me,
And the self same wind that makes the young lambs shrink
Makes me cold.
Braunton and Fletcher's Festive Shepherdess, act i. sc. 1.

ACOLUTHI, or **ACOLUTHISTS**, a term applied to the stoics, and others, because they persisted in their principles, and resolutions. The word is compounded of *α*, privative, and *κλυθεω*, way; indicating their determination not to turn aside.

ACOLUTHI, in ecclesiastical antiquity, is applied to those who were next the subdeacon. The archdeacon, at their ordination, put into their hands a candlestick with a taper, to intimate that they were appointed to light the candles of the church; and an empty pitcher, to denote that they were to furnish wine for the sacramental festival.

ACOMAC, or **ACOMARK**, a county of Virginia, North America, on the eastern side of the Chesapeake. It contains 14,009 inhabitants, including 4000 slaves.

ACOMBER. See **CUMBER**. **ACOMBER** was used as cucumber is now.

Ha sette not his benefice to hire,
And lette his shepe ascended in the mire,
And ran unto London, unto Seint Poules,
To shewe him a chaunterie for scolers,
Or with a brotherhede to be withold:
But dwelt at home, and kepte wel his fold.
Chaucer, Prioresse, Parsones Tale, vol. i. p. 21.

Of acedie cometh first, that a man is amised and amoured to do any goodnesse, and that maketh that God hath abomination of such acedie, as sayth Seint Jeron.

Id. The Parsones Tale, vol. ii. p. 344.

A little time his yett is agreeable
But ful accondemne is the yung
For subtil jealousy the discreuable
Ful often time causeth douring
Thus ben we vnto in deede and wofulling.
Id. The Complaint of Venus, fol. 327, col. i.

Dartless, your honour and other maye munytle, or peradventure mistlike, that after so many booke already wt farrh, bearing the names and tyties of Chronicles of Englaunde, I should encounter the readers superfluously wryth one use of the same matter.

Grosart, Dedication, p. 1.

Yes, being accompanied with the cloaked hand of Cain, with the long coloured malice of Euen, with the dissembled falsehood of Japhet, dare ye presume to come up to these sacred and fearful mysteries?

Hemely on the Sacrament, p. 2.

ACONCAGUA, a fruitful province of Chili, South America, bounded on the north and west by Quilosa, on the east by the Andes, and south by Santiago. The mountains furnish immense quantities of copper ore; and the neighbourhood abounds with greens and fruits. There is a royal road through this province, across the Cordillera, to Mendoza and Santiago, by which the mails of Europe are regularly received once a month. The royal treasures pass by this road in winter, where they are frequently interrupted by means of snow falling down from the mountains, and provisions for continual stoppages are a necessary part of the equipage. The territory itself is level, and contains a population of 8000 souls.

ACONCAGUA, a trading town of Chili, the ancient capital of the province, now reduced.

M

ACOLD.

ACONCAGUA.

ACONCA-
GUA.
ACORUS.

ACONCAGUA, a considerable river of Chili, which rising in the Cordillera, and passing through Quilota Civen, &c. enters the Pacific at about 33° S. lat.

ACONCROBA, the name of a wild plant in Guinea, in great esteem among the natives for its virtues in the small pox. When used medicinally it is given in an infusion of wine.

ACONITE, *n.* ACONITUM (*aconitum*), a genus of plants of the class Polyandria: order Triginia, used poetically for any poison.

Thou shalt prove a snail to thy friends,
A hoop of gold, to smite thy brethren in;
That the united vessel of their blood
Shall never leak, though it doe work as strong
As aconium, or rash group-wider.

Shakespeare, 2 H. IV. p. 93, act iv. sc. 4.

Tis
Being timely taken, hath a healing might
Against the scorpion's stroke; the proof we'll give;
That while two poisons warre, we may live.

Ben Jonson's Neighbours, act iii.

ACONITI, an appellation sometimes given to ancient ATHLETE, probably those who only anointed their bodies with oil.

ACONTIAS, in Zoology, an ancient name of the anguis jaculus, or dart-snake, belonging to the order of amphibia serpentes.

ACONTIUM, *aconitum*, in Grecian antiquity, a kind of dart or javelin, resembling the Roman pilum.

A'CORN, *n.* } A. Sax. Ac; Oak: Corn; corn.
A'CORNE. } The Corn of the Oak.

This Ovis (*sayth Hesiodus*) did find out in Affricke the use of wheate, and the manner of sowing, reaping, and dressing of the same. And afterward he came into Egypt, where he invented the plough, and all that sort of husbandry. And from thence he passed tranjoyling through the rude countries and people who fed on acornes and fruite, and had nothing else to feede upon: Those also he taught his invention.

Graydon, pag. 1609, vol. i. p. 11.

And that same tree, in which Demogheon,
By his dishonour lamented sore,
Eternall hurle left unto many one:
Whom all accompanied the oaks of yore,
Through fatal charms transformed to such an one:
Her also, whose acornes were our food before,
That Cerus made of mortall men were knowen,
Which first Triptolemus taught how to be sown.

Spenser's Virgil's Gnat.

ACORN, the nut or fruit of the oak tree. That it was used for food before the cultivation of corn, the above citations will go to prove. In France, as late as the year 1709, on account of a great scarcity, recurrence was had to this substitute; which being previously divested of the husk and boiled in water, on this and similar occasions, is said to have been found nutritious. In Spain they have been formerly considered a delicacy, and served up as a dessert. Acorns have also been used medicinally in dysenteries, intermittent fevers, and erysipelas. They make one of the best substitutes for coffee, when scorched brown over a slow fire, and adding fresh butter when they are hot in the ladle, to supply the oily richness of that beverage. In England, at this time, they are principally given to poultry and hogs for fattening.

ACORN, in sea-language, a conical piece of wood, fixed on the uppermost point of the spindle, above the vane, to keep it from being blown off from the mast head.

ACORUS, CALAMUS AROMATICUS, SWEET FLAG, or SWEET RUSS, a genus of plants, of the class Hexandria; order Monogynia.

ACORUS, in the Materia Medica, a name sometimes given to the greater galangal root.

ACORES, in Natural History, a kind of blue coral, which is very scarce. It is obtained on the coasts of Africa, particularly from Rio del Re to the river of the Camaroes; and that of the kingdom of Benin is highly esteemed.

ACOUSTICATICI, sometimes also called Acoustici, from *acous* to hear; such of the disciples of Pythagoras as had not completed their five years' probation, consequently were not initiated into the secrets of his philosophy.

ACOUSTICS, the science which treats of the nature and laws of sound. See SOUND, Div. ii.

Acoustic Duct, in Anatomy, the same with *meatus auditorius*, or the external passage of the ear.

Acoustic Nerves. See AUDITORY NERVES, ANATOMY, Div. ii.

Acoustic Vessels, vessels made of brass, shaped like a bell, and used in the ancient theatres to render the sounds more audible. They were of all tones within the compass of the voice and instruments. The *acoustic* vessels mentioned by Vitruvius, and placed in different parts of the ancient theatres, were harmonically tuned. They have been tried in modern theatres without success.

Acoustic MEDICINES, such medicines as are adapted to remedy deafness or any disorder of the hearing.

ACOY', *n.* or COY. In *Tristram and Iseult*, b. ii. v. 782. Speerit, fo. 189. c. 1. "He not now best her hart for to coie;" is in Junian written *acoy*, which he explains. To assuage, to appease. See COY.

For he hath had full hart penance
Sith that ye not him disquietance
Of halowed, his muste too
Which all his paines might avoide.

Chaucer. The Remount of the Bar, fol. 132. col. 1.

ACQS, or ACOLA, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, and arrondissement of Oleron. It has 1600 inhabitants, and is the chief town of a canton.

ACQUAINT, *v.* } Acquaint; which Meunier
ACQUAIN'ABLE, } (thinks is from the Lat. *Adcognitus*. Skinner from the Lat. *Adcognitus*; and then, To acquaint
ACQUAIN'ANCE, } will mean to make known to.
ACQUAIN'ANT. }

To inform, to apprise, to disclose, to communicate to. Luke, c. ii. v. 44. "They sought him among their kinsfolk and acquaintance;" is in Wiclif, "amonge his cosyns and his knowecheb."

Luke, xiii. 49. "And all his acquaintance stood afar off," is in Wiclif, "But all his knowen stoden afar." Here a *acquaint* byn a son, and is comen for a son's goods. Be ye far here provok, and far here were of on blinde.

R. Glouceter, p. 15.

And he was a gentle myche to the queen of France,
And sumful to myche, as me wode, so that in som thing
The queene lovede, as me wode, more him than the king.

Id. p. 465.

This yonge Monk, that was so faire of face,
Acquainted was so with this goodly man,
Sithen that his firste knowlege began,
That in his house as familer was he,
As it possible in any frend to be.

Chaucer. Ship. Tale, vol. ii. p. 31.

Thou maicest example take of Kane.
Kane was hoted, for he was full
Of words disputous and cruel;
Where-as he was and equitabill,
Goodly of words, and reasonable.

Id. Fol. Rom. of Rose, l. 126. col. 3.

AC-
QUAINT.
—
ACQUI.

Fid many a man both he begl'd as this,
And wot, if that he may live any while;
And yet men gon and releve many a ma e
Him for to seeke, and have him acquaintance,
Not knowing of his false governance.

Chen. and Yrm. Tale, v. i. p. 243.

My myode laynt of southsea the a daye,
To speyk and commens with that lordly yre,
To be acquainted, and some hand in hand,
Counsaunt to knyght, and bynd fawour our hand.

Douglas, b. viii. p. 246.

And send it ayne in ane Remittis has be,
That duke was of the Tyberiane crite,
In syage of frendshipp and forme acquaintance,
Thus after absent tounk alliance.

Id. b. i. p. 289.

And made such an ordinance
For leue, ne for acquaintance,
That were it evely, were it late,
Thei should let it at yate
No mater men, what so belid,
But if so were hym selfe it bid.

Gower Con. A. b. vi.

The which Sigbert was comeynt to Crystin feyth by y^e doctrine
of so holy man, named Felix, y^e which he was first acquainted
wth in France or in Burgoyne; the which Felix came, some other
y^e acquaintance, into Eastainge, or North-like, where y^e kyng
made hym byschope of Dureshy, now called Thurstel.

Fulgar, reyt. 1511. p. 117.

My leasur ad frondes heat thus put awaye for me, and hyd
mine acquaintance out of my eyght.

Bible, 1539. Ps. lxxxviii.

— I saw your brother
Most proud in perill binde himselfe
To a strong Mast, that lye'd vpon the sea:
Where like Orise on the Dolphins backe,
I saw him hold acquaintance with the waves,
So long as I could see.

Shakespeare, Twelfth N. p. 235. act i. sc. 2.

And come to Calio to declare her hate,
Who will acquainted with her common plight,
Which shall her workes in wounded part;
Her wisely comforted all that she might,
With goodly counsell ad advisement right.

Speares Faerie Queene, b. i. c. 10.

Acquaint now thyself with him, and be of peace, thereby good
shall come unto thee.

Job, xxii. 21.

And for so much as the Brytains disclined to give to them [the
Pett] their daughters in marriage, they acquainted them with the
Israhens, and married their daughters, and grew in process of
time, to a great people.

Stow's Annals.

CARDINAL G. For soules just quiting earth, peep into heaven;
Make swift acquaintance with their kindred furms,
And partners of immortal secrets grow.

Dryden's Duke of Guise, act v. sc. 1.

He takes away the word contemporary, and, in its room, puts in
acquaintance; now that is a point I need not siliow,—that Platon
and Pythagoras had any acquaintance together. I granted that
they were contemporaries.

Bentley on the Epistles of Platon.

Contract no friendship, or evenc acquaintance, with a gulleful
man; he resembles a coal, which when hot burneth the hand, and
when cold blacketh it.

See Wm. Jones's Translation of Hippolitus.

ACQUAPENDENTE, a papal town of Italy, with
a bishop's see, seated on a mountain, near the river
Paglia, ten miles W. of Orvieto, and 57 N. by W.
of Rome; it contains 16 churches and convents. E. lon.
11° 53'. N. lat. 42° 42'.

ACQUI, or AQUI, a district and bishop's see of Italy,
duchy of Monferrat. It is bounded on the north by the
counties of Asti and Cusani; on the east by Ales-
sandrini; and on the west by Alba and the Marquisate
of Spigno.

ACQUIESCE, v. } Ad : quiesco, to rest, or be
ACQUIESCENCE, v. } still.
ACQUIESCENT. } To rest, or be still—from
satisfaction or contentedness—without question or dis-
pute.

LOUIS F. In what calm he speaks
After his noise and tumult, so unmov'd,
With that severity of countenance,
As if his thoughts did acquiesce in that
Which is the object of the second hour,
And nothing else.

Ben Jonson's New Inn, act iv. sc. 2.

"Delight in the law," in the ungenerous, is only the under-
standing: The man considers what an excellent thing it is to be ver-
tuous, the just proportions of duty, the fitness of being subordinate to
God, the rectitude of the soul, the acquiescence and appassant peace.

Taglio's Pol. Discourses.

We receive ourselves obliged to submit unto, and acquiesce in
all his dispensations of Providence, as most wise and most righteous.

Burrow's Sermons.

He that never compares his notions with those of others, readily
acquiesces in his first thoughts, and very seldom discovers the
objections which may be raised against his opinions.

Adams's No. 126.

But ere he gain the comfortless repose
His seeks, and acquiescence of his soul
In Heav'n's—renouncing exile, he endures—
What does he not ———!

Cowper's Task, b. v.

ACQUIRE, v. }
ACQUIRED, }
ACQUIRABLE, }
ACQUIREMENT, }
ACQUIRY, } Ad : quæro : to ask or seek for.
ACQUISITE, } To seek for, to labour to obtain;
ACQUISITION, } and consequently to obtain, to
ACQUISITIVE, } gain, to procure.
ACQUISTOR, }
ACQUEST, }

Of such small qualities, as God hath endued me withal, I
[Henry VIII.] render to his goodness my most humble thanks,
rejoicing that my little witte and diligence to get and acquire to
me such notable virtues, and princely qualities, as you have
alighted to be incorporate in my person.

Hall, mpr. 1809. p. 805.

The greatest goodness of all goodness is when tirannies are put
under by virtues acquired, or to find remedy against accustomed
vices with good inclinations.

Golden Rule, c. xv.

— A lower place, note well.

May make too great an act. For learn this, Silius,
Better to leave yndone, than by our deed
Acquire too high a fame, when him we serve's away.

Shakespeare, Ant. and C. p. 231. act iii. sc. 1.

AURA. Oh honesty! thou eldest child of virtue,
Thou need of hear's, why to acquire thy goodness
Should malice and distrust stick thorns before us,
And make us swim onto thee, hung with hazards?
But here's in got by suffering, not disputing.

Bromwell and Fletcher's Dismal Brother, act v. sc. 1.

More learned men grow mad and brain-sick, with a pride of that
learning they think they have attained, than in the pursuit and
quest of it.

Hall's Contemplations.

No virtue is acquired in an instant, but step by step.

Burrow's Sermons.

Charm'd by their eyes, their manners I acquire,

And shape my foolishness to their desire.

Pope's Solomon, book ii.

His cock, an acquisition made in France,

Might put a Chios out of countenance.

Churchill's Times.

The very light of nature recommends every agreeable and oblig-
ing character, every lovely quality that is found among mankind,
and reason exhorts us to the acquisition and practice of it.

Watts's Sermons.

AC-
QUIRE.
—
ACQUIT.

To make great acquisitions can happen in very few; and in the uncertainty of human efforts, to may it will be incident to labour without reward, and to lose what they already possess, by vicissitudes to make it more.

Advocate, No. 119.

ACQUISITION, among lawyers, is used for the right or title to an estate obtained by purchase or donation.

ACQUIT. F. } SKINNER; from the French
ACQUITMENT, } *acquitter*, to absolve, to deliver
ACQUITTALE, } from; q. d. acquietare. (i. e.)
ACQUITANCE, F. } to give *quitt* to one accused or
ACQUITANCE, F. } in debt, so that he may have no
cause for future fear.

MENAGE also derives the Fr. *acquitter*, from the barbarous Latin *acquietare*; formed from *quietus*; and quotes from Vossius de Viiti, l. v. c. 18. *Quietare*, a quietare; to forgive a debt, or to confess it satisfied, and thus to render the debtor *quitt*.—And our common usage is to clear, free or deliver from charge or suspicion; whether of debt, criminality, folly, weakness, &c.; to discharge, to release.

To free ourselves from the claims of duty; to perform or fulfil a part, or duty.

Some man of love, good be, so have ye his,
Tell us a tale anon, as forward is.
Ye ben submitted thus your free assent
To stonde in this case at my judgement.
Acquieten you now, and holseth your behest;
Than have ye done your dewty at the best.

Chaucer, vol. i. p. 177.

He vouchsafed, tell him, as was his will,
Become a man as for our alliance,
And with his blood he wrote that blisful bill
Upon the cross as general acquiescence,
To every peccator in full exauce.

R. ABC.

These bee in parte, the paynes and articles, which I Humfrey Duke of Gloucester, for my trouthe and acquittall, said late, I would geve in writing (my right doughty Lorde) unto your highness.

Hall, reyt. 1509, p. 197.

But I think verely for all this, they was grete evidence geve against the character, for he was at lych indited of Huns death, and was a gret while in prison, & in exclamation, never darst asyle the byrd of his name for his acquittall; but was faine by frendship to geat a pardon.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 238.

The Lord is slow to anger, and great is power, and will not sit all *acquit* the wicked.

Nature, chap. i. c. 3.

But if black scandal, or foul-far'd reproach,
Attend the sequel of your imposition,
Your more enforcement shall *acquiescence* me
From all the impure blots and slaynes thereof.

Shakespeare, *Richard III.* fo. 192, act iii. sc. 7.

Now must your conscience my *acquiescence* seal,
And you must put us in your heart for friend.

J. D. Banet, fol. 275, act iv. sc. 7.

—But full's he is; and now
What rest, but that the mortal sentence pass
On his transgression;—death denounced that day?
Which he presumes already vain and void,
Because not yet indicted, as he fear'd,
By some immediate stroke; but soon shall find
Forbearance no *acquiescence*.

Milton's Paradise Lost, b. x.

God's justifying solely or chiefly, death import his acquitting us from guilt, condemnation, and punishment, by free pardon and remission of our sins.

Burrows's Sermons.

Of this we'll grant you stand *acquit*,
But out of your outrages;
Tell me, perfidians: was it fit
To make my cousin a perjurist,
And steal, to mend your wages.

Foster's Widow and her Cat.

The *casus* is *acquittal* of my act
With you shall rest.

Gloucester's Athens, C. xvii.

ACQUIT.
—
ACRE.

To deliver themselves (the Romans) from this subjection to their creditors, the poorer citizens were customarily calling out, either for an entire abolition of debts, or for what they called new tables; that is, for a law which should reduce them to a complete *acquiescence*, upon paying only a certain proportion of their accumulated debts.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

ACRA, ACARA, ACRON, or ALCRON, a small independent state on the Gold Coast of Africa, where the English, Dutch and Danes formerly had strong forts, the best on the whole coast, and each fort its particular village. That of the English is called Fort James, which is capable of mounting 20 cannon. It is generally ill-manned, and the Dutch fort is gone wholly to decay. Acra was once dependent on the government of Aquamboe, but has of late years shaken off the yoke. The language is said to be unknown to any other district on the coast. Its situation is healthy, and its trade very extensive. The government is much more democratic than is generally known in this part of the world, and more gold is said to be yielded here than in any other districts of Guinea. W. lon. 0° 8', N. lat. 5° 0'.

Acas, in Ancient Geography, a promontory of Calabria, called Salenia, by Ptolemy; now Capo di San Maria di Leuca.

ACRA and ACRO, as a prefix to Greek names of places, imply their situation on an eminence; as *Acragas*, *Acrocrania*. Also one of the hills on which stood that part of Jerusalem which formed the old and lower city.

ACRE, an ancient Sicilian town, twenty-four miles S. of Syracuse, near the present monastery of Santa Maria d'Acra, between Nolo and Avula. Medals of this city, which appears to have been built on an eminence (*Nit. Ital. lib. xiv.*), are found in gold, silver and bronze.

ACRA, a fabulous daughter of the river Asterion, who gave her name to a mountain of Argolis, a country of Peloponnesus;—it was also used as a surname of Diana, from a temple erected to her honour by Melampus on a mountain near Argos. *Poet. ii. c. 17.*

ACREPHINIA, an ancient town of Bœotia, from which Apollo was called *Acrephinius*.

ACRASIA, in Physic (from *acr*, privative, and *crasis*, to mix, q. d. not mixed in a just proportion), the predominancy of one quality above another, either with regard to artificial mixtures, or the humours of the human body.

ACRASUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Asia Minor in Lydia. Some imperial Greek medals of this city still exist, which were struck under the pretors, in honour of Severus, and several other emperors.

ACRA'ZE, or CRAZE. See CRAZE.

And albeit that the duke was somewhat *acrazed*, yet he met him with a welcome procession of the college, and received him with all the reverence and humility that he could do, as it became him to do, being his sovereign's kins.

Drayton, *rep.* 1869, vol. i. p. 463.

A'CRE, n. Sax. *Acepe*. Ager, a field.

This word is now applied to a particular admeasure of land, though not formerly so restricted.

And ten *acres* of ryes shal geve but a quarte, and xxx bushels of sole shal geve but so cpha.

Essex, c. v.—*Bible*, 1539.

ACRE.

Haile, many coloured messenger,
Who, with each end of thy blowe borne, dost crown
My bowke over, and my umbrell's downe,
Rich scruple to my proud earth.
Shakespeare—Tempest. c. 14.

Do you within the bounds of nature live,
And to augment you need not strive;
The boundless acre will no less for you
Your life's whole business, than ten thousand do.
Cautley's Essay on Acreage.

We must not forget one, who dwelling at Stockbridge in this county, made so artificial a plough, that by the help of engines and some contrivances, it might be drawn by dogs, and managed by one man, who would plough in one day well nigh an acre of the light ground in this county.

Puller's Worthies, in Ham-shire.

Heathcote himself, and such large acored men,
Lords of fat Kham, or of Lintow Fen,
By every stalk of wood that lends them head,
By every pullet they affect to eat.

Pope's Imit. Hor. book ii. ep. 2.

While my dogs of this baneful system remain, you cannot justly boast of general freedom: it was a system of slyly and partial freedom, enjoyed by great houses only, and many acored men, who were perpetually invading and giving check to the king, whilst they tacked and harrowed the people.

Sir William Jones's Speech on the Reformations of Parliament.

ACRE, a measure of land amounting to four square rods, or 160 square poles or perches. In England, the length of the pole varies in different counties, the difference running from the 16½ feet to 28, which consequently makes the size of the acre different. In the 24th Henry VIII., an act respecting the sowing of flax, it is declared, that 160 perches shall make an English acre; and a statute of Edward I. agrees with this measurement, which is that most generally received. The statute length of a pole or perch is 5½ yards, or 16½ feet. The acre is also divided into 10 square chains, of 22 yards each, that is, 4840 square yards. A Scottish acre contains four square rods; one square rod is 40 square fathoms; one square fathom, 36 square ells; one square ell, nine square feet and 73 square inches; one square foot, 144 square inches. It is also divided into 10 square chains; the measuring chain should be 24 ells in length, divided into 100 links, each link 8½ inches; and so one square chain will contain 10,000 square links. The English statute acre is about three rods and six faths, standard measure of Scotland.

The French acre, *arpent*, is equal to 54,450 square English feet, of which the English acre contains only 43,560.—The Strasburg acre is about half an English acre.—The Welsh acre contains commonly two English ones.—The Irish acre is equal to one acre two rods and 19 perches $\frac{1}{2}$ English.

ACRE-Fight, an old sort of duel fought by English and Scottish borderers in the open field, with sword and lance; called also *camp-fight*.

ACRE-Tax, a tax laid on land at so much per acre; in some places called 'acre-shot.' Imposition on lands to the great level are to be raised by a proportionable acre-tax, 20 Car. II. cap. 8.

ACRE, in the Mogul's dominions, synonymous with lach, the sum of 100,000 rupees; the pound sterling is about eight rupees; hence a lach of rupees amounts to 12,500 pounds sterling.

ACRE, or ACRA, a fortified town of Syria, on the Phœnician coast. At different periods it has been known by the several names of Ptolemais, from one of the Ptolemies; Aera, Ake, Acca, Accor, and St. John

d'Acre: the last appellation being most probably derived from the Knights Hospitallers of St. John, after the loss of Jerusalem. It is now the chief town of a pashalic of the same name, which is bounded by the Mediterranean on the west, by the Jordan on the east, Nahr-el-keth on the north, and Caesarea south. Its most ancient name, AKH, has been observed upon small bronze medals found, though rarely, in the country. The early travellers speak of its pristine splendour, and of the magnificent buildings by which it was once adorned. Dr. Clarke states, that the external view is the only prospect of it worth beholding. The sight of the interior exactly resembles what is seen in Constantinople, and in the generality of Turkish cities: narrow, dirty lanes, with wretched shops, and as wretched inhabitants.

The port of Acre is had, though it is one of the best Port.

situated on the coast, being sheltered from the north and north-west winds by the town, which is situated on a promontory. It is greatly choked up since the time of Fakr-el-din. The fortifications are unimportant; there are only a few low towers near the port, on which cannon are mounted; but so rusty and bad, that some of them burst every time they are fired. Its defence on the land side is merely a garden wall without any ditch. The possession of Acre is, however, of great importance, as it keeps the inhabitants of the country in a state of subjection. It is the sole avenue by which the rice, which is the staple food of the people, can enter; so that the ruler of Acre may, if he please, dry up the resources of Syria, and cause a famine to ravage that whole region. Ships anchor with most security in that part of the bay which lies to the north of Mount Carmel, below the village of Haifa, or, as it is usually termed, Caiffa; but the harbour is exposed to the north-west wind, which rages along this coast. It may be called the key of the holy land.

The town was originally surrounded with triple walls, and a fine cut out of the rock, from which, at present, it is a mile distant. The houses are built of cut stone, and they are flat-roofed, with terraces. The remains of a considerable edifice are observable on the left of the mosque, towards the north side of the city. In its style of architecture, it is Gothic, on which account it has, perhaps, been called by Englishmen, 'King Richard's Palace.' Some pointed arches and a part of the cornice remain; the latter ornamented with enormous stone busts of hideous appearance. The rest of the ruins in Acre are those of the arsenal, of the college of the knights, of the palace and chapel of the grand master, and of ten or twelve other churches; but they are now so intermingling with modern buildings, as to have almost lost their distinctions and antique character. Three of the churches were originally dedicated to St. Saba, St. Thomas, and St. Nicholas. In the garden of the Djexzar Pasha's palace, there are some pillars of yellow variegated marble of exquisite beauty, which have been brought from the ruins of Caesarea, upon the coast between Acre and Jaffa, about fifteen or twenty miles south of the point of the promontory of Mount Carmel. Close to the entrance of the palace is a beautiful fountain of white marble, which, together with almost all the marble used in the decorations of his sumptuous mosque, are constructed from the same rich quarry of materials. The principal bath of Acre is considered as the finest of any in the

ACRE.

Acce.

ACRE.

Commerce.

Turkish dominions. This city also contains two bazars, or market-places, three khans, or inns, for the reception of goods, and the accommodation of travellers; and several coffee-houses. The staple articles of commerce are corn and cotton; but, though some European nations, particularly the French, formed mercantile establishments here, they naturally dwindled under the monopolizing spirit of the late pasha, who took the trade into his own hands. Both the government and the people, however, pay considerable respect to Europeans. The population was computed by the Abbé Martini, in 1760, at 16,000; and by Mr. Browne, in 1797, at 18,000, or 20,000. The circumjacent country is exceedingly fertile, abounding in cattle, corn, olives, and linseed. The air of Acre is superior to that of Cyprus, a remark which applies generally to all the coast of Syria and Palestine, and is verified by the absence of noxious reptiles, and of venomous insects, such as toads and mosquitoes, which always pervade an insalubrious region.

History.

The history of this town may be traced to a distant period; and in modern times it has acquired celebrity by being the theatre of some considerable transactions. Josephus considers it as belonging to the tribe of Asher, and relates, that after being held by Demetrius, the son of Seleucus, it came by treachery into the possession of Antiochus Epiphanes; after which it was captured by the Hebrew Alexander, ceded to Ptolemy; from whom it passed to Cleopatra. It was also conquered by the Persians, and subsequently becoming a Roman colony, then under the dominion of the Moors, it sustained many sieges both by the Christians and Saracens, in the period of the crusades: the former expelled the latter from it in 1104, but in 1187 it was taken by Saladin, king of Egypt. Soon afterwards, being invested by the combined forces of all the Christians in Palestine, after a vigorous defence of more than two years, it yielded to the arms of Philip Augustus of France, and Richard I. of England, on the 12th of July 1191. The conquest, however, was dearly acquired by the loss of 100,000 Christians, besides great numbers who perished by shipwreck and disease. It was now occupied for nearly a century, in some sense, by all the European and Asiatic powers; for there were no less than nineteen of them exercising an independent authority here, among which we find—the kings of Jerusalem and Naples; the princes of Antioch, Jaffa, Tripoli, Gallien, Tarentum, and Armenia; the pope's legate; the duke of Athens; the commanders of the English, Genoese, Florentine, and Pisau armies; the Teutonic and Lazarine knights, and the Knights Templars—specified; and during this period it was a place of great resort and large extent. In 1291, it was again besieged, and taken by the Saracens, and sixty thousand Christians consigned to death or slavery, in retaliation for at least equal barbarities exercised on the infidels by the besieged. On this occasion, the moor gave an almost unparalleled specimen of fortitude, by mangling themselves in a dreadful manner in the face, for the purpose of exciting the aversion of the victors, of whom they had otherwise just reason to apprehend a violation of their humanity: the Saracens, in revenge, slew them all. From this period, Acre remained in a state of magnificent decay, and almost total desertion; till in the seventeenth century, Faccardiu, prince of the Druses,

ACRE.

attempted its restoration: but notwithstanding his shoving up the harbour to defend himself from the Turks, they regained it, and the pasha of Saïda appointed an annual governor; till at length Dahar, an Arabian Sheik, who obtained the name of St. John of Acre, carried it by assault in 1749, and having appeased the Porte, assumed the government of the city. Here he not only maintained his independence, but, by his judicious regulations, raised it from meanness to dignity; but in 1775, at the time he was attacked by a Turkish fleet, aided by the Moors, he was betrayed and assassinated at the age of nearly sixty years. His successor was Ahmed Pasha, a Bosnian, who was surnamed Djazzar, or butcher. The baron De Tott's Memoirs first brought the name of this wretched prince into Europe, as having, in his time (1785), entombed alive a number of Greeks whose heads were then to be seen. "His mere name," observes Dr. Clarke, "carried terror with it over all the Holy Land; the most lawless tribes of Arabs expressing their awe and obedience whenever it was uttered. His appellation, Djazzar, as explained by himself, signified butcher; but of this name, notwithstanding its avowed allusion to slaughters committed by him, he was evidently vain. He was his own minister, chancellor, treasurer and secretary; often his own cook and gardener; and not unfrequently both judge and executioner in the same instant. Yet there were persons who had acted, and still occasionally officiated, in these several capacities, standing by the door of his apartment; some without a nose, others without an arm, with one ear only, or one eye, 'marked men,' as he termed them, persons 'bearing signs' of their having been instructed to serve their master with fidelity." During the miracle of this arbitrary monster, Buonaparte landed in Egypt, and proposed an alliance, which was refused; upon which, after victoriously traversing Syria, with an army of more than twelve thousand men, the French conqueror began the siege of Acre, on the 18th of March, 1799. The pasha, who had already evacuated Caïffa, conceiving that the fortifications were in too miserable a state to avail him, was preparing to retreat, when Sir Sydney Smith anchored with his squadron in the roads of Caïffa, and reinspired the inhabitants, by making every preparation for a vigorous defence. Buonaparte having invested the place, and being enabled to carry his trenches close to the ditch, a breach was effected in ten days, when he endeavoured to carry it by assault, but was repulsed with a heavy loss. Within two days, another assault was made, and with a similar result. Eight different attempts were made of the same kind, by which multitudes of the French perished on the occasion, and in the sorries by which they were followed. On the fifty-second day, two last and desperate efforts were made; the Turkish fire, even when aided by the opportune approach of the British seamen, was for some time ineffectual, owing to the numbers of the enemy, which perpetually renewed the ranks of the slain. At length, however, the French were repulsed; but as a breach had been made practicable for fifty men abreast, the French entered in the evening; a dreadful carnage ensued, Djazzar was every where slaying his troops, and the foe was utterly vanquished. After these disastrous struggles, during which Buonaparte lost his battering pieces and stores, and was ultimately

ACRR.
ACRIDO-
PHAGI.

compelled to throw his heavy cannon into the sea; on the 20th of May, at the expiration of sixty-one days, he raised the siege, and boldly announced in Egypt, in a public manifesto, that Acre was reduced to a heap of ruins, and posterity would ask where the city had stood. After this period, the fortifications were considerably enlarged. At the time of Dr. Clarke's visit they were proceeding with great rapidity, to whom Djézzar made this sage and characteristic remark, upon the entrance of the engineer into his presence: "Some persons have a head for these matters" (putting his finger to his forehead), "and some have not. Let us see whether or not Buonaparte will make a breach there again. A breach is a breach, and a wall is a wall!" Djézzar pasha adorned Acre, however, with several magnificent public works, in which he is said to have been his own engineer and artist. He built the principal bazaar, the mosque, and the very elegant public fountain. After the death of Djézzar, Ishmael pasha usurped the government; but he was displaced and slain by one of Djézzar's slaves, named Sullivan, a man generally of a mild and pacific character, on whom the Porte conferred the pachalic. Acre is about 27 miles south of Tyre, and 70 north of Jerusalem. N. lat. 32° 40'. E. lon. 39° 25'. See Hume's Hist. vol. ii. p. 14, 23. Gibbon's Hist. vol. ii. chap. 59. CLARKE'S Travels, part 2, sect. 1, chap. 3.

ACREDULLA, a species of the Mus, in the Linnaean system: the migratory mouse of Pallas, found in Siberia.

ACRID, adj.	} Acre, acies, acer, sharp. Distinguished from acerb and acrimony. Acid, by its application to that sharpness which bites, cuts, corrodes.
ACERMONIOS,	
ACRIMONY,	
ACRITUDE,	

Like a lawyer, I am ready to support the cause. In which, give me leave to suppose, that I shall be soon retained with ardour; and if occasion be, with subtilty and acrimony.

Beltingrake's Occasional Letter Writer.

The malignity of soldiers and sailors against each other has been often experienced at the cost of their country; and, perhaps, no order of men have an enmity of more alarming or longer continuance.

Rambler, No. 9

Most satyrists are indeed a public scourge,
Their mildest physic is a farmer's purge.
Their arid jest, or turn, as soon as stirred,
The milk of their good purposes all to curd.

Cropper's Charity.

ACRIDOPHAGI, from *acrís*, locust, and *phagw*, to eat, an ancient people of Ethiopia, inhabiting near the deserts, who fed on locusts. As the precise situation of the country has never been ascertained, many have considered the accounts of them which antiquity has transmitted are wholly fabulous. Diodorus Siculus describes their stature as short, meagre, and extremely black. "They were so short-lived that their life never exceeded forty years, and they generally died a wretched death. In their old age, winged insects of different forms bred in their bodies, beginning in the breast and belly, and soon spreading through the whole frame. The patient at first felt an itching; and the agreeable sensation produced by scratching, occasioned these vermin forcing their way out, and they caused effusions of corrupt blood, with excruciating pain in the skin. The sufferer, with lamentable cries, was industrious himself to make passages for them with his nails. At length he expired, covered with numberless ulcers. In spring,

when the warm west winds drive swarms of locusts among the Acridophagi, they set fire to wood and other combustibles in a steep and large valley, when the flight of locusts passing over it were suffocated by the smoke. They are immediately collected in heaps, and salted for use."

Pliny represents the Parthians as feeding on locusts. Ælian says, they were sold in Egypt for food, which is corroborated by the testimony of various Greek authors. Hasselquist, who visited Syria and Egypt, in the year 1752, with a view to improve natural history, informs us, that he asked Franks, and many others who had lived long in these countries, whether they had ever heard that the inhabitants of Arabia, Ethiopia, &c. used locusts as food? They answered in the affirmative. To the same question, Armenians, Copts, and Syrians, who lived in Arabia, and had travelled in Syria, and near the Red Sea, gave a similar answer. A learned sheik at Cairo, who had lived six years in Mecca, mentioned, that a famine frequently rages at Mecca, when there is a scarcity of corn in Egypt, which obliges the inhabitants to live upon coarser food than ordinary: and that when corn is scarce, the Arabians grind the locusts in hand-mills, or stone mortars, and bake them into cakes, and use these cakes in place of bread.

Sparman informs us, that locusts sometimes afford a high treat to the remote hordes of the Hottentots: when, as sometimes happens, after an interval of eight, ten, fifteen, or twenty years, they make their appearance in incredible numbers. At those times they come from the north, migrating to the southward, and do not suffer themselves to be impeded by any obstacles, but fly boldly on, and are drowned in the sea whenever they come to it. The females of this race of insects, which are most apt to migrate, and are chiefly eaten, are said not to be able to fly; partly by reason of the shortness of their wings, and partly on account of their being heavy and distended with eggs; and shortly after they have laid these in the sand, they are said to die. It is particularly of these that the Hottentots make a brown coffee-coloured soup, which at the same time acquires from the eggs a fat and greasy appearance. The Hottentots are highly rejoiced at the arrival of these locusts, though they are sure to destroy every bit of verdure on the ground: but the Hottentots make themselves ample amends for this loss, by falling foul on the animals themselves, eating them in such quantities as in the space of a few days to get visibly fatter and in better condition than before.

Dr. Shaw observes, that the Jews were allowed to eat them; and that when they are sprinkled with salt, and fried, their taste resembles that of our fresh-water cray-fish; and Russel says, the Arabs salt and eat them as a delicacy. These accounts sufficiently explain the scriptural statement respecting the food of John the Baptist in the wilderness, Matt. iii. 4. Some indeed maintain, that the original word signifies the tops of certain herbs, or the fruits of certain trees: others have supposed it means quails; but Shaw contends it is applied to the locust on account of its appetite for such food. The word is used by Aristotle, and other historians, in the same sense, and therefore the literal interpretation of the word may be received. In addition to the authors cited above, consult Strabo, lib. xvi.

ACRIDO-
PHAGI.

ACRIDO- Agatharides, *Perip. de Rubro Mari*, Athenæus, lib. xlii. Plin. *Nat. Hist.* lib. vi. and xi. Hieronymi *Opera*, tom. iv. Niebuhr, *Descr. de l'Arabie*. Barrow's *Travels*, vol. i. Drake's *Voyages*. Buffon, *Nat. Hist.* vol. vi. Bryant on the *Plagues of Egypt*, art. Locusts. Harmer's *Observations*, vol. ii. Calmet's *Dict.*

ACRISONEUS, a patronymic name of the Argives, from Acrisius, a town of Argolis, called after a daughter of Acrisius, one of their ancient kings. Vossius.

ACROAMATICI, a name given to the disciples or followers of Aristotle, who were admitted into the secrets of the inner or more abstruse philosophy. The word (Acroamatic) has sometimes been generally applied to what is deep or profound in science.

ACROATHOUM, or **ACROTHOUM**, in Ancient Geography, a town on the top of Mount Athos, where the inhabitants, according to Meli, were longer lived by half than in any other country; called by the modern Greeks, *Ayur opoc*; by the Italians *La Cima di Monte Santo*.

ACROATIC, the name given to Aristotle's lectures on the abstruse points of philosophy, to which only his own disciples and intimate friends were admitted; the exoteric were open to all, and were employed in rhetorical and civil speculations. The acroatica were the subject of the morning exercises in the Lyceum, the exoteric in the evenings.

ACROBATICA, or **ACROBATISM** (*acrobat*, high, and *gaiter*, or *gawse*, I go), an ancient engine, for the purpose of raising up workmen or others to the top of buildings or trees. The acrobatics of the Greeks was the same with the scansionum of the Latins. Some authors, as Turnebus and Barbarus, consider it to have been a military engine, raised by besiegers to overlook the walls; others regard it as a moveable scaffold, or cradle, used for general purposes of business or pleasure.

ACROCERAUNIUM, a promontory of Epirus, on which are situated the **ACROCERAUNIA**, or **MONTES CERAUNII** (*acrobat* high, *εραυνος* thunder), in Ancient Geography;—so called from their being often thunder-struck, between the Ionian sea and the Adriatic; where Illyria ends and Epirus begins; now the mountain called Monti della Chimera. They project into the sea, and make the point of land dangerous to navigators.

ACROCHERISMUS, (from *opoc* and *χερ*, the hand) a sort of gymnastic exercise among the Greeks, in which the two combatants contended only with their hands and fingers, without closing with each other, or engaging the other parts of the body. **ACACINUTUS** was a name given to those engaged in this species of combat.

ACROCORINTHUS, in Ancient Geography, a lofty mountain on the isthmus of Corinth, remarkable for an acropolis, or citadel. Here was a temple of Venus; lower down issued the fountain Pirene; it separated the two continents of Greece and Peloponnesus.

ACRO'KE, On Crook. See **CROOK**.

And give her for the reuse of her pleasure
For liberty is thing that women lacke
And truly els the matter is a crooke.

Chaucer. *Coat of Arms*, fol. 350, c. 3.

ACROMION, in Anatomy, the upper process of the scapula, or shoulder-blade. See **ANATOMY**, Div. ii.

ACROMONOGRAMMATICUM, in Poetry, a kind of poem, wherein one verse begins with the letter with which the preceding verse terminates.

ACRON, a district of the territory of the Faoties, on the Gold coast of Guinea, in Africa. Its capital is Assam, or Apam, a commodious sea-port, where the Dutch have a small fort. This place was destroyed, with most of the inhabitants, in 1811, by the Ashantes. A week after, the fort was plundered and laid in ruins by Attah, late king of Akim; it is about fifty miles E. N. E. of Cape Coast. **GREAT ACRON** is a kind of republic farther inland.

ACRONICAL, **ACHRONICAL**, or **ACHRONICAL**, a term applied to the rising of a star after sun-set. See **ACHRONOMY**, Div. ii.

ACROPOLIS, in Ancient Geography, the citadel of Athens, built on an eminence accessible only on one side, called Polis, because it constituted the original city; and the Upper Polis, to distinguish it from the lower, which was afterwards built round it in a large, open plain. On the north side was a wall, built by the Pelagi, and called Pelagic; and another on the south constructed by Cimon, the son of Miltiades, out of the Persian spoils. From its nine gates, it was called Enneapylon, the ascent to which was by a magnificent flight of steps of white marble, built by Pericles. At the bottom was a temple to Minerva.

ACROPOLIS was likewise the name given to a city of Libya, another of Ætolia, and a third of Albania.

ACROSPERMUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, of the class Cryptogamia fungi, of which there are six species.

ACROSS. On Cross. See **CROSS**.

When other looms in arms across,
Rejoice their choice delight;
Downed in traces to mourn my loss,
I stand this byer night
In my window.

Surry.

But when the rage doth lead them from the right
That looking backward virtue they may see
Even as she is, so goodly fair and bright:
And whilst they clasp their lusts in arms across,
Grant them, good Lord, so thus must of thy might,
To front inward, for losing such a loss.

Hgall.

The sticks are across, there can be no less,
The sage is rotten, the sulphur is gotten
Up to the sky, that was in the ground.
Follow it then with our rattles round.

Ben Jonson's *Masque of Queens*. Charn v.

Across his breast an azure rubicund weed,
At which a medal hung that did present,
To woodroon living figures, to the sight,
The myrtle champion, & old Juba's fight.

Curley on the Government of Oliver Cromwell.

—Went I at prayers,
If Palestine should come across my thoughts
The curse would follow where I meant a blessing.

Dryden's *Cleric*, act iii. sc. 1.

It was anciently the manner for the Bishop to lay both his hands across on the head of the confemred, not only in imitation of Jacob, but in allusion to the death of Christ, to whom we believe, and from whom we receive the Holy Ghost.

Combe's *Discourses to the Temple*.

When cheerfulness, a symbol of healthiest fun,
Her bow across her shoulder flung,
Her hankers grum'd with morning dew,
Blew an inspiring air, that dale and thicket rung.

Collier's *Ode on the Passions*.

ACRO-
MONO-
GRAM-
MATI-
CUM.

ACROSS.

ACROSS. I gave a thousand pensive, penetrating looks at the chair thou hast so often graced, in those quiet and unadorned regards—thou laid down my knife and fork, and took out my handkerchief; and clapt it across my face, and wist like a child.

Stern's Letters.

ACROSTICK (from *acrop*, extremity, and *erog*, verse), a poetical composition, in which the initial letters of the lines or the verses form the name of some person or thing. The acrostic is so obviously an artificial and adventitious arrangement of verse as to have been justly abandoned by all sound critics and poets in modern times.

ACROSTICHUM, **ROSTYBACK**, **WALL-RUE**, or **FOUR-FERN**, a genus of plants belonging to the class Cryptogamia, order Filices.

ACROSTOLIUM, in ancient naval architecture, the ornament which was appended to the extreme part on the prow of ships, the other decorations on this part being called *strakes*. The shape of the acrostolium was generally circular or spiral, though sometimes it assumed the form of particular parts of ancient armour, or consisted of rude imitations of different animals. The acrostolium frequently appeared on the reverse of ancient medals, as emblematical of victory.

ACROTERIA, or **ACROTERS**, in ancient Architecture, small pedestals, without bases, placed at the middle or two extremes of pediments or frontispieces, and used for the purpose of supporting statues. The figures on the tops of churches, and the sharp pinnacles which appear in ranges about flat buildings, acquired the same designation.

Ancient physicians used the term in reference to the larger extremities of the body, as the head, hands, and feet; and sometimes for the processes of bones, and for the extremities of the fingers.

ACT', v.
ACT', n.
ACT'ION.
ACT'IONABLE.
ACT'IONLESS.
ACT'IVATE.
ACT'IVE.
ACT'IVELY.
ACT'IVENESS.
ACT'IVITY.
ACT'LESS.
ACT'ION.
ACT'UAL.
ACT'UALITY.
ACT'UALLY.
ACT'UATE, adj.
ACT'UATE, v.
ACT'UATION.

Ag, *actum*. To do.
Applied particularly to legislative or judicial proceedings;—and to the performance of an assumed part.
Actuate is generally applied to that which *acts*,—so as to guide or regulate.

For notation we by Golden instruments,
And means to don his commandments,
When that him list, upon his creatures,
To diverse *actes* and in diverse figures:
Withouton him we have no might certain,
If that him list to stonde ther again.

Chaucer. Friars Tale, vol. i. p. 284.

And this way is cleped penance; of which man should gladly broken and enquiren with all his herte, to wete, what is penance, and whences it is cleped penance, and how many maneres ben of actons or werkings of penance.

Id. Penances Tale, vol. ii. p. 291.

VOL. XVII.

Thus sayth the frend; for certes, that is a man all ded in soules; and thus it shal accompysh, by temptation, by delit, and by consuetude; and than is the soule *actuel*.

Chaucer. Penances Tale, vol. ii. p. 308.

It is well known both to reason and experience in doing every active woortheeth on his po-wine.

Id. 2nd Book of the Testament of Law, fol. 306, col. 1.

For of fre will thinke actus is an world
Name may it pers, will thou rest and stande:
Besom thou counte counte counte,
And by counte crye, thy dele is dight.

Douglas. Prol. to b. xith, line 26.

For Venus after the gys and maner there,
Ase active low upon hir schoulder bare,
As sche had bene ane wide hountre,
With end wailing, hir harte lowest of trace,
Hir skurt kilte all hir bare knee.

Id. b. i. p. 22.

With silver droppes the meade yet sped for nether,
In active games of cimbles and strength,
Where we did strace, trayned with swaines of youth,
Our tender limmes, that yet shot up in legth.

Sorry.

To make new acticles of our faith contrary to Gods worde, and to set them to their prophane acclaire acies of priuilegements, armed with swerde and fier is not els then to be exalted above God himself.

Jeye. Exposition of Daniel, p. 222.

I shall destroye the wyrdom of their wyse men, & the understandinge and forecets of their men of wote acclaire & polites shall haue a fall.

Id. p. 215.

Ratending in his myrd to do many nobis and notable acties, and remembryng that all goodnes cometh of God, and that all worldly thynges and humaine acties bee more weaker and power then the celestiall power & heavenly reasonnes, determined to begin with some thyng pleasant and acceptable to God.

Hall, repr. 1809, p. 47.

Item, it is plainly known by lawfull probacion, that the same Jhs Burthwike hath had, and actively hath, diverse bookes suspect of heresy dampned, as well by the Popall, as by the Royal ac-theories foridden (that is to saie) firste of all the ower testament in Englishe.

Id. p. 845.

And so Moses obeyed the voyce of hys father in law, & chose actiue men out of all Israel, and made them as heeles over the people.

Bible, 1535, Exodus, chap. xviii.

O geis thankes unto the Lord, for he is gracious, and his mercy endureth for ever. Who can expresse y' nobis acties of the Lorde, or shewe forth all hys prayse?

Psalter cri. Bible, 1539.

Mercour thou shalt seke out amongst all the people, men of actiue, and such as feare God.

Id.

Do, O then unfold the passion of my love,
Surprise her with discourse of my deere faith;
It shall become thee well to act my woes:
She will attend it better in thy youth,
Than in a nun's of more grave aspect.

Shakespeare, Twelfth Night, act i. sc. 4.

It is not so with him that all things knowes
As 'tis with us, that square our guess by shewes:
But most it is presumption in us, when
The help of heaven we count the act of men.

Id. All's Well, act ii. sc. 1.

Therefore I pre thee
Supply me with the habit, and instruct me
How I may formally in person beate
Like a true frier: Most reasons for this action
At our more leysure, shall I ree-or you.

Id. M. for M., act i. sc. 4.

OBEDIENCE. He is simply the most active gentleman of France. Coner, Daug is actiue, and he will still be doing.

Id. H. P., act iii. sc. 7.

N

ACT.

Conso. Like a dull actor now, I have forgot my part,
And I am out, as to a full discharge.

Shakespeare, Cymbeline, act v. sc. 3.

God caused the sun to move, and to visit every part of the inferior world; by his heat to stir up the fire of generation, and to give activity to the seeds of all nature.

Keight's Hist. of the World.

'Tis a rule, that great designs of state should be mysterious till they come to the very act of performance, and then they should turn to performance.

Howell's Letters.

Those, when thou wilt allow companions of thy way, then wilt not allow partners of thy work: they may be witnesses; they cannot be actors.

Ep. Hall's Contemplations.

Cato said; the best way to keep good acts in memory, was to refresh them with new.

Lord Bacon's Apophthegms.

Talk no more so exceedingly proudly; let not arrogancy come out of your mouth: for the Lord is a God of knowledge, and by him actions are weighed.

I Sam. chap. ii. v. 3.

He that can make a reason for an action otherwise unjust, can do it without any reason.

Ep. Taylor, Of Original Sin.

Man is by nature an active creature; he cannot be long idle; either for good or bad, he must take up his share and proceed to his condition.

John Hale's Sermon, entitled Dard Custodum.

Though the earth and the fire be most opposite in distance, in substance, and in activity, yet they agree in one quality, the two middle being therein directly contrary to the two extremes, one to earth, and water to fire.

Mabewill's Apologie.

Of all your acts, yet never did I know
Any that yet so actively did show
Such rolls for patience, such an easy way,
That whose sees it shall be forc'd to say,
Lo what before seem'd hard to be discern'd,
Is of this lady, in an instant learn'd.

Drayton's Elegies.

For, in the wily snake
Whatever sleights, none would suspicious mark,
As from his wit and native subtilty
Proceeding; which, in other beasts observ'd,
Doubt might forget of diabolic power,
Actor within, beyond the sense of brute.

Milton's Par. Lost, b. ix.

Mean while in Paradise the bellicose pair
Too soon arriv'd; Sin, there in power before,
(Once actual) now in body, and to dwell
Habitual habitant; behind her Death,
Close following pace for pace

Id. b. x.

Ah, Sylvia! thou in vain you strive
To act a healer's part,
Thou wilt keep but lingering pain alive,
Alas! and break my heart.

Olney's Complaint.

— Lose him to her! to her!
A poor, young, active, indigested thing,
Whose utmost pride can only boast of youth
And innocence.

Sutherland's Legal Brother, act i. sc. 1.

He that studies to represent one of known and eminent merit to be a more fool and an idiot gives himself the lie, and betrays that he is either actuated with envy, or entraped by a faction.

Beattie's Phalaris.

Nothing better proves that a thing *can* be, than that it *actually* is.

Farmer's Sermons.

Actus, when set properly in opposition to passion or passiveness, is no real existence; it is not the same with *no crime*, but is a mere relation: it is the *activeness* of something on another thing, using the opposite relation to the other.

Edwards on the Freedom of the Will.

ACT.

This man is hurrying to a convert, only lest others should have heard the new manna before him; another bursts from his company to the play, because he fancies himself the patron of an actress.

Adelmann, No. 262.

Common easiness are such incoherent and troublesome offences as annoy the whole community in general, and not merely some particular person; and therefore are indelible only, and not removable.

Hickstone's Com.

Many who read the scriptures are grossly ignorant; but he who acts well is a truly learned man.

See W. Jones's Translation of Hesiodus.

ACT, in Logic. See LOGIC, Div. i.

ACT, in Law, is an instrument given in writing to declare or justify the truth of any thing.

ACT, in the Universities, a thesis publicly maintained by a candidate for a degree; or to show a student's proficiency. At Oxford, the time when masters or doctors complete their degrees is also called the 'act'; which is held with great solemnity. At Cambridge, they call it the 'commencement.'

'Act' is also a collegiate appellation for the person who proposes questions that are the subjects of disputation in the exercises of the university schools.

ACT OF FAITH, *Auto da Fé*, a phrase applied to a transaction which takes place (usually at some great festival) when a number of prisoners in the Inquisition, having been convicted of the alleged crime of heresy, are brought forth from their dungeons to undergo a public execution; and when also such as are found innocent are absolved.

The detail which writers on the Inquisition have given us of this tragical service cannot fail of exciting in every pious, and in every humane bosom, emotions of the most afflicting kind: and it serves to convince us that there is no degree of obliquity of which the human mind is not susceptible under the discipline and teaching of religious superstition. What outrages indeed have not been practised under the sacred name of religion, which has not only lost all its benignant peculiarity of character, through being forced into an unnatural alliance with the worst passions that ever degraded man, but has been made to assume despotism away over the free-born spirit; to wield the sword of the persecutor, and utter the blasphemies of the bottomless pit.

The unhappy victims of the *auto da fé* are treated in the following manner. On the day appointed for their execution, they are brought into the great hall of the Inquisition, and being clothed in certain habits peculiar to the occasion, they are conducted in procession by Dominican friars. They have black coats without sleeves, and walk barefooted, holding a wax candle: the penitents who follow wear black cloaks painted all over with representations of flames with their points downwards, the indication of their escaping the terrible punishment which awaits the relapsed, who come next in succession whose painted flames point upwards. The direct and avowed opponents of the catholic faith, besides this latter sign of their doom, are covered with figures of dogs, serpents, and devils, painted with their picture upon their breast. A Jesuit is placed on either side of the individuals destined to be burnt, who are urging them by reiterated appeals to recant and abjure their heresies. A troop of familiars follows on horseback, then the inquisitors on mules, with other officers: the inquisitor-general sitting on a

ACT. white horse, led by two attendants in black hats and green livery, closing the procession.

Having arrived at the scaffold, a sermon is delivered, replete with invectives against the victims of inquisitorial malignity, and abundantly eulogistic with regard to the institution, when a priest recapitulates from a desk the sentences of those who are condemned to suffer death, and delivers them over to the magistrate, with the farcical request that their lives may not be endangered. They are immediately put in chains, and hurried to the gall, whence they are soon taken before the civil judge, who inquires, "in what religion they mean to die?" Such is return for answer, that they die in the communion of the Romish church, are first strangled, and afterwards burnt to ashes. All others are burnt alive: and each class of delinquents is instantly conducted to the place of execution. When those who persist in their heresy are fastened to the stake, the Jesuits lead them with officious admonitions, and at length, in parting, declare that they leave them to the devil, who is at their elbow to receive their souls, and carry them into the flames of hell. A shout is instantly uttered by the infatuated populace, who exclaim, "Let the dogs' heads be made," which consists in putting flaming fuzes to the faces of the victims, who are, from the position in which they sit, slowly roasted to death. This spectacle is beheld by both sexes, and all ages, with the most barbarous demonstrations of delight.

ACT. the name of the parts into which dramatic poems are divided, the general design of which division is to afford a convenient pause both to the actors and spectators. There were no such divisions in the Greek drama: but a similar purpose was answered by their episodes and choruses. The Romans first divided their theatrical pieces into acts. The following judicious observations, by Dr. Johnson, occur in the *Hambler*, No. 156:—"That many rules have been advanced without consulting nature or reason, we cannot but suspect, when we find it peremptorily decreed by the ancient masters, that only three speaking personages should appear at once upon the stage: a law which, as the variety and intricacy of modern plays has made it impossible to be observed, we now violate without scruple, and, as experience proves, without inconvenience.

"The original of this precept was merely accidental. Tragedy was a monody, or solitary song in honour of Bacchus, improved afterwards into a dialogue by the addition of another speaker; but the ancients, remembering that the tragedy was at first pronounced only by one, durst not for some time venture beyond two; at last, when custom and impunity had made them daring, they extended their liberty to the admission of three, but restrained themselves by a critical edict from further exorbitance.

"By what accident the number of acts was limited to five, I know not; that any author has informed us; but certainly it is not determined by any necessity arising either from the nature of action, or propriety of exhibition. An act is only the representation of such a part of the business of the play as proceeds in an unbroken tenour, or without any intermediate pause. Nothing is more evident than that of every real, and by consequence of every dramatic action, the intervals may be more or fewer than five; and, indeed, the rule

is, upon the English stage, every day broken in effect, without any other mischief than that which arises from an absurd endeavour to observe it in appearance. Whenever the scene is shifted, the act ceases, since some time is necessarily supposed to elapse while the personages of the drama change their place.

"With an greater right to our obedience have the critics confined the dramatic action to a certain number of hours. Probability requires that the time of action should approach somewhat nearly to that of exhibition, and those plays will always be thought most happily conducted, which crowd the greatest variety into the least space. But since it will frequently happen that some delusion must be admitted, I know not where the limits of imagination can be fixed. It is rarely observed that minds, not prepossessed by mechanical criticism, feel any offence from the extension of the intervals between the acts; nor can I conceive it absurd or impossible, that he who can multiply three hours into twelve or twenty-four, might imagine, with equal ease, a greater number."

ACTS of Parliament are positive laws, to which the three estates of the realm have agreed; it is applied also to the resolutions of an assembly, senate, or convocation.

ACTA Consistorii, in Roman Law, the declarations or enactments of the imperial council of state. The senate and soldiers often swore upon the edicts of the emperor.

ACTA Populi, among the Romans, were registers of their daily occurrences, from which also they derived another name, that of *Acta Diurna*. They differed from Annals, as containing transactions of inferior importance. The Annals consisted of details of greater magnitude. Tacit. *Annal.* 13, 31.

ACTA Senatus, called also *Commentarii*, were minutes of the debates which occurred in the senate-house.

ACTS, Public. Those enactments which public bodies have made from time to time, generally written in barbarous Latin, but of great importance to the statesman and historian. The English acts were first published by Rymer, under the title of *Fœdera*.

ACTS of the Apostles, a canonical book of the New Testament, written by St. Luke, which contains the history of the Christian church, from the period of our Saviour's ascension to about the year 63 of the Christian era. This book is confirmatory of the divinely original of Christianity. It furnishes a very detailed and most faithful record of the early facts of the primitive church; and particularly the remarkable story of the propagation of the religion of Jesus. The composition is more purely Greek than that of any other of the sacred writers, and may be regarded as worthy of particular study, not only as a statement of what actually took place, but as a specimen of the general plan upon which those should act who engage in diffusing religion in heathen countries, and of that pure spirit of benevolence which ought to breathe through all their labours.

As every thing peculiarly excellent and important is likely to excite to imitation, we wonder not that the primitive and some succeeding centuries gave birth to numerous spurious Acts of the Apostles. The principal were Acts, supposed to be written by ARNABAS, the pretended bishop of Babylon. *The Acts of St. Peter; The Acts of St. Paul; The Acts of St. John the Evangelist.*

ACT.
ACTION.

gelist; *The Acts of St. Andrew; The Acts of St. Thomas the Apostle; The Acts of St. Philip; and The Acts of St. Matthias.*

Among the Romans, the proconsuls and governors of provinces drew up memoirs of what happened in the course of their government, which were transcribed to the emperor and senate. Hence what have been termed the *Acta of Pilate*, consisting of an account of Jesus Christ sent to Tiberius.

ACTÆA, HERB-CHRISTOPHER, or BANE-BERRIES; a genus of plants, of the class Polyandria, order Monogynia. It is a term also applied to one of the fifty Nereids, and to one of the six malignant genii.

ACTÆON, the son of Amisus and Autonoe, daughter of Cadmus, represented in fabulous history as a great hunter. When Diana and her attendants were bathing, he ventured to approach the place to gratify his curiosity; upon which Diana sprinkled water upon him, when he was instantly changed into a stag, and was devoured by his own dogs. Ovid mentions their names to the number of thirty-five.

ACTIAN Games, *ludi actiæi*, in Roman antiquity, solemn games instituted, or perhaps restored, by Augustus, to commemorate his triumph over Antony at Actium, held, according to Strabo, every fifth year. See ACTIUM.

ACTINIA, a genus of animals belonging to the order Mollusca, class Vermes, called animal flowers and sea anemones. See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

ACTINOLITE. See MINERALOGY, Div. ii.

ACTION, *actio*, in law, the same with lawsuit, or process for obtaining what is legally our due. Actions are of various kinds, and may be classed generally under the two divisions, criminal and civil: the former relating to judgment of death, or only judgment for damage to the party. Civil actions refer to such as tend to the recovery of what is due in consequence of a contract, such as action for debt. Actions penal, which lie for some penalty, are included under criminal actions; also actions upon statute brought upon the breach of a statute, by which an action is given to the person injured that lay not before: and actions popular, or the breach of some penal statute, which every man has a right to sue for himself, and the king by information, &c.

Civil actions comprise real, personal, and mixed: real, or that by which a person claims title in lands or hereditaments in fee: personal, or what one man brings against another on any contract for money or goods, or for any offence or trespass: mixed, or an action that lies both against the person, and for the thing demanded. It seeks a penalty also for unjust detention. Personal actions die with the individual, not real actions. Actions are also local or transitory, perpetual and temporary: the perpetual cannot be determined by time: temporary actions are those expressly limited. Actions are joint or several: joint, where more than one person is equally concerned: several, where persons are to be severally charged. Various descriptions of actions are adapted to different cases, as actions of assumpsit, covenant, debt, detinue, &c.

Action, *præjudicial*, is an action which arises from some hesitation or doubt in the principal. *Action of a writ* is when one pleads some matter by which he shews the plaintiff had no cause to have the writ brought, yet he may have another writ. *Action of*

abstracted multures is an action for multures against those who are thirled to a mill, and come not; and an action to compel persons to grind at a mill according to their tenure. *Action for paying of the ground* is so termed, because it is founded on some inefficent for an annuity that affects the ground.

Actio is a term of the Roman law. The mode of obtaining justice was by the injured person proceeding 'in jus reum vocare,' to summon the offending party to the court, who most either go, or give bond for appearance. If he failed to appear, then the plaintiff might take him with him by force, calling any bystanders to bear witness, by asking them 'visite antestari?'

The plaintiff proposed the action to the defendant, which was called 'edere actionem' and usually done by writing it in a tablet, and then presenting it to the defendant. The 'postulatio actionis,' or the plaintiff's petition to the prætor, for leave to prosecute the defendant, followed, and the petition was granted or refused by an intimation at the bottom.

The plaintiff, on the petition being granted, obliged him to give sureties for his appearance on such a day in the court; the difference might, in the interim, be made up, by allowing the cause to fall as dubious, or by composition.

If neither party appeared, the defaulter lost his cause; otherwise the plaintiff proceeded 'item sine actionem intendere,' to prefer his suit.

The prætor defined and determined the number of witnesses to be admitted, and assigned the judges, who took an oath to be impartial; upon which the trial commenced.

ACTION AND QUANTITY OF ACTION. See MATHMATICS, Div. ii.

ACTION in Ethics, or Moral Action, a voluntary motion of a rational agent.

ACTION, in Poetry, a real or imaginary event, which forms the subject of a dramatic or epic poem. Aristotle denominates it the soul of tragedy. There are two kinds, the principal and the incidental. The former is what is generally called the fable; the latter an episode.

ACTION, in Oratory, the adaptation of countenance, voice, and gesture, to the subject of which the orator discourses. See ORATORY.

ACTION for the Pulpit; and in a theatrical sense. See DECLAMATION.

ACTION, in Painting and Sculpture, the position of the different parts of the face, body, and limbs in a figure. When the word action is employed in distinction from attitude, it refers to the figure being represented in motion, as running, jumping, striking, &c.

ACTUM, in Physiology, refers to the vital, natural, and animal functions of the body.

The vital are such as essentially conduce to life or being; as the action of the chief organs of respiration and pulsation.—The natural actions are those which are instrumental to the continuance of life, as the deglutition and digestion of food, the separation and distribution of the chyle.—The animal actions are those of muscular motion, and those of taste, smell, sight, hearing, perception, reasoning, imagination, &c.

ACTION, in the Military Art, an engagement between two armies, or any inferior bodies of troops. It is also

ACTION. used to express any act by doing which a soldier or a party may have acquired distinction.

ACTRESS ACTRESS
ACTION. in Commerce, is a certain part or share of a public company's capital. A proprietor is called an actioner. Also, among merchants, actions often signify the moveable effects upon which creditors seize.

ACTIVE VERBS, such verbs as have nouns following them which are the subjects of the action or thing considered to be done. See GRAMMAR, DIV. I.

ACTIVE POWER, in Metaphysics, a term which stands opposed to speculative power, signifying the power of executing any work.

ACTIVE PRINCIPLES, in Chemistry, such as act of themselves without any other aid.

ACTIVITY, the power of acting.

Sphere of ACTIVITY, the whole space in which the influence of any object is exerted.

ACTIUM, in Ancient Geography, a small town of Epirus, on the coast of Acarnania, near a promontory at the opening of the Ambracian gulf of a similar name, now called Capo di Figalia. It was celebrated for a temple of Apollo, and for the triumph of Augustus over Antony and Cleopatra in a naval battle, in the year of Rome 723, c. c. 3, in commemoration of which, games, called the *Actian games*, were instituted. Similar games were established at Rome, for the same purpose. This victory gave name to the *Actian ara*.

ACTIUS, in Mythology, a surname of Apollo, from the place where he was worshipped: the name also of a poet, and a prince of the Volsci.

ACTON, a village in the county of Middlesex, once celebrated for its mineral waters, though at present neglected; about five miles from the British metropolis. It also gives name to the parish, which contains about 1670 souls. Acton is also the name of a township in Che-hire, near Nantwich; and of some other places of minor importance.

ACTON-BERNELL, a village in Shropshire, distinguished by the remains of a castle where Edward I. once held a Parliament. It is eight miles from Shrewsbury.

ACTOPAN, a district in New Spain, with a capital of the same name, at the distance of twenty-three leagues from Mexico, N.N.E. Indian population 2750.

ACTOR, in Law, the advocate in civil courts or causes; as 'actor dominicus,' the lord's bailiff or attorney; 'actor ecclesie,' the advocate or pleading patron of a church.

Actors, in the Drama, one who represents some part, person, or character in the theatre. The Greeks seem to have constructed the drama at first upon the basis of a simple chorus, who sung to the honour of Bacchus in alternate verses. Thespis, an African, introduced a reciter of adventures, in order to diversify the exhibition; and Æschylus improved upon this by inventing the dialogue, and decking his actors in costly dresses. To these, Sophocles added a third person, which was the limit, as to number of actors, in the Grecian theatres. Æschylus and Sophocles, with whom may be united Aristophanes, often took a part in their own plays, and in general actors were held in very high respect; but at Rome they were despised, and degraded from their rank of citizens. England, at least in the metropolis, seems to follow the sentiments of ancient Greece.

ACTRESS, a female who performs on the stage.

The ancients never allowed women to appear upon the stage, and in this respect understood far better than the moderns the "modesty of nature," which is outraged by the public exhibition of a female. Charles the Second, after his restoration, is said to have introduced actresses into the British theatre; but there is evidence that the queen of James the First took part in a pastoral drama. Among the Greeks, the place of women was supplied by eunuchs, in theatrical representations. Sporus, the famous eunuch, in the reign of Nero, was compelled by Vitellius to personate a young girl in the theatre, by which ignominy he was so deeply affected, that he thrust a sword through his breast.

ACTUAL SIN, in Theology, is opposed in meaning to original sin; the latter being considered as derived from Adam by direct inheritance, the other as perpetrated by an adult person, or one arrived at sufficient age to discriminate between good and evil.

ACTUARY, a clerk or officer that registers the proceedings and constitutions of the convocation. It is also sometimes applied to the secretaries of fire-offices. In the East the term was applied to officers who kept the military accounts, and received and delivered the corn. It was also a title of dignity peculiar to physicians, in the court of Constantinople.

ACUL, a sea-port on the north coast of St. Domingo, where the French were expelled in 1794 by the English, who took it by storm. S. S. W. of Cape François, distant eight miles.

ACULER, in Horsemanship, from the French, means that particular action of a horse, in working upon volts, when he does not go forward enough at every motion, so that his shoulders occupying too little ground, his couple comes too near the centre of the volt. A horse is said to have *acule* when the horseman, by neglecting to turn his hand, puts him on with the calf of the inner leg.

ACU'MEN, n. } acu, acuo, to sharpen.

ACU'MINATE. } Acumen and acuminate are applied to quickness, sharpness, keenness of mind.

ACU'MINATED. }
ACUMINATION. }
 There is no church without a liturgy, nor indeed can there be conversantly, as there is no school without a grammar. One scholar may be taught otherwise upon the stock of his acumen, but not a whole school. *Selden's Table Talk.*

There is somewhere in infinite space a world that does not roll within the precincts of mercy; and as it is reasonable, and even scriptural, to suppose that there is music in heaven, in those dismal regions perhaps the reverse of it is found; tones so dismal, as to make us feel more insupportable, and to animate even despair. *Comper's Letters.*

ACUMINA, in Antiquity, a kind of military ornament, most generally supposed to have been taken from the points or edges of darts, swords, or other weapons.

ACUPUNCTURE, the name of a surgical operation among the Chinese and Japanese, which is performed by pricking the part affected with a silver needle. They employ this operation in headaches, lethargies, convulsions, colics, &c. It is also employed in some parts of America, but rather as an ornament than as a remedy. See *Phil. Trans.* vol. xiii. No. 148.

ACUTE, adj. } acu, acuo, to sharpen.

ACUTE'LY. } Sharp, pointed, keen, penetrating, piercing.

ACUTE. *Nam.* This is a gift that I have,—simple, simple—a foolish extravagant sport. But the gift is good in those in whom it is acute, and I am thankful for it.

ADAGE. *Shakespeare—Love's Lab. Lost, fo. 131.*

PAROLI. I am so full of business, I cannot answer thee *Ik. Alf's Hall, fol. 231, act 5. sc. 1.*

PAVE. I will bring you to-morrow, by this time, into the presence of the most divine and acute lady in court; you shall see sweet silent rhetoric, and dumb eloquence speaking in her eye.

Ben Jonson's Every Man in his Humour, act in. sc. 1.

The Chinese: who are the next neighbours to the rising sun on this part of the hemisphere, and consequently the earliest; have a wholesome piece of policy, that the son is always of the father's trade.

Howell's Letters.

Cleantes, the stoic philosopher, when he was young, was 'a fighter at cocks' just as Pythagoras was. And his scholar Chrysippus, the wisest of all the stoics, was at first a miser. Even Plato himself was 'a wrestler.'

Bentley's Phalaris.

Those quick, acute, periphrastic, and tangled paths,
That, like the snake, crush'd by the sharper's spade,
Write in convulsive tortures, and full off,
Thro' many a dark and umbrous labyrinth,
Mistaken our step —

Mason's English Garden, b. ii.

M. Colbert, the famous minister of Louis XIV. was a man of probity, of great industry, and knowledge of detail; of great assiduity and exactness in the examination of public accounts.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

ACUTE Angle, in Geometry, an angle which does not amount 90 degrees, or is less than a right angle.

ACUTE-angled Triangle, a triangle having three acute angles.

ACUTE-angled Cone, a right cone, the axis of which forms an acute angle with its side.

ACUTE, in Music, is a term made use of to intimate a tone that is sharp or high compared with some other. Hence it is opposed to grave.

ACUTE Accent. See **ACCENT.**

ACUTE Diseases, a phrase used to denote all diseases which are not chronic.

ADACT, v. Ad: *agere, adactum.* To drive to; to compel.

ADAD, a principal deity of the Assyrians, and believed to be the sun. He was considered as married to Adargatis, one of the goddesses, under whose name they adored the moon.

ADAES, a lake in the province of the same name, in New Mexico, near Louisiana, about ten leagues in circumference. It abounds in fish to an extraordinary degree, but may be chiefly remarked on account of a pyramidal mount in or near the centre, in circumference about a hundred yards.

AD'AGE, a. } Vossius is perplexed between Scaliger
AD'AGE, v. } and Varro. E sua propria significacione
ADAG'AL. } agatur ad iudicandum. (Scaliger.)
Quasi *adagio*, ut *ambagio*, h. e. *circumagatio*: nempe
quia *adagio* sit sermo circumambulans.

The true and common *adage* saith, leave not the certain for the uncertain.

Hall, 54.

He [Edw. IV.] forgat the able *adage*, saying in terms of peace, provide for war, and in the time of war, provide for peace, which thing if he never had well remembered, or politely perceived for, he had not been chased and expelled his realm within six days as he was to do.

Grafton, vol. ii. p. 25.

Heut. But thus you see the old *adage* verified,

Make contented *estor*—you can guess the rest.

Many things fall between the cup and lip.

Jonson's Tale of a Tub, act iii. sc. 4.

Mas. Ex. unguis; you know the old *adage*, as these, so are the remainder.

Jonson's Cynthia's Revels, 2 Masque.

That wise Hebræan said surely well in his little *adage*, mankind was born to be a riddle, and our nativity is in the dark.

Taylor's Potemkin's Discoveries. Pref.

This compute of Aristotle doth generally overthrow the common cause alleged for this effect, that is, a prepetition, or over-hasty exclusion, before the birth be perfect, according unto the vulgar *adage*, for herein the whelps of longest gestation are also the latest in vision.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The antithetic parallelism gives an acuteness and force to *adages* and moral sentences; and, therefore, abounds in Solomon's Proverbs.

Louth's Jewish, Preliminary Dissertation.

ADAGIO, in Music, a word used to signify a slow movement. Sometimes it is repeated, as *adagio, adagio*, to signify as slow as possible.

ADALIA, a town of Karamania, in the south part of Asia Minor; probably the ancient fortress of Ofla, the delightful situation of which is alluded to in the ancient name which it derived from the adjective 'OAFOS, blessed or happy. This coincidence is pointed out by M. D'Anville, and many circumstances confirm the opinion of that eminent geographer.

Adalia is beautifully situated round a small harbour; the streets appear to rise behind each other, like the seats of a theatre; and on the level summit of the hill, the city is enclosed by a ditch, a double wall, and a series of square towers, about fifty yards asunder. In one part of the surrounding wall, there was formerly an opening between two of the towers, which appears to have been once a splendid gateway, but is now filled up.

There are still the remains of fourteen columns; the upper rank of which are of the Corinthian order. Four of larger dimensions stand in a line with the outer face of the towers; on their entablature are some large stones, with inscriptions, which are now misplaced and inverted; but they appear to have belonged originally to a complete course along the whole front. The inside walls and towers appear to have been substantial and well built, the quoins stones are neatly chiselled, and the whole has a look of finish: but the two outer walls, which inclose the ditch, seem to be of inferior workmanship.

The port is inclosed by two stone piers, which once had towers on the extremities: but they are now in a ruinous state, and the inroads of the sea unite with the neglect of their present possessors to insure their destruction. The gardens round the town are beautiful; the trees are loaded with fruit; every kind of vegetation is exuberant; and the inhabitants speak of their corn grounds as more than commonly productive. The soil is deep, and everywhere intersected by streams loaded with calcareous matter; which, often fertilizing the plain, fall over the cliffs, or turn the corn-mills in their descent to the sea.

Alternate breezes refresh the air in a remarkable manner; for the daily sea-breeze sweeps up the western side of the gulf with accumulated strength; and at night the great northern valley, which appears to traverse the chain of Mount Taurus, conducts the land wind from the cold mountains of the interior. Upon the whole, it would be difficult to select a more charming spot for a city.

The population of Adalia probably does not exceed 8000, about two-thirds of which are Mahomedans,

ADAGE.

ADALIA.

ADALIA. — the other third Greek. These Greeks are acquainted with no other language than the Turkish; yet, though some of their prayers are translated into that tongue, the principal part of the liturgy is repeated in Greek by the papas, or priests; of whom the greater number are as ignorant of the meaning as their congregation.

“The influence of commerce on this coast,” says Mr. Beaufort, “has been but little felt till lately (1812): but the immense demand for wheat in the British garrisons of the Mediterranean, during the war, and the failure of a supply from that once piteous granary, Siel (now hardly adequate to its own consumption), had given such a spur to the enterprising islanders of Psara and Hydra, that in search of it they ransacked the whole surrounding coast of that sea. With dollars in their hands, every creek was explored; and a few quarters, gleaned from each valley, soon completed a cargo. The exportation of corn is prohibited through the Turkish dominions, under penalty of confiscation and slavery; but this extreme severity only serves to give fresh activity to their traffic: for, the aghas, being exorbitantly paid for their connivance, have a direct influence in promoting it; and no agha in the empire is proof against self-interest. In populous countries, and in poor soils, it may be a slow and difficult process to push the sudden culture of corn beyond its accustomed limits, or to divert the necessary capital from other pursuits: but in the rich and thinly inhabited valleys of these countries, a single year is sufficient to produce exertions, which the stimulus of a free trade is alone wanting to perpetuate. The great plain of Adalia had begun to feel the effects of this impulse; and even from distant parts of the interior, camels, horses, and asses were daily bringing in their separate ventures, to load the Greek vessels which lay in the port.

“In the bazaar, or market, we saw cloth, hardware, and many specimens of English and German manufacture; but they had been mostly conveyed, by the regular caravans, from Smyrna. Few articles for barter are yet brought by the Greek corn-traders: ready money is their staple; and every vessel that we examined on its way up from Malta and Messina to these coasts, had many thousand dollars on board. If this demand continues, both parties will find their advantage in a mutual exchange of goods; as cultivation extends, and affluence increases, new wants will be generated, new markets for European manufactures will be gradually opened, and civilization and industry may one day triumph over the ignorance and sloth that now pervade these semi-barbarous regions.” Beaufort’s *Karamania*.

ADAM or ANOK, in Ancient Geography, a town of Pera, on the Jordan; where that river began to be dried up when the Israelites passed over.

ADAM’S PEAK, or HAMMALEI, a high mountain in the island of Ceylon, 60 miles E. of Colombo. It is of a conical form, and terminates in a circular plain. From the lake it contains, spring most of the rivers of the island. The natives held it in the highest veneration, resorting thither from all quarters to the places of worship which they have erected upon it. A tradition is preserved among them, that it was from this spot Adam took his last view of Paradise; others think he was created here. N. lat. 5° 55', E. lon. 80° 39'.

ADAMSTOWN, a parish and town in the county of Wexford, Ireland. It must ever be lamentably memo-

rable on account of Scullabogue barn, in which 195 Protestants were burst alive, at the time of the Irish rebellion, in 1798. The remains of this building are still to be seen.

AD’AMANT, *n.* *a.* *εἶμας*: domo, to tame. AD’AMANT’E’AN, That which cannot be tamed, AD’AMANTINE. subdued, broken. The properties of the magnet were formerly attributed to adamant.

The stone was hard of adamant,
Whereof they made the foundations;
The tour was round made in compass,
In all this world no richer was.

Chaucer. Rem. of R. fol. 135, c. 4.

Right as between adamants two
Of even weight, a pece of yron set,
Ne hath no might to mouen to ne fro
For what that uses may hale, that other let.

Ik. Assen. of Foetes, fol. 245, c. 4.

The ports in forefront was full huge gates,
Of ferms adamant was the pillars let,
So that no foes of men mycht thame downe myne,
Nor sit the strength of Goddis with strong ragges.

Douglas, book vi. p. 183.

But if God will it so ordaine, that you and my myster may ioyne
in a league and amitie, I dare both say and swere, that the fire stele
never cleued faster to the adamant stone, than he will sticke and
cleape with you, both in weith and wia, prosperitie and adversitie.

Grafton, vol. ii. p. 54.

He [Simpson] that so easily broke the iron fetters, can never
break the adamantine chain of our faith.

Bishop Hall’s Contemplations.

When he [the traveller] mayeth in one city or town, let him
change his lodging from one end and part of the town to another,
which is a great adament of acquaintance.

Becon’s Essay on Travel.

Ran on embattled armies clad in iron;
And, weaponless himself,
Made arms ridiculous, unless the fury
Of brazen shield and spear, the hammer’s cruas,
Chalybean temper’d steel, and flock of mail,
Adamantine proof.

Milton’s Samson Agonistes.

—At last appear
Hell bounds, high reaching to the horrid roof,
And thrice three-fold the gates: three folds were brass.
Three iron, three of adamantine rock
Impeetrable, impa’d with circling fire,
Yet succumb’d.

Id. Paradise Lost, b. ii.

Any bounds made with body, even adamantine walls, are so far
from putting a stop to the mind in its further progress in space and
extension, that it rather facilitates and enlarges it.

Locke’s Essay on the Human Understanding.

Adamantine hardness does not imply the least pain.

Heddi’s Inquiry into the Human Mind.

ADAMANT, one of the names of the diamond; and
given also to the scoriae of gold, the hardest species of
iron, &c.

ADAMANTINE SPAR, or Corundum, a stone which
is found either as a regular crystal, with little lustre,
or in mass. Those which are procured from India are
usually deemed the purest. Both there and in China,
being extremely hard, it is used to polish steel and
gems. In the vicinity of Cerenai, in the Mysore, a vein
of adamantine spar is found, which is cut out in considerable
masses, and transported on horses and bullocks
into different parts of India. It was first brought
into Europe at the commencement of the eighteenth
century. Further information may be obtained on this
subject, by consulting a paper in the Philosophical
Transactions for 1798, written by Mr. Greville, on
corundum.

ADAM’S-
TOWN. —
ADA-
MANT.

ADA-
MANT
—
ADAPT.

ADAMANTINE TERRE, the sixth order of earths in the Linnæan system.

ADAMARA, in Geography, a district in Abyssinia, on a mountain of the same name, between Axum and Gondar, abounding in a Mahomedan population, which is diffused through a number of villages. Its name is derived from Adama, which, in the Amharic dialect, signifies pleasant.

ADAMI REMUM, in Anatomy, a name applied to the protuberance in the fore part of the throat, arising from the projection of the thyroid cartilage of the larynx. The traditionary story of the origination of the name is sufficiently whimsical: a part of the forbidden fruit, of which Adam partook, is said to have stuck by the way, and occasioned this formation.

ADAMITES, or ADAMIANS, heretics of the second century, who imitated Adam's nudity, and returned, as they imagined, to his state of pristine innocence. On entering their places of public worship, which were chiefly caves, they threw off their clothes. They professed to live in continence, and condemned marriage, which they affirmed was the consequence of the introduction of sin into the world. Whoever broke the laws of the society was expelled from Paradise, as they termed it; that is, from their assemblies, as one who had eaten of the forbidden fruit, and was henceforth called *Adam*. Dr. Lardner questions their existence, and the hesitating account of Epiphanius, from whom it is received, is certainly suspicious. The sect soon languished, but appeared again in the twelfth century: and is said, in the fifteenth, to have diffused itself in Germany: but some authors, particularly Beausobre, deem the report of Admittian a mere calumny of the papists, to render their adversaries odious.

ADAMS, a township of the United States of America, distant about 140 or 150 miles from Boston, and noted for a deep excavation formed in a quarry of white marble, by Hudson's brook. The projection of the rocks over the channel form a natural bridge 14 feet by 10, and about 62 in elevation.

ADANA, a town of Turkey in Asia, in the province of Karunian, on the river of the same name. A number of beautiful fountains are supplied from the river by means of water-works; to which a noble bridge of fifteen arches conducts. The climate is pleasant and healthy, although the heat of the summer is such as to induce the principal inhabitants to avail themselves of the shady trees and grottoes of the neighbouring mountains. The town is the residence of a pasha, and is supposed to contain from five to six thousand inhabitants. It is about twelve miles from the sea. The country produces melons, cucumbers, pomegranates, peaches, and herbs of all sorts, throughout the year; besides corn, wine, and fruits in their proper season. E. lon. 36° 12' N. lat. 38° 10'.

ADANSONIA, ETHIOPIAN SOUR-GOURD, MONKEY'S BREAD, OR AFRICAN CALABASH TREE, a genus of plants of the class Monadelphina: order Polyandria. Its name is derived from M. Adanson, a French naturalist.

ADAPT, v. } Ad: opto (Gr. *arreo*), to bind;
ADAPTATION, } to join. Aptus is dicitur qui con-
ADAPTION, } venienter alicui junctus est.
ADAPT', n. } To join, fit, or suit to.
ADAPT', adj. } An *adapt* is one who is well
fitted or suited for any particular purpose, from the

skill, dexterity and experience he may have acquired in it.

For no man, so none as he knows this [criticism] or reader, it shall be able to write the letter; but as he is adapted to it by Nature, he shall grow the perfecter writer. *James's Discourses.*

Though there be some flying animals of mixed and participating natures, that is, between birds and quadrupeds; yet are their wings and legs so set together, that they seem to make each other, there being a commixture of both, rather than adaptation or cement of prominent parts unto each other. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

I have often heard that your deepest adepts and eldest professors in science are the obscurest.

Berkley's Minute Philosopher.

We have very good evidence that the form of government which Chacacanda's laws were adapted to, was an aristocracy or oligarchy. *Bratley on the Equality of Phalera.*

Nor is there so much as any appearance of our limbs being endowed with a power of moving or directing themselves: though they are adapted, like the several parts of a machine, to be the instruments of motion to each other. *Butler's Analogy.*

Where small increase the barren monstrosity gives,

These kinds, adapted to the feeding, live. *Burnell's David.*

She [Fanny] sees the singers reach Moriah's hill,
The minstrels follow, then the porches fill;
She wakes the numerous instruments of art,
That each performs its own adapted part.

H. Hezekiah.

Among many other reasons, I think myself very happy in my country, as the language of it is wonderfully adapted to a man who is sparing of his words, and an enemy to idleness. *Spectator, No. 125.*

Proceed! nor quit the tales which, simply told,
Could once so well my answering boom pierce;
Proceed, be forceful sounds, and colours bold,
The nature legends of thy last rehearsal.

To such adapt thy eye, and suit thy powerful verse.
Catlin's Ode on the Popular Superstitions of the Highlands of Scotland.

Suppose that an expert mechanic views a well-constructed machine. He sees all its parts to be made of the fittest materials, and of the most proper form; nothing superfluous, nothing deficient, every part adapted to its use; and the whole fitted to the most perfect manner, to the end for which it is intended. He pronounces it to be a beautiful machine. *Rind on the Powers of the Human Mind.*

We may still inquire, how the rest of mankind, and even the adepts themselves, except in some solitary moments, have got so strong and irresistible a belief, that thought must have a subject, and be the act of some thinking being. *H.*

As those which, said by bride's command,
Block up the passage through the Strand,
Great adepts in the lighting trade,
Who serve their time on the parade.

Churchill's Ghost, book ii.

From stucco'd walls smart arguments rebound;
And beams, adapt in everything profound.
Due of dissonance, or whistle off the sound.

Croquer's Hops.

ADAR, the name of the 12th month of the Hebrew ecclesiastical year, corresponding with the end of February and beginning of March. The lunar year being shorter than the solar by 11 days, which at the end of three years makes a month, the Jews intercalate a 13th month, which they call *Veadar*, or the second Adar. In the month of Adar the Jews observe three fasts: the feasts of Purim (Esther, ix. 28), and some minor fasts. The fast on the 7th is in remembrance of the death of Moses; that on the 9th on account of the schism between the schools of Shammai and Hillel; and that on the 13th in remembrance of the conspiracy of Haman. The feasts of Purim fall on the 14th and 15th days of this month.

ADAPT.
ADAR.

ADAR-
CON.
ADAYES.

ADARCON, an ancient Jewish coin, usually of gold, and worth about 15s. sterling. It is mentioned in Scripture as early as the time of David. (1 Chron. xxix.7.)

ADARME, a small weight, used in the Spanish settlements in South America, equal to the 16th part of an ounce.

ADASE, or DASE. See DASE.

In this chapter, he so gaily dined, that he had wext y^e glittering throat would have made every man's eyes so adased, that no man should have spied his faded, and fainted out the truth.

See T. More's Herkes, p. 459.

ADAUNT, or DAUNT. See DAUNT.

De Gywra, & Herodes (but here k'ing was)

He a daunted hard y now, and non burn yt was.

R. of Gloucester, p. 64.

K'ing William adasented but fide of Walsy

And asde him here k'ing trage, and bylate k'ing & hys.

Id. p. 372.

Whereas the reuel rather was a more

Eswang's than adasented, and began

Tadventure further than he did before;

Saving such a smatch had little done.

Daniel's Civil War, b. iv.

ADAW'. Adaw (Mr. Tyrwhit says) means to awake. The true Etymology seems to be the A. S. verb *Dugian*, lucere; whence, also, are *Day* and *Dawn*.

It is difficult to account for Spenser's usage of the word *Adaw*. It may be applied by him, consequently, from the overspreading, overcoming, overpowering, effect of day-light; but no means have occurred of tracing the word satisfactorily.

Ye, sire, quod she, ye may wasen as yow last;

But, sire, a man that waketh of his slepe,

He may no solety w^t taken kepe

Upon a thing, he seen it parfitly,

Til that he be adasent veraily.

Chaucer, *Mare. T.*

She eft him list, and shortly for to sein

Him to rewasen she did all her pain

And at the last he gan his breth to draw

And of his enough some after hit adaw.

Id. 3. b. *Tristram*, fo. 172. c. 3.

So spake this bold brete with great disclaine:

Little him nonerred the cake againe,

But yielded, with shame and grief adasent,

That of a weele hee was overcawed.

Spenser's *Shepherd's Calendar*, February.

As the bright morn, what time his fiery traine

Towards the westerne heim begins to draw,

Gins to alate the brightnesse of his beame,

And fencout of his flames some what adaw:

So did this nighty lady.

Id. *Farrie Queene*, b. v. canto ix.

ADAYES, or ADATS, a Spanish station in the N. E. extremity of the province of Texas, in New Mexico. Here is a regular garrison, and a small town adjoining; it is about 450 miles from New Orleans. Lon. 93°, 30' W. Lat. 32°, 9' N.

ADATES, a remarkable lake, about two leagues from the above town, in the midst of which is seen a rock of a pyramidal form, about the circumference of 100 yards, which reflects the sun's rays like crystal. This fine sheet of water is nearly ten leagues in circumference, is very deep, abounds in fish, and gives unusual fertility to the country around. There is a small river of this name in the above province, on whose banks are several rich silver mines.

VOL. XVII.

ADAYS', (on days-)

Numbir for drede our halit,

The lad of worship our lannere went awy is,

But certenly the dull blade nas on days

Was dull and dull throw myne unweyde age.

Douglas, b. v. p. 140.

With a mecke visage, sweete wordes in the tounge, deliberation in the person, temperance in the worke, currie one may beguile another now a daies, & by shrewdnes and malice, is bryuald himselfe.

Golden Bole, G.

Wil. Thumlin, have to care freethy;

My selfe will have a double eye;

Ylike to my focke and flaine;

For, alas! at home I have a syre,

A sopleme che, an hote as fyre,

That dreely adays counte mine.

Spenser's *Shepherd's Calendar* for March.

Distillations of celestiall dayes are conveyed in chauncels not pervious to an eye of sense, and now adays we seldom look with either, be the object never so brautious or shining.

Taylor's *Episcopacy Answered*, Epist. Ded.

'Nothing,' continued the person, 'is commoner than for men now-a-days to pretend to have read Greek authors, who have not with them only in translations, and cannot conjugate a verb in *m.*'

Fielding's *Journey to the West* II. Introduction.

ADCORPORATE, v. or } Ad: corpus, to a body;

ACCORPORATE, v. or } Ad: corpus, to a body.

To join to, unite or mix with; to embody. We now use incorporate.

ADD, v.

AD'DIBLE,

AUDIBLITY,

ADDITION,

ADDITIONAL, n.

ADDITIONAL, adj.

ADDITIONALLY,

ADDITIONARY,

AD'DITORY.

Ad: do, to give or put to, To join or unite to, to increase the number, augment the quantity.

Whanne they herden these thingis; he adidde and seyde a parable for that he was nygh Jerusalem, and for that thei gesiden that soon the kyngdom of God schalbe aschewyd.

Welff, *Link*, chap. xix.

This figure he adidde yet theris

That if gold ruste, what should iren do?

For if a preet be frole, on whom we trust,

No wonder is a lewed man to rust.

Chaucer, *Prolog* to *Can. T.*

Then they y^e gladly receaved his preaching, were baptised; and the same daye, they were adidde unto them aloute three thousand scotes.

Bible, 1559. *Actes*, c. ii.

This man was so myghty and martial in his fraies and at his deys, that for his more honour he had an addeysen put to his name, and was called for his great myght and power, Constantine the Great.

Fabian, p. 48.

And besides this, giving all diligence, aide to your faith, vertue and to vertue, knowledge; and to knowledge, temperance; and to temperance, patience; and to patience, gentleness; and to gentleness, brotherly kindness; and to brotherly kindness, charity.

3 Peter, c. i, v. 5, 6, 7.

MAN. This man, helly, hath robbed many beasts of their particular additions; he is as valiant as the lyon, churlish as the bear, slow as the elephant.

Shakespeare, *Tr. and Cress.* fol. 79. act i. sc. 2.

MAN. Though land and monies be no happiness,

Yet they are counted good additions.

Bonmont and Fletcher's *Elder Brother*, act iii. sc. 5.

The acute with applause and thanks approved and confirmed his [Pretus's] election, with additions to his title, 'Augustus, the

o

ADAYS.
ADD.

ADD. Father of his Country, and the highest Bishop. For in those times, even amongst heathens, the sacred title of a Bishop was accounted an addition of honour even to an emperor.

Spence's History of Great Britain.

DAW. "Twas an addition ere worthy spirit
Would cover, next to immortality,
Above all joys of life.

Ford's Poems, Warbeck, act iv. sc. 4.

"Back to thy punishment,
False fugitive, and to thy speed add wings,
Lest with a whip of scorpions I punish
Thy lingering, or with one stroke of this dart
Strangle heretofore scint, and pang which before."

Milton's Paradise Lost, book ii.

Having breath'd air, and slept in her [London's] bosom, now near upon forty years, it is no wonder if I be habitually in love with her; nor have I bin wanting to express it many times, by dedicating to her the great French Dictionary reduced, and enriched with divers additions.

Houell's Londonopolis. Pref.

What is necessary, and what is additively.

Herbert.

"Some are additively with the title of Laureat, though I most carefully I could never find the root whence their boys did grow in England, as to any solemn institution thereof in our nation.

Fall's Works.

The additively fiction gives in a great man a larger share of reputation than belongs to him, to enable him to serve some good end or purpose.

Endless divisibility giving us no more a clear and distinct idea of actually infinite parts, than endless additively (if I may so speak), gives us a clear and distinct idea of an actually infinite number.

Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding.

When men are actually born to titles, it is almost impossible that they should fall of receiving an additively greatness, if they take care to accomplish themselves for it.

Guardian, No. 111.

Additively to this, they [the Jews] observed ceremonial rites and customs, according to the tradition of their Elders.

Bryant.

"The sun shall add new honours to the fair,
"And early with paternal virtues shine."

Gay, Epistle i.

Every man of common sense can demonstrate its speculation, and may be fully convinced, that the profits and conveniences of the whole world, can add no more to the real and intrinsic value of a man, than they can add to his stature.

Swift on the Difficulty of Knowing One's self.

The proprietor of the land, and the merchant who brought riches home by the returns of foreign trade, had during two wars been the whole immense load of the national expenses; while the leader of the money, who added nothing to the common stock, thereby the public calamity, and contributed not a mite to the public charge.

Bolingbroke's Letter to Sir W. Windham.

Had I with cruel and oppressive rhymes
Paras'd, and torn'd misfortunes into crimes;
Had I, when virtue quav'ring lay low,
Join'd tyrant vice, and added vice to woe.

Churchill's Epistle to William Hogarth.

ADDITIONMENT, a name applied by the physicians to the ingredients added to a medicine after having been compounded.

ADDITION, in Arithmetic, the uniting of two or more numbers of a similar kind into one sum total.

ADDITION, in Music, a dot on the right side of any note, signifying the prolongation of the sound of that note by one half more of time.

ADDITION, in Law, the term, or estate add place of abode which is given to a man besides his proper name and surname, showing his degree, occupation, trade, age, &c.

ADDITIONS, in Distillation, a name given to the salts, acids, aromatics, and oils, which are added to

the liquor, while in a state of fermentation, in order to improve the viscosity of the spirit, procure a larger quantity of it, or give it a particular flavour.

ADDITIONS, in Heraldry, bearings in a coat of arms, containing additional marks of distinction and reward; and which are transmitted only in the direct line of the individual who obtains them.

ADDEEM, or

ADDOOM, or

DOOM.

See **DEEM**.

For he, the wisest God, that wondrously hath,
Can'd me be called to account therefore;
And far reuengement of those wrongful smart,
Which I to others did inflict afore,
Addem'd me to endure this punishment here.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book vi. canto viii.

Now judge thou (O thou greatest godden tree)

According to thy selfe doest see and hear,

And sa to me addem'd that in me den;

That is the rule of all, all being ruled by you.

Id. book vii. canto viii.

ADDER, Nadar in the Gothic; andre in A.S. (which in English is teeth, nether, low, lower) was applied to the whole serpentian class.

— Bate byt þu none wonder be,

Sekle me schal in þu lond my felle warner be.

For needes my ober warneres nu now þer be negt.

And yet be þer fider in cas from ober landes y brigt.

Heo dygþ thegry uod of þe lond, ober þery tobyng y wya.

Id. Gloucester, p. 43.

Ye generation of adders: how many ye speke gyleth althine

whan ye be nyct! for the mouth speketh of þe herbe.

Wulf, Boethius, chap. xii.

How now ye see, that dolefully since both first suggestion of the

fende, so sheweth here by the adder; and afterward the debt of the

fesh, so sheweth here by Eve; and here by the committing of

reason, as sheweth by Adam.

Chaucer, Perceval Tale, vol. ii. p. 305.

Thow the still sey from Tenedos in fere

Lo thes gret lowp adders with many thers

First thow the fude toward the land can fere.

Dante, b. ii. p. 45.

From Tenedos beheld in circles gret

By the cald sea come fetyng adders to lene,

Which plect towards the shore.

Surry.

Dan shall be a serpent in the way, an adder in the path, biting the horse heels, and his rider fall backwards.

Psalm, 159. Gen. c. xlii.

He [the emperor Frederick] suffered him [the pope] to tread upon him, and so to set his feet in his neck, and while he so did, so his quier sang this verse of the psalter. Thou shalt walk upon the adder and the basilisk: and shalt tread down the lion and the dragon.

Grafton, vol. i. p. 216.

9 HAN. And I ha' been plucking (plants among)

Hemlock, hemlock, adder's-tongue,

Night-shade, mouse-ear, night-bane;

And twice, by the dogs, was like to be t'n.

Jonson's Masque of Queens, 3 chorus.

10. By the created adder's pride

That along the cliffs do glide.

Dryden's Indian Queen, act iii. sc. 1.

Memory confus'd, and interrupted thought,

Death's harbingers, lie latest in the draught;

And, in the flowers that wreath the sparkling bowl,

Fell adders kiss, and poisonous serpents roll.

Prior's Solomon. Phasme.

ADDER, in Zoology, a name for the viper; a reptile of the serpent species.

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ADDIX. **ADDIX STONES**, the name of certain opaque rings of glass, found in the British Islands, having a thick border. They are considered as proofs that the ancient inhabitants of this country were acquainted with the art of making glass. These stones are sometimes finely variegated. See *Phil. Mag.* vol. xx. p. 17.

ADDETRATORES, or ADDENTRARI, in the court of Rome, the pope's mitre-bearers.

ADDICE, *v.* } A. S. *Adese*, Asia; which *Vossius*
ADDICE, *v.* } derives from *Adese*, and *Adese*,
ADDICE, *v.* } *αδύω*, to break, whose future is *αδύω*.

And stones downward slough up him y nose,
And myd speers & myd good taste of him slowe,
And myd sweet & myd az.

R. Gloucester, p. 368.

And now an axe is sett to the roote of the tre, and therefore every
tre that maketh not good fruyt, schal be kilt down, and schal be cast
into the fir.

Wiclif. Lih. chap. iii.

Now also is y^e axe layde vnto the roote of the tre; and every tre
therefore which beryngeth not forth good frute, is hewen downe and
cast into the fyre.

Bale, 1559.

So as an
The lacherties into the mountain his
With steil ax heevely hnk and lew
Aue neckle all that nooey axie this giew.

Douglas, book ii. p. 59.

Like as the elm, forgotton in mountain hye,
Beside hewen with axe, that husbandmen
With thick axmanes striae to teere ap, doth throat.

Sp. reg.

ADDICE, or ADDE, a crooked axe used by car-
penters, and others, for chopping under the foot, &c.

ADDICT, v. } Ad: dico, (dicemst an atiribuo,
ADDICTIO, *v.* } ac precipue conseruo, Vos ius.
ADDICTIO, *v.* } Qui dicat aliquid, id ei addicit.
Festus).

To declare for, to give up to, to devote or attach to.
No medicine, no counselle, no wholesome precepts could appease
or pacifie the angrie mindes and raging wities of the Scottish
nobilitie, so much were they addicted and bent to this folly and vici-
ousness madnesse.

Crawford, ii. 181.

Which is a wonder how his grace should glasse it,
Since his addiction was to courses vaine,
His companies vniuersal, rude, and shallow,
His bores fill'd up with rots, tangents, sports.

Shak. Hen. V. fo. 70, act i. sc. 1.

Mis. ———— Those hast mind's a man,
(But that he is addicted to his study,
And knows no other mires than his mind)
Woe'd weigh down bundles of three empty boxes.

Beaumont and Fletcher's Elder Brother, act iii. sc. 5.

For to that sacred skill they must themselves apply;
Addicted from their births so much to poetry,
That in the mountains those who scarce have seen a book,
Most skilfully will make, as though from art they took.
Dryden's Poly-Olibion, Fourth Song.

As. Yours entirely addicted, Madame.
As. I require no more, dearest Anous; henceforth let me call
you mine.

Joseph's Cynthia's Revel, act iv. sc. 3.

Tobal first gathered together, and made farrar these hearts
which formerly were untam'd, and brought them into hearts
and drowes; Juhal invented musicke, and Tubalcaim the working in brass
and iron: the one being addicted to husbandry, the other was
mechanical, the third given to idleness and pleasure.

Relig's History of the World.

With the same affections therefore, and the same addicted fidelity,
Parliament of England, I here againe brought to your perusal
up the same argument these following Expositions of Scripture.

*Milton's Exposition on the Four chief Places in Scripture,
which treat of Nulities in Marriage.*

Hercules was particularly, and of them all, the most addicted to
the juice of the grape.

Bentley on the Epistles of Phalaris.

Those know how little I have remitted of my former addictions
to make chymical experiments.

To the incapacity, which an addiction to certain sciences induceth,
may be added the prejudices which certain circumstances in the
state of the two religious parties, that divide the western world,
were apt to occasion.

Warton's Sermons.

There has always prevailed among that part of mankind that
addict their minds to speculation, a propensity to talk much of the
delights of retirement.

Acquisitor, No. 126.

Those who employ their pens on political subjects, free from
party-rage, and party-prejudices, cultivate a science, which, of all
others, contributes most to public utility, and even to the private
satisfaction of those who addict themselves to the study of it.

Hume's Essays.

ADDICTI, persons among the Romans, made to
serve a creditor whose claims they were unable to dis-
charge, and to whom they were bound till the debt was
paid.

ADDLE, v. } A. S. *Adillean*, to be sick or weak.
ADDLE, v. } To be of no use; to corrupt; to
be empty.

Addle, says Tonke, becomes ail; as idle becomes ill,
by sliding over the D, in pronunciation.

And grisly thing to tell, send gun behind
In black still the hollow water cold
Changit in the shore.

Douglas, b. ii. p. 115.

Fav. Traylus? Why he esteemes her no more than I esteeme an
addle egg.

Cha. If you lose an addle egg as well as you lose an idle head,
you would este chickens i' th' shell.

Shakespeare, Tro. & Cre. p. 80, act i. sc. 2.

Fos. Could your moody brain be no addle, to imagine I would
marry a stale widow at six-and-forty?

Ford's Love's Sacrifice, act iii. sc. 1.

Bare trees and shrubs but ill you know,
Could shelter them (the birds) from rain or snow;
Stepping into their nests, they pulldred,
Themselves were chid'd, their eggs were addled.

Copey's Fairing Time Anticipated.

ADOLE EGGS, such as have not been impregnated by
the male. After incubation, these eggs contain a round
ash-coloured substance.

ADDRESS, v. } French, *addresser*; dresser; from
ADDRESS, v. } the Italian, *diricare*; from the
ADDRESS, v. } Lat. *dirigere*; to direct.

To direct the attention to; to prepare or make ready
for; to direct the discourse or writing to.

He had they sold in hye
Do grish his ship's sail accerely
And gadder his folks toward the coast to gilder,
Armour and al thing necessarye bryng thither,
And to disemvill, gif any sailis galy
They thus addrest thier gerc so suddenly.

Douglas, b. iv. p. 109.

Vain wisdom
He gave in charge his mule accerely
For to prepare; and drine to the sea coast
His people; and their armour to addressse
And for the cause of change to false excuse.

Surry.

After that the Kinges highnes [Henry 8] address'd his gracious letters
to the maior and committe of the cite, signifying to them, that his
pleasure was in recompence and celebratie the coronation of his most
deare and well-belov'd wife Anne at Westminster the White-
sonday next ensuings.

Hall, p. 793.

AD-
DRESS.
—
ADDER.

To the hooker even of my secret soul.
Therefore good youth, address thy gate unto her,
Be not denied access, stand at her doors,
And tell thee, there thy fixed fast shall grow,
Till thou have audience.

Shakespeare's Twelfth Night, fol. 257, act I. sc. 4.

They ended pure, and both address'd for fight
Unpeakable; for who, though with the tongue
Of angels, can relate, or to what things
Like on earth comparisons, they may lift
Homo's imagination to such height
Of godlike power?

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vi.

So spoke the enemy of mankind, enclod'
In serpent, inmate hell, and toward Eve
Address'd his way.

Id. book iv.

The Earl of Shaftsbury, having addressed in vain for his Majesties favour, resorted by haberdashers to the King's Bench, the constant residence of his justice.

Maryson on the Growth of Popery and Arbitrary Government in England.

Whatever good from clear understanding, deliberate advice,
Magnificence, foresight, stable resolution, dexterous address, right inter-
cession, and order proceeding doth naturally result, wisdom confers.
Bacon's Sermons.

MARCIA. They both behold thee with their sister's eyes;
And often have reveal'd thy passion to me.
But tell me, whose address thou favour'st most?

Adrian's Cato, act i. sc. 4.

An half-bred man is conceited in his address, and trouble-some in his conversation.

Atterbury's Sermons.

The shortest and best prayer which we can address to him, who knows our wants, and our ignorance in asking, is this: "Thy will be done."

Bolingbroke's Reflections upon Faith.

ORRIS. — See, they approach:

This grove shall shroud me till they cease their strain;
Then I'll address them with some legible tale.

Mason's Fife.

The addressers offer their own persons.

Burke.

ADDUCE, v.

ADDUCTIOK, s.

ADDUCTIVE, s.

Ad: duco, to lead, draw, or bring to.

To bring forward, to press forward or urge; a reason, an opinion.

If we ask what conversion it is? after a great many fancies and devices, contradicting to each other, at last it is found to be adductive, and yet that adductive does not change the place, but signifies a substantial change; and yet adductive is no substantial change, but accidental; and yet this change is not accidental, but adductive and substantial.

Taylor on the Real Presence of Christ in the Holy Sacrament.

The price had, it seems, before the tax, been a monopoly price; and the argument adduced to show that sugar was an improper subject of taxation, demonstrated, perhaps, that it was a proper one.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

ADDUCCENT MUSCLES or ABDUCTORS, in Anatomy, muscles which draw the parts of the body towards one another. See ANATOMY, Div. ii.

ADDULCE, v. Ad: dulcis, sweet to. To make sweet, palatable or agreeable.

Thus did the French ambassadors, with great show of their king's affection, and many signed words, seek to addulce all matters between the two kings.

Racine.

ADEB, the name of an Egyptian weight, used principally for rice, and consisting of 210 nicks, each of three ritols, a weight of about two drams less than an English pound. At Rosetta the adéb is only 150 nicks.

ADEL.
—
ADELPH.

ADEL, a state, or kingdom, on the eastern coast of Africa, extending from Zeila to the straits of Babel-mandel. This country is sometimes called Zeila, from a sea-port of that name. Towards the south-east it is altogether a desert, but the soil in other parts is luxuriant, producing corn, and sustaining a great number of cattle. The sheep are said to have their necks swollen by a dew-in hanging down to the ground, which shows the identity of the species with the ram upon ancient marbles, represented by Fabroni, proving that this species exists in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Some of them are remarkable for the size of their tails, which often weigh twenty-five pounds, and their wool resembles the bristles of a hog. The inhabitants carry on a trade in gold, silver, ivory, oil, frankincense, a sort of pepper, and other merchandises of Arabia and the Indies. Formerly it was subject to Abyssinia; but in 1535 the Adalians threw off the yoke, and placed themselves under the government of the Turks. The principal places are, Adela, seated in the centre of the country, and the town where the king resides; Zeila, near the Arabian sea, is a rich town, and has a good trade; Barabara, near the sea-coast, is an ancient trading town. The inhabitants on the northern coast are tawny brown, those of the south are a deeper black. The kingdom is divided among many warlike tribes, of which the Gibberis are the most distinguished.

ADELFORN, gold mines in Sweden, a province of Sweden, discovered in 1738. The gold is in veins, from two inches to six feet in breadth. These mines are nearly exhausted.

ADELIA, a genus of plants of the class Didymia, order Monadelphina.

ADELHOLZEN, a town of Upper Bavaria, district of Traunstein, with a castle, and a mineral bath much celebrated.

ADEN, a small but fertile state of Arabia Felix, bounded on the N. and W. by Yemen, on the east by Jaffa, and on the S. by the Indian Ocean. Until the beginning of the last century it was subject to the Imam of Yemen, but assumed the government of its own affairs about the year 1735, and has since been under independent sultans. Coffee, gum, gold, and ivory abound in this province, and its trade has been improving of late.

ADEN, a sea-port town of Arabia Felix, and capital of the above state, situated on a rocky peninsula, a little eastward of the straits of Babel-mandel. It was once well fortified, and the most important city of Arabia, but is now almost in ruins. The sultan resides here in a very indifferent building. A fine aqueduct conveys water from the surrounding mountains into a large reservoir, about three quarters of a mile from the city. N. lat. 12°, 56', E. lon. 45°, 10'.

ADENANTHERA, BASTARD FLOWER-FENCE, a genus of plants, of the class Decandria, order Monogynia.

ADEONA, in Mythology, a goddess to whom the Romans when setting out upon a journey addressed devout supplications: the same, according to Bryant, with Idine, or Adione, and probably the Dione, of the Greeks.

ADEPHLAGIA, the goddess of gluttony, to whom the Sicilians erected an altar and a statue in the temple of Ceres.

ADEPS, in Anatomy, the fat of the abdomen.

ADE-
QUATE.
—
ADHERE.

AD-EQUATE, v. } Ad: *equo*. Equal to.
AD-EQUATE, *adj.* } To be or make even or equal;
AD-EQUATELY. } sufficient, proportionate.

"To fear God that is wisdom;" that is, in the proper and adequate wisdom suitable to human nature, and to the condition of mankind.

Idea can be no further the idea of any mind, than that mind has (or may have) a perception of them; and therefore that mind must perceive the whole of them; which is to know them adequately.

The disturbers of our happiness, in this world, are our desires, our griefs, and our fears; and to all these, the consideration of mortality is a certain and adequate remedy.

Boyle's No. 17.

ADERBIJAN, ADERBEITSAN, or ADERBEIDAN, the country of fire, one of the provinces of Persia belonging to the Khan or King: it is part of the ancient Media, and extends from 48° to 54° E. lon. and from 36° to 38° N. lat. One of the principal towns is Tebriz or Tauris, a large and commercial city, formerly the residence of the Persian monarchs.

ADES, or HADES, among the Greeks, the god of hell, corresponding with the Pluto of the Romans. The derivation of the term is from *ad*, and *haur*, to see; intimating that hell is destitute of light and joy. The ancient poets have applied the term to that region itself which is supposed to be beyond the river Styx. More generally, the word comprehends the invisible state.

AFFECTED EQUATIONS. See ALGEBRA, Div. I.

AD FINES, an ancient Swiss town in the north of the district of Turgo, on the Duro, between Constance and Frauenfeld. It is supposed to have occupied the site of the modern town of Pin.

ADHA, or BAIRAM, a Mahometan festival celebrated on the 10th day of the last month in their year, and which derives its name from the ceremonies which the pilgrims observe at this period at Mecca. The Mahometans have two Bairams. The little Bairam is held at the close of the fast Ramazan, beginning with the first full moon in the following month Shawal, called in Arabic 'Id al Fitr, or the feast of breaking the fast. At this feast, beginning with the new moon, the Mahometans are very careful to observe the precise time when it commences; persons are stationed on the tops of the mountains, whose business is, the moment they see the first indications of new moon, to run to the city, and proclaim Muzhdalik, "welcome news," it being the signal for the feast. The great Bairam is that first mentioned, commencing on the tenth of Dhu Hujja: it lasts three days. This is called by the Arabs, 'Id al adha, that is, the feast of sacrifice, referring to Abram's sacrifice. After throwing stones, into the valley of Mina, they usually kill one or more sheep, some a goat, bullock, or even a camel; and distributing some to the poor, finish it with their friends, then shave themselves. The second is a day of rest. On the third, they return.

ADHERE, v.

ADH-E-RENT.

ADH-E-RENT, *adj.*

ADH-E-RENT, *adj.*

ADH-E-RENT, *adj.*

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ADH-E-RENT, *adj.*

Ad: *herco*. To stick, or keep close to.

To hold or keep together with.

To be or remain fixed or attached to.

Note as touching the cause why he [Tyndal] changed the name of priest into senior, ye must understand that Luther and his adherents hold this heresy, that all holy order is nothing.

Sir Tho. More's Works, p. 222.

And after this he [Edward IV.] ceased upon proclamation to be divulged, that all persons which were adherent to his adversaries part, and would leave their arms, and submit themselves wholly to his grace and mercy, should be clearly reunited, pardoned, and released.

Hall, repr. 1609, p. 262.

Nur time, nor place
Had then adhere, and yet you would make both;
They have said themselves, and that their liars now
Do's vantage you.

Shak. Macbeth, fo. 135, act I. sc. 7.

Where, with our beauteous souls, we stoutly fight, and long;
And after co-quests got, residing thus among,
First planted in these parts our brave courageous blood:
Whose nature so often'd unto their ancient blood;
As from them sprung those priests, whose prior so far did sound,
Through whom that spacious land was after so renew'd.
Drayton's Poly-Olbion, sixth song.

Author of evil, unknown till thy revolt,
Unseen'd in heaven, now plentiful, as thou seest
These acts of hateful strife, hateful to all,
Though heavest by just measure on thyself
And thy adherents.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vi.

Aliens, we adhere to pay double; non-conformists, we agree with them not to pay double; to show no exemptions of patents to free from paying, we adhere.

Marshall's Letters to the Corporation of Hall.

The mortallest enemy unto knowledge, and that which hath done the greatest execution upon truth, hath been a presumptuous adherence upon the dictates of antiquity.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

It being indeed neither possible nor truly reasonable, that men by adhering to virtue should at any time lose their lives, if thereby they were to deprive themselves eternally of all possibility of receiving any benefit from that adherence.

Clarke's Sermons.

It would be difficult to prove that God may not, in certain circumstances, have greater reasons for violating than his stated rules of acting than for adhering to them.

Farmer on Miracles.

He ought to be indulgent to tender consciences; but at the same time a firm adherer to the established church.

Sayl.

If slow, yet sure, adhering to the track
Hath steaming, up belated him [the stag] come again
Th' inhospitable route, and from the shady depth
Expel him, circling through his every shift.

Thomson's Autumn.

Yet devious off, and swelling from the part,
The flowing robe with coarse shawl seem'd to start;
Not on the form in stiff adhesion laid,
But well-relied by gentle light and shade.

Memo's Freney's Art of Painting.

ADHIBIT, v. Ad: *habeo*. To have, or keep, or put to.

To which counsel there were adherents very few, and they very secret.

Sir Tho. More's Works, p. 52.

This worshipful Perkin arriving in Ireland so seriously persuaded and allured them to his purpose that the greatest lords and princes of the country, abashed with faith and credit to his words, as that thing had been true in deed, which he vintally with false demonstrations set forth and divulged.

Hall, repr. 1609, p. 462.

Said, a necessary ingredient in all sacrifices, was adherent, and required in this view only as an emblem of pacification.

** Feller.*

ADIABENE, sometimes productive and wealthy province of Assyria, sometimes giving its name to the whole country. Ptolemy and Ammianus place Nineveh, Gazenech, and Arbela, in this province. It obtained the distinction of a separate kingdom, in consequence

ADHERE.
—
ADIA-
BENE.

ADIA-
BENE-
ADJAZZO.

of the feuds which prevailed among the Seleucidae, and was governed by successive kings in opposition to those of Syria, till it became subject to the emperors of Rome, Trajan having conquered the kingdom in the 115th year of the Christian era, A. V. C. 868. The yoke, however, was shaken off, but they were again reduced by Severus, A. V. C. 948, on which account he was surnamed Adiabeneus.

ADIANUM, or ADIANTHUM, maiden-hair, a genus of plants of the class Cryptogamia, order Filices.
ADJACENCY, *n.* } Adj: *jaczo*. To lie near to.
ADJACENT, *adj.* } Lying near to, being close
ADJACENT, *n.* } upon, approximating to.

And if thy mind be fierce then with me,
I and this world risk to my weake, quod schol.
For ill induce the cities adjacent
Vain the language.

Douglas, book vii. p. 237.

She both for her motherly love toward the young children, and also for the good administration of justice in their countries was highly reputed and esteemed, and bore great authority and swayings through all Flanders and the low countries thereto adjacent.

Hall, repe. 1809, p. 450.

PETE. I am a poor blighted errand (body) that haunting in the adjacent forest, was by adventure in the pursuit of a hart, brought to this place.

Jessie's Tarry Man out of his Humour, act ii. sc. 5.

More honour attributed to prove these British seas, with more admiration only to see the land it self, then was usually conceived of kingdoms more larger, or that lay nearer to face from Rome.

Speed's History of Great Britain.

Now touching that proportion of ground that the Christians have on the habitable earth, I find that all Europe, with her adjacent Isles, is peopled with Christians, except that ruffian country of Lapland, where idolaters yet inhabit.

Harrell's Letter.

Because the Cape de las Aguilas hath an on both sides near it, and other land remote, and as it were equidistant from it, therefore at that point the needle conforms unto the true meridian, and is not distracted by the vicinity of *adjacencies*.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The adjacent street of Euses, from Morris's coffee-house, and the turning towards the Grecian, you cannot meet one who is not an esquire, until you take water.

Tutler, No. 19.

The gall bladder is a very remarkable contrivance. It is the reservoir of a canal. It does not form the channel itself, but it lies adjacent to this channel, joining it by a duct of its own, the ductus cysticus.

Paley's Theology.

He, with Palemon, oft recorded o'er
The tales of hapless love in ancient lore,
Recall'd to memory by th' adjacent shore.

Fletcher's Shipwreck.

ADIAPHORISTS, from *adiaphoroi*, indifferent, a name given, in the sixteenth century, to those Lutherans, who adhered to the opinions of Melancthon, and afterwards particularly to those who subscribed the Interim of Charles V. Violent disputes arose from this publication, which are classed under the name of the Adiphoristic Controversy.

Why does the church of Rome charge upon others the shame of novelty, for leaving of some rites and ceremonies which by her own practice we are taught to have no obligation in them, but to be *adiaphoroi*?

Taylor on the Liberty of Prophecy.

ADJAZZO, ADRAZZO, or AJACCIO, the capital of Corsica, the head of an archbishopric, and the seat of all the public officers of the island. The town has been known to history ever since the year 1436, and now forms one of the finest sea-ports in the Mediterranean.

The streets are spacious and well-built; the town is walled, and protected by a strong citadel, erected by Marshal de Termes. The mole of the harbour has been much improved by the French government, and renders the gulph of Ajaccio, which is just below the town, a very commodious haven; but the entrance is somewhat dangerous. Settlers were much encouraged here during the memorable reigns of the emperors Napoleon, to whom this city gave birth. Its population is between 6 and 7000, and its trade in wines considerable. E. lon. 8° 54'. N. lat. 41° 50'.

ADJECT.

ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVELY.

ADJECTIVELY.

ADJECTIVELY.

ADJECTIVELY.

Certain adjectives of *thence* are also formed from their substantives: as

Direct, directish. Thence, thensh.

Civil, civilish. Thence, thensh.

Jessie's English Grammar. Of the Diminution of Nouns.

AWO. But now, see what your proper Genus can perform alone, without adjectives of any other Minor.

Thence, thensh. act iii. sc. 4.

KITE. Now, trust me, brother, you were worth to blame,

Thence his anger, and disturb the peace

Of my poor house, where there are sentinels,

That every minute watch, to give alarms,

Of civil wars, without adjectives

Of your assistance, or occasion.

Thence, thensh. in his Humour, act iv. sc. 2.

It is probable that they made the child's name, by affecting the syllable to the appellation of the father.

Father's Worthin.

He [Juddishin] might have said real; for the arched and the real ends are the same: he should have said real, for the fair use of the proposition, and the force of the argument drawn from it, both require this adjective.

Winstanley's Postscript to the Fourth Edition, 1766.

Another example of the same trope may be seen in the metaphorizing particular words, and confining their meaning to their own purposes, as if the rest of the world had, in reality, no right to their application. A signal instance of which is in the adjective good.

The True Patriot, No. 23.

There is a gross mistake made among an adjected and an adjective word; that is, between a word used close to another word, and a word which may be close to another word.

Thence, thensh. of Parley, v. ii. p. 456.

ADJECTIVE, in Grammar, a word joined with a substantive, to denote its qualities.

ADIEU, *a Dieu*, Fr. *adieu*, It. To God I commend you, or commit you to God. The English equivalent expression is *farewell*.

Adie, my lord, my love for faire of face

Adie my turtle dove, on birds of hue

Adie my mirth, adie all my mance

Adie also, my adieu Lord Jew.

Chaucer, L. Marie Mag. 60. 312, c. 1.

Adie, you on, and he th' fatis large

The fauce of mekle Troy bere yve to brin.

Douglas, book iii. p. 63.

Adie fond love, farewell you wanton post's,

I am free now;

Thou dull disease of blood and idle hours,

Bewitching pain.

Beumont and Fletcher's Lover's Progress, song in act iii. sc. 1.

That because he [Herseth] neither had learned nor taught to strive with such as are of authority; therefore (saith he), the case as standeth, is now. It doth, let us use these words of the Apostle unto you, "I commend you unto God, and the word of his grace," and so bid them heartily adieu.

Hester's Ecclesiastical Polity.

ADJAZZO
ADIEU.

ADJEU.

ADJOIN.

Adieu, ye valleys, ye mountains, streams, and groves;

Adieu, ye shepherds' rural hays and levers;

Adieu, my flocks; farewell, ye sylvan crew;

Day-hine, farewell! and all the world adieu!

Pope's *Windsor*.

Adieu, old fellow, and let me give thee this advice at parting;
 s'ton get thyself much bettered by death, though the very best steel may
 snap, yet did I never you know will rust.

Guardian, No. 95.

Thus, while the pangs of thought severer grew,

The western heron's insatiable blew,

Mastering the moment of our last adieu.

Falconer's *Shipwreck*.

ADJODIN, or PAUKPETTIN, a Hindostanee city
 on the river Setlege; celebrated as the burial-place of
 a Mahometan saint, who died here in 1267, named
 Shaikh Feridaddine Shukergoojy; who is said to have
 turned some moulds of earth into sugar. Pilgrims
 resort annually to his tomb in considerable numbers.
 N. lat. 30°. 21'. E. lon. 73°. 30'.

ADJOIN, v.

ADJOIN'EDLY,

ADJOIN'ANT, a.

ADJOIN'ANT, a.

ADJUNCT, s.

ADJUNCT, adj.

ADJUNCTION.

Quibus Ling Latiora sponsa quere Anais

With diligence did pressen day by day

That he adjoinst was there soon in law;

But fearful signs by the goddess saw,

And singly terroris gain thareto gaugrand.

Douglas, book vii. p. 907.

To the governance and ordering of this young prince was there
 appointed Sir Anthony Walshe, Lord Rivers, and brother under
 the great; a right honourable man, so valiant of hands as politics
 in counsel. Adjoined were there into his other of the same part.

Sir Thom. More's *Works*, p. 40.

Also I bequeath unto as many godchildren as I have lying in
 the curate of Essex, and specially in the parishes to my mansion
 adjoined, to every of these vills.

Falconer's *Windsor*, p. 5.

By new alliance, he [James K. of Scotland] sought and practised
 wiles and means, how to league himself with foreign princes, to
 grace and hurt his neighbors and neighbours, of the realm of
 England.

Hall's, p. 186.

For where is any nother in the world,

Teaches such beauty as a woman's eye;

Learning to be an adjoinst to herself;

And where we are our learning likewise in.

Then when ourselves we see in ladies eyes

Do we not likewise see our learning there?

Shak. *Love's Lab. Lost*, fol. 135, act iv. sc. 5.

HEN. So well, that what you bid me undertake,
 Though that my death were almost to my act,
 By heaven I would do it.

Ib. *Johs*, fol. 11, act iii. sc. 3.

The bodie of King Edmund reved for the space of three yeares
 in the parish church of S. Gregory, adjoining unto the cathedral
 church of S. Paul, from whence it was conveyed backe againe to
 Shaplesford.

Bos's *Chronicle*, *Henry's* edit, 1614.

GAE.

Then, if I mistake not,

He seems to have his word so underpinned,

That it should need an adjoinst in exchange

Of any equal fortunes.

Johnson's *Case* is altered, act iii. sc. 3.

As one, who long in populous city pent,
 Where houses thick and sewers annoy the air,
 Forth issuing on a summer's morn, to breathe
 Among the pleasant villages and farms
 Adjoin'd, from each thing met conceives delight;
 The smell of grain, or trodded grass, or kine,
 Or dairy, each rural sight, each rural sound.

Milton's *Paradise Lost*, book iii.

I consider that there are some places of scripture that have the
 selfe same ascriptions, the same preceptive words, the same reason
 and account in all appearance, and yet either must be expounded to
 quite different senses or else we must renounce the excommunication,
 and the chorism of a great part of Christianity. And yet there is abso-
 lutely nothing in the thing or in its circumstances, or in its objects
 that can determine it to different purposes.

Taylor's *Liberty of Prophecy*.

As circumcision figures baptism, so also the adjuncts of the
 circumcision shall signify something spiritual in the adherencies of
 baptism.

Ib.

The wise God that ordereth and disposeth all things, and pro-
 vides, and circumstances, doth with the same wisdom fit them with
 suitable concomitants and adjuncts.

Held's *Contemplations*.

Look what estate it is, to which piety adjoins it self, it shall receive
 not only security, but even great increase and improvement from it.

Held's *Golden Remains*.

St. Paul enjoins us to "redeem the time, because the days are
 evil;" that is, since we can enjoy no true quiet or comfort here, we
 should improve our time to the best advantage for the future; he
 might have also enjoined, the paucity of the day; to their business.

Barrow's *Sermons*.

CORRY. Answer, then, and judge this riddle right,

I'll frankly own thee for a cunning wight;

What flower is that which royal houses craves,

Adjoin the virgin, and 'tis crown'd on graves?

Gay's *Shepherd's Week*. Pastoral i.

Many wise men thought it a time, wherein those *two adjuncts*,
 which Nerva was desir'd for uniting, imperium & libertas, were as well
 reconcilable as is possible.

Clarendon's *Rebellion*.

To examine another opinion, which makes the blood and wine
 indeed, as to their entire and true natures, to be retained in the
 sacrament; and so to be retained, that they be adjoin'd, natu-
 rally, corporally, and really, the true body and blood of Christ.

Bishop's *Memorials of the Reformation*.

Every man's land is, in the eye of the law, inclosed and set apart
 from his neighbour's; and that either by a visible and material fence,
 as one field is divided from another by a hedge, or, by an ideal
 invisible boundary, existing only in the contemplation of law, as
 when one man's land adjoins to another's in the same field.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

Though the mind alone be properly ourselves, and all else of the
 man an adjunct or instrument employed thereby, yet in our ordi-
 nary conversations we consider the body, the limbs, the flesh and the
 skin as parts of ourselves.

Tucker's *Light of Nature*.

ADJOURN, v. } Fr. Ad: jour. Adjourner. It.
 ADJOURNMENT. } Giorno: Aggionare, lat. Dies,
 diurnum. The book into which the proceedings of each
 day in the R. Senate were entered, was called Diurnum.
 In the English Parliament—the Journal.

To adjourn, is to go on, to continue from day to day;
 and then—to any future day. And now, consequently,
 to put off to a future time. To postpone, to delay, to
 defer, to discontinue.

Jai cam unto the kyng, for pes if I mot tide,

Upon per asking, he stowd jam to hide.

Men bred for that sowe, jai askid had pe pes,

For eft jam said men se, bigyn ad had pe pes.

R. Erasmus, p. 382.

To majeste his partle jai heie to hely him vele,

He stowd jam to refie in pe North at Carleie,

After Midewinter's tide porgh comens ordinance

No longer sould jai bidde, bot forth & stand to chauce.

Id. p. 309.

And upon 3rd 11th day of July, Kyng (Henry the VI.) this year
 began his parliament at Westm. ovir, and so contynued it tyll Lam-
 mas, and then it was adjourned unto Seynt Edward's day.

Folger, p. 607.

Or how the sun shall, in mid heaven, stand still

A day entire, and night's due course adjourn,

Man's voice commanding.

Milton's *Paradise Lost*, book iii.

AD-
JOURN.
—
AD-
JUDGE.

Pleas'd Palamon the tardy come to :
For, since the flames pursu'd the trailing smoke,
He knew his doom was granted; but the day
To distance driven, and pleas'd it with long delay.
Drapier's Palamon and Arcite, book iii.

It is by every letter who trifles away this day of God's grace and patience, and fondly adjourns the necessary work of repentance, and the weighty labours of religion to a dying hour?

Tillemont's Sermons.

During the adjournments of that awful court, a neighbour of mine was telling me, that it gave him a notion of the ancient grandeur of the English-hospitality, to see Westminster-hall a dining-room.

Trotter, no. 142.

A privy verdict is when the judge hath left or adjourned the court.
Blackstone's Commentaries.

ADIPOCIRE, from *adipo*, fat, and *cera*, wax, a substance of a light brown colour, formed by the soft parts of animal bodies, when kept for some time in water, and when preserved from atmospheric air. It was discovered on removing the animal matters from the burial ground of the church des Innocens at Paris in 1787, amongst the masses of the bodies of the poor there interred together; and never appears to be produced in bodies separately interred. In this place, about 1500 bodies were thrown together into the same pit, and being decomposed, were converted into this substance. Its chemical properties have since attracted some attention; a true ammoniacal soap is first yielded, composed of ammoniac, a concrete oil, and water. On analysis of this substance the oil may be obtained pure, and to that the name of adipocire is more strictly given. See *Nicholson's Journal*, vol. iv. p. 135. *Phil. Trans.* 1794, vol. lxxvii. fol. lxxv. *Journal de Physique*, tom. xxxviii. &c.

ADIT, the shaft, or entrance into a mine; a subterraneous passage by which miners approach the part they mean to stop.

ADJUDGE, *v.* } *Ad; iudice.* To judge, doom,
ADJUDGMENT, } or decree to.
ADJUDICATION, } To sentence, to decree, to determine, to decide.

Then the kynde made a promise by othe, that he wolde be obedyent unto the count of Barre, & stand & obey all thing yf the same count wol adiauge hym.
Fabian, repr. 1811, p. 319.

Whereupon by publike sentence as well of the abbies as of the bishops, his [Thomas Becket's] murderers were *adjudged* to be consigned to the king.

Grosvenor, repr. 1809, v. l. p. 901.

For that with puissant stroke she downe did beate
The valiant knight, that victour was whiteare,
And all the rest, which had the less affere,
And to the last vantage did appear;
For, last is deemed best. To her therefore
The fayrest lady was *adjudg'd* for paramour.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iv. canto v.

Although by his slender power, God might cast any creature into everlasting torments, without any just exception to be taken on our parts; yet, according to that sweet providence of his which disposeth all things in a fair order of proceeding, he cannot be said to inflict or *adjudge* punishment to any soul, but for sin.

Bishop Hall's Via Media.

I have shew'd Sir Kenelm Digby both our translations of Maritall's *Vitam que faciens beatorem*, &c. and to tell you true, he *adjudg'd* yours the better.

Hawell's Letters.

James Lord Audley is challenged by several counties, and that with almost equal probability, to be their native; but my author, with verest in the antiquaries of this shire, clearly *adjudgeth* his birth thereto.

Faller's Hertians in Devonshire.

The women, who would rather wrest the law,
Then let a sister plaintiff lose the cause,

(As judges on the bench more gracious are,
And more attent, to brothers of the bar),
Cry'd, one and all, the suppliant should here right,
And to the grandjuror hang *adjudg'd* it the delight.
Devon's Wife of Bath's Tale.

In process of time, and multiplicity of business, the matter of fact continued to be tried by twelve men; but the *adjudgment* of the punishment, and the sentence thereupon, came to be given by one or two, or more persons.

Sir W. Temple's Intro. to the Hist. of England.

The Roman law *adjudg'd*, that if one man wrote any thing on the paper or parchment of another, the writing should belong to the owner of the blank materials.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

A common recovery is so far like a fine, that it is a suit or action, either actual or fictitious: and in it the lands are recovered against the tenant of the freehold; the recovery, being a supposed *adjudication* of the right, binds all persons, and vests a free and absolute fee-simple in the recoverer.

Id.

ADJUDICATION, in English law, the act of adjudging by legal decision. In Scots law it implies the attachment of land on security and payment of debt, or that by which a title is made up in a person holding an obligation to convey, without precept.

ADJUNCT, in Philosophy, something superadded to another thing without being an essential part of it.

ADJUNCT, in Metaphysics, some natural or acquired quality belonging to the body or mind.

ADJUNCT, in Music, a term expressive of the relation between the principal mode and the modes of its two fifths.

ADJURE, *v.* } *Ad; iuro.* To swear to.
ADJURATION, } To put upon oath: to charge or bind upon oath; or with the solemnity of an oath. In the first of Samuel (c. xiv.), where the Bible (1539) uses the word "*adjudg'd*," King James's version has "enlarged the people with an oath" (v. 28.) And in v. 24, King James's version has "*adjudg'd*;" and the Bible 1539, "enlarged the people with an oath." The Geneva Bible, 1561, in v. 28, has, "made the people to swear."

Then answered one of the people ad iudice; yf father adured the people saying, *Curse* be the man that eateth any sustenance this daye, & the people were fainstyre.

Bible, 1539, 1 Sam. c. xiv.

Then I *adure* you by y^e faith that you owe to God by your othe made to Salustre George, patron of the noble order of the Garter (whereof you be a companion), and by the love and affection that you beare to your native country, to devise some waie how this realm may be brought to some convenient regimēt.

Hele, repr. 1809, p. 385.

But let us go now to that horrible *swearing* of *adjudication* and conjuration, as don these false enchantments and signements by basins full of water, or in a bright sword, in a cere, or in a fire, or in a sholder bone of a shepe: I cannot say, but that they do curiously and damnablely against Christ, and all the faith of holy churches.

Chequer. Persons's Tale, v. l. 334.

But Jesus held his peace. And the high priest answered, and said unto him, I *adure* thee by the living God, that thou tell us whether thou be the Christ, the Son of God.

Matthew, c. xxvi. v. 63.

—Then know't the magistratus
And princes of my country came in person.
Said first, commanded, threaten'd, urg'd,
Adjur'd, by all the bonds of civil duty,
And of religion, press'd how justly was,
How honourable, how glorious to entrap
A common enemy, who had destroyed
Such numbers of our nation.

Milton's Samson Agonistes.

ADMOCU- prior to an engagement. On medals, the inscription
TION. ADLOCUT. COR. refers to this custom, and they frequently represent the general surrounded by the cohorts in regular order.

ADMINISER.

ADMAH, or ARAMAH, in Scripture Biography, one of the five cities involved in the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah. It stood between Zebulun and Gomerah, and was the most easterly of all these towns.

ADMEASUREMENT, a. or } See MEASURE.
MEASUREMENT. } Admeasure and Admeasure are words of common use in the old law writers.

The antient and most effectual method of proceeding is by writ of *admeasurement* of pasture. This lies either where a common appurtenant or in gross is certain as to number, or where a man has common appurtenant or appurtenant to his land, the quantity of which common has never yet been ascertained. ***** And upon this suit all the commoners shall be *admeasured*.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ADMEASUREMENT, ADMENSURATION, in Law, a writ brought for remedy against those who usurp more than their share. There are two cases: *admensuratio dotis*, where a man's widow holds from the heir more land, &c. than of right belongs to her as dower; and *admensuratio pasture*, which is between those who have common of pasture where any of them surcharge the common.

ADMINISTER, v. } Ad: ministra. To serve
ADMINISTRATE, v. } "Ut a magis est ma-
ADMINISTRATION, } gister (says Junius, after Vos-
ADMINISTRATOR. } sinus); ita a minus vel minor
 est minister."

To serve, to contribute, to supply, to dispense, to manage.

While I administered the office of common doing, as in ruling of the stabilimentes engages the people, I defouled never my conscience for no manner deeds, but ever by wit and by counsel of the wisest, the matters went driven to their right ends.

Chaucer. Test of L. b. l. fo. 993, c. 3.

Power me thought y^e I had to keep from nine covetous, and me seemed to shine in glory of renouance, as manhood asketh in men, for no night in mine administration, could cause yuels no trechery by soth cause on me putte.

Id. Test of L. b. ii. f. 304, c. 2.

King Henry [the iv.] perfectly remembering that there could be no more justice given in a prince than to execute his office in administering justice, whiche alowse all thing is the very necessary minister to all people,—called a great council of the three estates of his realme.

Hall, p. 44.

And I [Richard the ii.] renouance also the rule and governance of the same kyngedome & lordshippes, with all admeasures of the same, and all thinges, and everyche of them that to the hole empire and lordshippes of the same belongeth of right, or in any wyse maye belenge.

Falgon, p. 547.

There are dyversities of gyftes, yet but one specie. And ther are differences of administration, and yet but one Loorde.

Bible, 1339, 1 Cor. c. xii.

About this season, the cardinal of York being legate, granted testaments, and did call before him all the executors & administrators of every diocess within the realme, so that the bishops and deacons, did prove no great vices in their diocess, except he were compassed with, not to their little discommodities.

Grafton, v. ii. 338.

PRB.—Thou scarry thing! hast no't a knife Nor ever a string to lead thee to Elysium? Be there no pitfall Potteccares in this town, That have compassion upon wretched womers, And due admister a dross of rai's base? *Beaumont and Fletcher's Rule a Wife and have a Wife, act v. sc. 1.*

And not that only, but who was also chosen of the churches to travel with us, with this grace, which is administered by us to the glory of the same Lord, and the declaration of your ready mind. Assuming this that no man should blame us in this abundance which is administered by us.

1 Cor. c. xiii. v. 19, 20.

It is decreed and ordained in this present parliament, that no manner of person or persons, in any line coming, administer any of the sacraments secretly, in any manner of way, but they that are admitted, and having power to that effect.

Knox's History of the Reformation.

For forms of government let fools contest;

Whate'er is best administered is best.

Pope. Essay on Man, Epistle iii.

He [the Earl of Charendon] was a good chancellor, only a little too rough, but very impartial in the administration of justice.

Burnet's Own Times.

—He [the king] is sure,

I administer, to guard, I adorn the state,

But not to warp or change it. We are his,

To serve him, nobly in the common cause,

True to the death, but not to his slave.

Croquer's Task, book v.

The tyrant, by making his will and pleasure the rule of his administration, imprisons and confiscates without legal complaint or forfeiture; which, exposing filth and property a prey to court sycophants, reduces all honour to a servile fear.

Bartholin's Sermons.

ADMINISTRATOR, in Law, a person entrusted by the ordinary with the goods of another, dying intestate, for which he is accountable. In Scots law, it denotes a person empowered to act for another, who is considered by the law as incompetent to act for himself: also the power of a father over his children when minors.

ADMIRAL, the commander in chief of a squadron, or fleet of ships of war; or of the entire naval force of a country.

The origin and early history of this high office are involved in great obscurity. It has obtained in almost all countries that have any breadth of sea-coast: some writers have traced it to the eastern languages, others to the Greek. Sir Henry Spelman is of opinion, that both the name and office were first in use amongst the Saracens, as it is clear they were introduced into Europe by the Crusades. The first authentic instance that occurs of admirals in this part of the world, is about the year 1284; when Philip, king of France, created Enguerand de Coussy admiral of his fleet. Neither the laws of Oleron, made in 1226, nor Bracton, make any mention of the term Admiral; and it was not used in a charter in the eighth of Henry III. where a similar appointment was conferred on Richard de Lucy; but in the 66th year of the same reign, not only the historians, but the charters themselves, employ it. Spelman therefore refers its origin to this reign.

In the reign of Edward I. who succeeded Henry, and who had himself been active in the naval services of the Crusades, we find a title of honour, "Admiral de la mer du roy d'Angleterre," conferred for the first time on W. de Leybourne; and about this time the jurisdiction of the English seas, was committed to three or four admirals, who held the office *durante bene placito*. These had their particular limits, as admirals of the fleet, from the mouth of the Thames, northward, southward, or westward. There were, besides, admirals of the Cinque Ports, as in the reign of Edward III. when William Latimer was styled *Admiralis quinque Portuum*. From the time of Edward II. a regular succession of admirals is to be traced; and in the

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ADMIRAL

34th of Edward III. John de Beauchamp, Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, was created High Admiral of England. The office was again, however, divided for a few years into that of the Northern and Western Admiral, when Richard II. appointed Richard Fitz-Alain, son of the earl of Arundel, Admiral of England; the duke of Albemarle succeeded him by the title of *High Admiral of the North and West*; it was again divided, for a short time, in the reign of Henry IV.; but in the sixth year of that reign became permanently vested with most of its present powers. Persons of high rank, and some of them entirely unacquainted with naval affairs, continued to fill this office until 1632, when it was first put into Commission, as it remained during the protectorate of Cromwell. James, Duke of York, afterwards James II., exercised the functions of Lord High Admiral for several years of Charles the Second's reign, with great ability; and, when he succeeded to the throne, continued to administer them through a secretary. Many of his regulations are observed to the present time, and evince his zeal for this most popular and most important service. During the reign of William and Mary, the powers of the Lord High Admiral were committed, by statute ii. cap. 2, to *Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty*. Prince George of Denmark enjoyed this dignity during a short period of the reign of Anne; since which time it has always been vested in seven Lords Commissioners, acting under the statute of William and Mary.

During the short time, however, in which this office was entrusted to his Royal Highness Prince George of Denmark, a most important alteration took place in its prerogatives. These, with the exception of 2500*l.* per annum, he formally alienated to the Crown. The income of the office was afterwards increased to 1000*l.* per annum for each of the Commissioners; but that of the First Lord is now equal to 5000*l.* per annum. The surplus revenue so alienated, forms what are called the *Droits of Admiralty*, which have been applied to various public purposes, at the pleasure of government.

To the Lord High Admiral, or Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty of England, pertain the power of decision in all maritime cases, both civil and criminal; a jurisdiction upon or beyond the sea, in all parts of the world; upon the sea coasts, in all ports and havens, and upon all rivers below the nearest bridge to the sea. According to the terms of the patent, "To preserve public streams, ports, rivers, fresh waters and creeks whatsoever, within his jurisdiction, as well for the preservation of the ships as of the fishes; to reform too straight nets and unlawful engines, and punish offenders; to arrest ships, mariners, pilots, masters, gunners, bombardiers, and any other persons whatsoever, able and fit for the service of ships, as often as occasion shall require, and where-soever they shall be met with; to appoint vice-admirals, judges, and other officers, *avant bene placito*; to remove, suspend, or expel them, and put others in their places; to take cognizance of civil and maritime laws, and of death, murder, and inaim." But the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports has jurisdiction exempt from the control of the Admiralty within those ports. And the Lord Admiral seems to have his more proper jurisdiction confined to the main sea, or coasts of the sea not within the counties; as he has legal cognizance of the death or maim of a man committed in

any ship riding in great rivers, beneath the lowest bridge; but if a man be killed upon any arm of the sea where the land can be seen on both sides, the coroner of the county is to inquire into it, and not the admiral; and where a county may inquire the admiral has no jurisdiction. Between high and low water mark, the common law and the Admiralty have jurisdiction by turns, one upon the water, and the other upon the land. By the discipline of the navy, the Lord High Admiral grants commissions to inferior admirals to enforce obedience in all the branches of the service, to call courts-martial for the trial of offences against the articles of war; upon which they decide by the majority of votes: a Deputy Judge Advocate, who resides at Plymouth, presiding over those of most importance. To the office of Lord High Admiral are given, as prerogatives by the patent, "treasure, deadwards, directies found within his jurisdiction; all goods picked up at sea; all fines, forfeitures, ransoms, recognizances, and pecuniary punishments; all sturgeons, whales, porpoises, dolphins, rigs and grampusses, and all such large fishes; all ships and goods of the enemy coming into any creek, road, or port, by stress of weather, mistake, or ignorance of the war; all ships seized at sea, salvage, &c. together with his shares of prizes." This officer, in ancient times, carried a gold whistle set with precious stones, at the end of a gold chain.

ADMIRAL of the FLEET, the highest naval officer under the admiralty of Great Britain, who, when he embarks, is distinguished by the hoisting of the union flag at the main-top-gallant-mast head. A member of the royal family has lately filled this office.

The Lord High Admiral of Scotland, was anciently one of the great officers of the crown, and supreme judge in all maritime cases within that part of Britain. "The king's Lieutenant and Justice-General upon the Seas," is a title by which he was designated in 1651. All the powers of this office have been vested, since the union, in the admiralty of Great Britain, which appoints a Judge, or Vice-Admiral, who executes its duties and presides over an Admiralty court in Scotland.

ADMIRALS being commanders in chief of any fleet or squadron, carry their flags at the main-top-gallant-mast head, from which they are designated as admirals of the red, of the white, of the blue. They rank with field-martials in the army.

The VICE-ADMIRAL carries his flag at the fore-top-mast head, and takes rank with the lieutenant-generals of the army.

The REAR-ADMIRAL carries his flag at the mizen-top-mast head, and ranks with major-generals.

ADMIRAL, Vice, is also a civil officer appointed by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, with judges and marshals under him, for executing jurisdiction within certain limits. His decisions, however, bear a final appeal to the Court of Admiralty. The *Vice-Admiral of England* was formerly the Deputy of the High Admiral, but the place is now a sinecure, generally conferred on some officer of distinction. Ireland has four Vice-Admirals; Scotland one; and the Governors of Colonies generally hold a commission to preside over Vice-Admiralty Courts.

ADMIRAL is also a name given to the most considerable ship of a fleet of merchantmen, or of the vessels employed in the cod fishery of Newfoundland. The ship which first arrives is entitled to this appellation.

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ADMIRALTY.

lation: and as long as the fishing season continues, he carries a flag on his main-mast.

ADMIRAL, in Conchology, the English name of a species of the voluta, a shell fish belonging to the order of vermes testacea. It is very beautiful, and there are several species.

ADMIRALTY, the office of Lord High Admiral, as discharged either by one person, or by joint commissioners called Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty.

ADMIRALTY, Court of, a sovereign court, held by the Lord High Admiral of England, or Lords of the Admiralty, for the trial of all maritime causes, whether civil or criminal. It was instituted by Edward III., and decides by judge and jury upon all crimes committed on the high seas, or on great rivers below the first bridge next the sea. In civil cases the decisions follow the practice of the civil law. By stat. 39 Geo. III. all offences whatsoever committed on the high seas, shall be liable to the same punishments as if committed on shore, and shall be tried and adjudged in the same manner as felonies; and persons wilfully casting away any vessel, or procuring it to be done, are, by the 43d of the king declared to be felons without benefit of clergy; if the offence be committed in the body of a county, they shall be tried as other felons; if upon the seas, under stat. 28 Hen. VIII., which gives the criminal jurisdiction to the Court of Admiralty. A regular Admiralty Sessions of Oyer and Terminer has been held of late years at the Old Bailey, in London, twice in the year. The members of the Privy Council, Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, all the Judges, the Lords of the Treasury, the Secretary of the Admiralty, some of the Aldermen of the City, &c. &c. are included in this commission, which is similar to that granted to the judges on other occasions, except that it is limited to maritime causes and crimes committed within the jurisdiction of the Admiralty.

Appeals from all the inferior Admiralty courts may be referred to the Court of Admiralty in England; and by 8 Eliz. c. 5, appeal may be had from the Admiral Court, to delegates appointed by commission of the Court of Chancery, whose sentence shall be final. From the Prize decisions, appeal lies to Commissioners of the Privy Council. When sentence is given by a foreign Admiralty, the party may libel for execution here; because all Admiralty Courts in Europe are governed by the civil law, and sentences of another Admiralty are to be credited in this kingdom, and shall not be examined here, that ours may be credited there. Many of the decisions are indeed obliged to respect a public, or common law of nations, as well as the particular treaties in being.

VICE ADMIRALTY COURTS are established in the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain, under the names of *Prize Courts* and *Instance Courts*. The former inquire into all cases of vessels condemned as prizes, detained by enemies or neutrals, or that affect the general interest of captors; the latter into all misdemeanors in merchant ships, &c. At Antigua, the Bahamas, Barbadoes, Bermuda, Bombay, Calcutta, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, Gibraltar, Halifax, Jamaica, Malta, Madras, Newfoundland, and Tortola, were regular Prize Courts of this description established during the late war. At Barbice, St. Cervix, St. Christopher's, Dominica, Demerara, Essiquibo, Grenada, Martinique, Trinidad, St. Vincent's, are Instance Courts.

ADMIRALTY, Judge of the, an office established in

1640, and sometimes filled by two or three persons. At the revolution it was limited to one, whose salary is now 2500*l.* a year.

The Judges of the Vice Admiralty Courts in the Colonies, are important officers to the naval and commercial interest, and having cognizance of cases involving immense sums, they have been, by an act of the present reign, allowed in some colonies 2000*l.* a year from the consolidated fund, besides other perquisites of their station.

ADMIRALTY, Registrar of the, an officer who assists in the judicial proceedings of the Admiralty Courts, and enjoys his place by patent of the Lord High Admiral, or the Commissioners of Admiralty. It is a place of great pecuniary importance.

ADMIRALTY, Marshal of the, an officer whose duty it is to commit offenders to the Marshalsea, arrest ships and persons, bear the mace before the Admiralty Judge, and attend naval executions.

ADMIRALTY, Procurators of the, act as solicitors in the High Court of Admiralty in all the High Admiral's affairs, and suits of the Crown. There is also a *Counsel of the Admiralty*, and a *Solicitor of the Admiralty*, whose business, however, is principally with the military duties of the office.

ADMIRALTY Bay, in Geography, a capacious bay on the west coast of Cook's straits (between Cape Stevens and Cape Jackson), in the southern island of New Zealand. The anchorage is good. S. lat. 40°, 37'. E. lon. 174°, 54'.

ADMIRALTY Inlet, an entrance to the supposed straits of Juan de Fuca, on the west coast of New Georgia, in N. lat. 48°, 30'. W. lon. 124°, 15'. It was first visited by Vancouver in 1792. The soil on the shores is fertile, well watered, and clothed with vegetation. On each point of the harbour, called Penn's Cove, there was a deserted village in which were several sepulchres in the form of scutry-boxes, containing skeletons and small bones, which were supposed to have been used by the inhabitants for pointing their arrows and spears. The number of inhabitants were estimated at 600. Vancouver's *Voyage*, vol. i.

ADMIRALTY Islands, a cluster of islands to the north of New Britain, in the south Pacific Ocean, in about 2° 18' S. lat. and 146° 44' E. lon. There are between twenty and thirty, the largest of which is eighteen leagues in length from east to west. They were discovered by the Dutch in 1610. Captain Carteret, by whom they were visited in 1767, represents their appearance as very inviting. He thought it probable that these islands might produce several valuable articles of trade, particularly spices, as they lie in the same climate and latitude as the Moluccas; but he was prevented from landing personally, to inspect the interior, by the state of his ship and his want of articles of barter necessary in trading with the Indians. They were seen by the Spanish navigator, Morello, in 1781, and by the French expedition in search of La Perouse in 1793, when the islanders evinced much kindness and friendship. Their colour is black, but not of a very deep shade—their stature large, and they are nearly in a state of nudity.

ADMIRALTY ISLAND, so named by Vancouver, an island in George the Third's Archipelago, on the north-west coast of New Norfolk in America, between N. lat. 57° and 58° 30'; and between W. lon. 134° and 135°. It is 80 leagues in circumference, has numerous con-

ADMIRALTY.

ADMIT. Foa. Now (Sir John) here is the heart of my purpose; you are a gentleman of excellent breeding, admirable discourse, of great acquaintance.

Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor, act ii. sc. 2.

If I ever anger know,
Till some wrong be done to you;
If gods or kings my enemy were,
Without their arrows crown'd by thy love;
If ever I a hope admit,
Without thy lineage stamp'd on it.

Cowley's Soul.

Our bishops are made in forme and order, as they have been ever, by free election of the chapter: by consecration of the archbishop, and other three bishops: and by the admission of the prince.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of Englande.

And, if I give thee honour due,
Ninth, admit me of thy crew,
To live with her, and live with thee,
In unprovoked pleasures free.

Milton's L'Allegro.

There were but two of these at once in the king's time, whereof the one was styled the principal secretary, the other the secretary of estate. Some have said that the first in the minister of admission, was accounted the principal; but the exception in this kind being as many as the regulars; their chieftest was *procurator Regis arbitrium.*

Fulter's Worthies.

I have not wittingly, willingly, or wilfully, shot the dove against any worthy person which offered to enter into my knowledge; nor was my prejudice the power in this kind, to exclude any (of what persuasion soever) out of my book who brought merit for their admission.

Id.

Blindness being a private *non solum* sight, this appellation is not admissible in property of speech, and will overthrow the doctrine of privations.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Suppose that this supposition were admissible, this would not any way be inconsistent with the eternity of the divine nature and essence.

Hale's Contemplations.

We may observe, that the admission of leaving was long before the admission of the civil power; because the former having less force and influence than the latter towards procuring the establishment of the gospel, was consequently less liable to be suspected as the cause of it.

Atterbury's Sermons.

Of the foolish virgin, who watched not, neither had trimmed their lamps, but went too late to buy oil, when the bridegroom came, 'tis observed that they found no more place of admission, than if they had been slothful still.

Clarke's Sermons.

Cromwell secured the presbyterianism, he would maintain a public ministry, with all due encouragement; and he joined them in a communion with some independents, to be the tries of all those who were to be admitted to benches.

Hurst's Own Times.

How grousing hospitals eject their dead!
What numbers groan for ad admission there!
What numbers, cast in fortune's lap high-fid,
Solicit the cold hand of charity!

Young's Complaint. Night i.

Merry Whiteford, farewell! for thy sake I admit
That a Scot may have humour, I had almost said wit.

Goldsmith's Retaliation.

Even a real miracle cannot be admitted as such, or carry any conviction to those who are not assured that the event is contradictory to the course of nature.

Farmer on Miracles.

ADMISSION, in Ecclesiastical Law, an act of the bishop, upon examination, whereby he admits a clerk into office. It is done by the formula, *admitto te habilem.* All persons must have episcopal ordination before they are admitted to a benefice, and any one presuming to enter upon one, not having such ordination, shall, by Stat. 14 Car. II. forfeit 100*l.*

ADMITTENDO Clerico, a writ granted to any one who has established his right of presentation, against the bishop, in the court of common pleas.

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ADMIT.
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NISH.

My son Felix, this young lusty squire,
Edwert I would to take the three on hand,
No war that of the ideal of this hand
Admirt stande he, tak and you stryd
Apon his modesty syde of Nelyne kynd.

Douglas, b. viii. p. 160.

Though many wales may be found to light this powder, yet is there none I know to make a strong and vigorous powder of salt-petre; without the admission of sulphur.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The corruption of philosophy, from the admission of superstition and theology, is much more extensive and pernicious, either to whole bodies of philosophy, or their parts.

Bacon, On the Different Philosophical Theories.

Possibly all metals may be of one species, and the diversity may proceed from the admission of different bodies with the principles of the metals.

Regis Wisdom of God is the Creation.

ADMONISH, v. Ad: monico. In Wiclif we find *Moneste*, where the C. version has *Admonish*, *Exhort*. The word *Monach*, without the preposition ad, is common in all its parts with the elder writers.

ADMONISHMENT, v. To advise; to call or bring to mind; to warn, to apprise, to exhort, to reprove.

For it liketh a bishop to be without crime, a dispenser of god, not proud, not wrathful, not drunken, not angry, not careless of his winning, but holy, hospitable, benigne, prudent, sober, just, lowly, courteous, taking care that true word that he is to be might be admitted in his own teaching, and to reprove him that is negligent.

Wiclif, Tyte, chap. i.

Scot Poole says, he yield: not harme for harme, ne wicked speche for wicked speche, but do wel to him that doth to thee harme, and blesse him that saith to thee harme. And in many other places he admoneth pees and accord.

Cheucer, T. of Melibrus, v. 2. p. 97.

And every orakyl of Goddis amonisheth eik,
That we the realm of Italy sold seik.

Douglas, b. iii. p. 60.

God sayth: Love thy neighbour as thyself; that is to say, in salvation both of lif and soule. And moreover thou shalt love him in word, and in becomie amonishing and chousing, and comfort him in his anoyes, and praye for him with all thy heart.

Id. Perseus Tale, v. 2. p. 325.

And nedeth it (q*uod* I) of rehearsing, or of amonishing, it sheweth it not inough by himself, the shapour y*et* w*ith* woad against mee.

*Id. 1*st* Booke of Boecius, p. 212. c. 1*o*.*

If these noblemen, admonished by their friends, had not sodagly departed, their lytes thered had bene broken, and their mortall soules had then cused, but by secret admonitions of their good wylles (to whom no earthly treasure is comparable) they molied this net and narrowly escaped the snare.

Hall, p. 236.

So that if they wil not at y*et* whose amonishments of his word report and merrid their oide conversation, that thou they should be condemned by the state for their wilful contumacy.

Bale, Image of Beike Churches, Ecc. v.

RICH. And thou a luscike leane-witted foole,
Presuming on an ages privilege,
Durst with thy fowen admonitions
Make pale our cheeks, chasing the roiall blood
With fury, from his native residence?

Shak. Rich. II. fo. 29. act ii. sc. 1.

ADMO-
NISH.

Yet take heed, worthy Maximus, all ears
Hear not with that distinction *admo* do; few
You'll find *admonishers*, but *arguers* of your actions.
Beccanot and Fletcher's Festsaltation, act i. sc. 3.

ADMOVY.

For which to the infinitely good we owe
Immortal thanks, and his *admonishment*
Receive with solemn purpose to observe
Immediately his sovran will, the end
Of what we are.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vii.

But heroic, yea churchmen teach us vulgar,
Suppress ultimate and stiff persisting
In errors prov'd, long *admonitions* made,
And all rejected.

Dryden's Duke of Guise, act v. sc. 1.

The self-same drift the *admonitions* also had, in urging that
nothing ought to be done in the church, according unto any law of
man's devising, but all according unto that which God in his word
hath commanded.

Hooker's Ecclesiastical Policy.

Neither did it a little add to the sorrow of Mordcau, to hear the
bitter insulations of his former monitors: "Did we not advise thee
better! Did we not fore-admonish thee of thy danger?"

Bishop Hall's Contemplation.

Amidst of great and famous studies, I leave to those whose
better gifts and inward endowments are *admonitions* unto them, of
the great good they can do, or otherwise direct after popular applause.

Hale's Golden Remains.

Friendly *admonition* is very laudable, and of rare use; but being
upon all occasions immoderately used, or in public society so as to
encroach upon modesty, or to damage reputation; or when the person
admonished is otherwise employed, and atreat upon his business; or
being delivered in an impudently-insulting way, or in harsh opprobri-
ous language; it becomes unavailing and odious, and both in
show and effect resembles a forward malicious exception-taker.

Barnes's Sermons.

Were I to expose any vice in a good or great man, it should
certainly be by correcting it in some case where that crime was the
most distinguishing part of the character; as pages are chastised
for the *admonition* of princes.

Tatler, No. 92.

Let a sensible man be *admonished*, but not a fool.
Sir Wm. Jones's Heliopdan, book iii.

It has long been charged by one part of mankind upon the other,
that they will not take advice; that counsel and instruction are
generally thrown away; and that, in defiance both of *admonition*
and example, all claim the right to choose their own measures, and
to regulate their own lives.

Advertiser, No. 74.

My fruitful scenes and prospects waste
Alike *admonish* not so soon;

These tell me of enjoyments past,

And those of sorrows yet to come.

Cowper's Sirophy.

ADMONITION, in Ecclesiastical History, an essen-
tial part of the ancient discipline of the church. In
cases of private offence, it was performed, according to
the rule prescribed in Matt. xviii., privately. In public
cases, openly before the church; and no delinquent
was excommunicated, unless this step were ineffectual.

ADMONITIO FUSTUM, a Roman military punish-
ment, not unlike our whipping, but performed with
vine branches.

ADMORTIZATION, a feudal custom, whereby the
property of lands or tenements was reduced to mortu-
ariness.

ADMOVE, v. *Adi* moveo. To move to.

If unto the powder of leadstone or iron we *admove* the north
pole of the lodestone, the powders or small divisions will erect and
conform themselves thereto: but if the south pole approach, they
will subside, and inverting their bodies, respect the lodestone with
the other extremum.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

ADNA'SCENT, v. } *Ad*: nascor. To grow to. **ADNAS-**
ADNATE. } Growing to or upon. **CENT.**

Now, which is an *adnascent* plant, is to be robbed and scraped
off with some instrument of wood.

Evelyn's Sylva.

The parts appertaining to the bones, which stand out at a distance
from their bodies, are either the *adnasce* or the *cent* parts.

Smith's Old Age.

ADNATA, in Anatomy, one of the coats of the eye,
called also conjunctiva and albuginea.

ADNATA is also used for hair or wool, which grows
upon animals or vegetables, whether naturally or ac-
cidentally.

ADNATUM Folium, in Botany, is used to express the
adherence of the disk of a leaf to the stem of a plant.

ADNOUN, **ADNNEN**, or **ADNAME**, a term
has been used by grammarians to express what we more
usually call an adjective.

ADO, a. See **DO**.

And when he was come in, he saith unto them, why make ye
this ado, and weep? the damsel is not dead, but sleepeth.

Mark, chap. v. verse 39.

FAC. The Doctor is within, a moving for you;

(I have had the most *ado* to wince him to it).

Jesson's Alchemist, act iii. sc. 4.

A man that is busy and inquisitive is commonly envious; for to
know much of other men's matters cannot be, because all that *ado*
may concern his own estate.

Beccanot's Essay on Envy.

For my own particular, the more I meditate upon it [the marty-
rdom of Charles], the more it awakens my imagination, and shakes
all the cells of my brain; so that sometimes I struggle with my faith,
and have much *ado* to believe it yet.

Howell's Letters.

But hush'd the little Heaven had lent,
She duly paid a groat for quarter rent;

And pinch'd her belly, with her daughters two,
To bring the year about with such *ado*.

Dryden's Cock and the Fox.

Just so it is with young people, in respect of counsel and instruc-
tion; when the father, or the minister, or some wise and understand-
ing man doth sometimes *admonish*, sometimes chide and reprove,
sometimes instruct, they are apt in wonder, why so much *ado*, and
what they mean.

Hale's Contemplations.

ADOLESCENCE, a. } *Ad*: oleo, adeo. To grow
ADOLESCENCY. } up to.

The growing up to manhood, or maturity.

Those times which we term vulgarly the old world, were indeed
the youth or adolescence of it.

Howell's Letters.

The Romans usually reckoned **ADOLESCENCE** from
12 to 25 in boys; and to 21 in girls, &c. Among
their writers, however, *juventus* and *adolescens* are fre-
quently used indifferently for any person under 45 years.

ADOLLAM, or **ADULLAM**, in Scripture Geography,
a town belonging to the tribe of Judah, near which was
a celebrated retreat of David's. (1 Sam. xxii. 1.)

ADOM, a small state or principality of the gold
coast in Africa, extending in a direct line along the
river Senham. It is a populous, rich, and fertile
country, abounding with corn and fruits, and feeding
a great number of animals, both domestic and wild.
It contains many fine islands covered with populous
villages.

ADON. ADON, a principal town in the province of Stuhl-Weissenburg, belonging to Hungary, situate in a fruitful country, towards the river Danube. E. lon. 19°, 20' N. lat. 47°, 30'.

ADONIS.

ADONAI, one of the names of God, in the Old Testament, and properly signifying 'my lords,' in the plural number; as Adoni is 'my lord,' in the singular. The Jews, who either out of respect, or superstition, do not pronounce the name of Jehovah, read Adonai, in the room of it, as often as they meet with Jehovah in the Hebrew text. This superstition originated after the Babylonish captivity.

ADONIA, feasts of antiquity, in honour of Venus, and in memory of Adonis: first celebrated at Byblos, in Phœnicia. They were observed with great solemnity by most nations; Greeks, Lycians, Syrians, Egyptians, &c.; and from Syria, they are supposed to have passed into India. The Adonis generally lasted two days; on the first of which certain images of Venus and Adonis were carried about, with all the pomp and ceremonies practised at funerals: the women wept, tore their hair, beat their breasts, &c. imitating the cries and lamentations of Venus for the death of her paramour. This mourning was called *Adoniae*. The second day was devoted to joy. In some towns of Greece and Egypt they lasted seven or eight days, one half of the time being spent in lamentation, and the other in rejoicing. Among the Egyptians, royal personages assisted in the procession. Lucian tells us, that the women of Alexandria enclosed a letter annually, at the time of this feast, to the women of Byblos, to inform them that Adonis, whom they imagined lost, was discovered; that this letter, being committed in a box of papyrus to the waves of the sea, reached Byblos in safety at the end of seven days, when the women of that place ceased their mourning. St. Cyril also relates this story. According to Meursius, the two offices of mourning and rejoicing made two distinct feasts, which were held at different times of the year, the one six months after the other; Adonis being supposed to pass half the year with Proserpine, and half with Venus.—The Egyptian Adonis are said to have been held in memory of the death of Osiris; others say of his sickness and recovery. Bishop Patrick refers their origin to the slaughter of the first born in the time of Moses. The time of the celebration of these feasts was accounted extremely unlucky.

ADONIS, son of Cynarus, king of Cyprus, by his own daughter. The goddess Venus became enamoured of his beauty, and committed the care of his education to Proserpine, who refused to restore him. Jupiter decided the dispute by decreeing that he should live one third of the year with each of these goddesses and during the other, be at his own disposal: but Adonis gave two thirds of his time to Venus, with whom he was captivated; upon which Diana took offence, and sent a wild boar to destroy him, when he was turned into a flower of a blood colour, supposed to be the anemone. Venus became inconsolable; and her grief has been perpetuated in most nations by anniversary ceremonies. The Vulgate of Ezekiel, viii. 14, says, that this prophet saw women sitting in the temple, and weeping for Adonis: but, by the Hebrew text, they are said to weep for Thammuz, or the hidden one. Among the Egyptians, Adonis was adored under the name

of Osiris, the husband of Isis. But he was sometimes called by the name of Ammuz, or Thammuz, the concealed, to denote, probably, says Calmet, his death or burial. The Hebrews, in derision, call him sometimes the dead, (Psalm. cvi. 28. and Lev. xix. 28.) because they wept for him, and represented him as one dead in his coffin; and at other times, they call him the image of jealousy, (Ezek. viii. 3. 5.) because he was the object of the god Mars' jealousy. The Syrians, Phœnicians, and Cyprians, called him Adonis; and F. Calmet is of opinion, that the Ammonites, and Moabites gave him the name of Baal-peor. Bryant supposes that the Cannanites worshipped the Sun, their chief deity, under this title. See CALMET'S DICTIONARY, BRYANT'S MYTHOLOGY, &c.

ADONIS, Adonius, a river of Phœnicia, rising in Mount Lebanon, and falling into the sea, after a north-west course, at Byblos. It is called by the Turks Obrakim Bassea. The women yearly lamented the death of Adonis, when, in flood time, this river rolled down a red earth, which tinged its waters, and was deemed to be the wound of Adonis bleeding afresh.

ADONIS, Bird's eye, or Phoenix's eye, in Botany, a genus of the class Polyandria order, Polygynia.

ADONISTS, a party among theological critics, who maintain, that the vowel points, usually annexed to the consonants of the Hebrew word Jehovah, neither originally belonged to it, nor express the true pronunciation: but are the points, belonging to the words Adonai and Elohim, applied to the consonants of the ineffable name Jehovah, to warn the readers, that instead of this word, which the Jews were forbidden to pronounce, they are always to read Adonai. They are opposed to the Jehovists: of whom are Drusius, Capellus, Buxtorf, Alting, and Reland.

ADOORS', adv. At door, or at the door.

SIL. But what, sir, I beseech ye, was that paper,
Your lordship was so studiously employed in,
When ye came out a-door?

Beaumont and Fletcher's Women Pleased, act iv. sc. 1.

WILK. If I get in a-door, not the power o' th' country,
Nor all my snail's curves shall discharge me
*Beaumont and Fletcher's Night Walker, or
The Little Thief, act iv. sc. 1.*

ADOPT, v. **ADOPTEDLY**, **ADOPTIVE**, **ADOPT'VE**, **AS OUR OWN**.

Ad. *opto.* To choose.

To take by choice; particularly applied to the taking the child of another, and treating it

as our own.

For when Reme, duke of Angoules, last king of Sicille, departed without any heir male of his wife lawfully begotten, he did adopt to his heir of all his realms and dominions, Lewis the XI. father to 3rd III. king Charles.

Holl, p. 657.

And we wish, that each creature grow with and travel with payne as he doth, and not so ill, but also we wish that the first fruits of the spirit, and we wish to receive with us for the adoption of god's sons abiding the aghen bing of our bodi.

Wicif. Remigii, ch. viii.

For we knowe that every creature groweth with vs also, and travel with payne even into this tyme.

Not onely it, but we also which have y^e first fruits of the spirit, we are to cure selues also, and waye for the adoption (of the children of God) even the delivrance of our bodies.

Bale, 1559. 2b.

ADONIS.

ADOPT.

ADOPT.

Or they [Adam and Eve] led the vine
To wed her clau: she, spouse, about him twines
Her marriageable arms, and with her brings
Her dower, the adopted clusters, to adorn
His barren leaves.

Milton's Paradise Lost, b. v.

Denia the sonne of Hamon took arms and drove Camanthes, with his wife Rhea, out of his father's kingdom, yet notwithstanding he retained with him their sonne Ostris and adopted him for his owne, but imposed an other name upon him, that is to say, Hamon Jupiter, and gave him all the kingdom of Egypt.

Son's Chronicle.

Tythe is not simply a Levitical duty, but respectively; not the natural child of Moses's law, but the adopted.

Spenser's Larger Work of Tythe.

There are some opinions, which when they began to be publicly received, began to be accounted prime traditions, and so became such, not by a native title, but by adoption.

Taylor on the Liberty of Prophecy.

Our language hath grown from time to time to be copious, and still grows more rich, by adopting, or naturalizing rather, the choicest foreign words of other nations.

Isaaci's Letters.

'Tis man, said he, who weak by nature,
At first creeps, like his fellow-creature,
Upon all-four; as years accrue,
With sturdy steps he walks on two;
In age, at length, grows weak and sick,
For his third leg adopts a stick.

Prior's Two Riddles.

Spontaneous joys, where nature has its play,
The soul adopts, and owns their first-born way:
Lightly they glide o'er the vacant mind,
Unconscious, unattended, unconfined.

Goldsmith's Deserted Village.

As the kindness of parents was made a sufficient excuse for children to deny their relief in their old age, so the disobedience or extravagance of children, whether natural or adopted, frequently deprived them of the care and estate of their parents.

Father's Grecian Antiquities.

I have adopted the Roman sentiment, that it is more honourable to save a citizen, than to kill an enemy, and have been more careful to protect than to attack.

Johnson's Preface to Shakespeare.

Adoption, the act by which a person takes a stranger under his protection, constituting him one of his own family, and appointing him the heir of his possessions. This practice evidently originated in nature, and is nothing more than an indication of that strong propensity which is implanted in man to diffuse his influence, and to gratify his affections. If the parental disposition have no proper object on which to exercise its energies, averse to remain inactive, it will bestow itself in another way, and seek some legitimate substitute. Hence, in every age and country, adoption has, in some form or other, prevailed.

The practice of adoption seems to have existed among the ancient patriarchs of the Jewish nation, and their successors the Israelites. Calmet, indeed, argues that Jacob's adoption of his two grandsons, Ephraim and Manasseh, as recorded in the forty-eighth chapter of the book of Genesis, ought to be regarded rather as a kind of substitution, by which he intended that they each of them should be entitled to his lot in Israel, because he did not bestow upon their father Joseph any inheritance: but it is essentially the same act, though somewhat different in its application. Among the Israelites a surviving brother was under an obligation to marry the widow of his deceased relation, in case of his dying without issue; and the children of this marriage were to be regarded as belonging to the departed brother, and to take his name. It appears, from the historical

VOL. XVII.

ADOPT

records of the Pentateuch, that the daughter of Pharaoh adopted Moses (Exod. ii. 10.), and that afterwards Mordcai adopted Esther. (Esther ii. 7, 15.) Similar customs prevailed throughout the eastern world. In the Gætoe laws, and the Institutes of Menu, the following regulations are found:—"He who is desirous to adopt a child must inform the magistrate, and shall perform the jagr [sacrifice], and shall give gold and rice to the father of the child whom he would adopt."

"A woman may not adopt a son child without her husband's order." "He who has no son, or grandson, or grandson's son, or brother's son, shall adopt a son; but while he has one, he shall not adopt a second."

"He whom his father, or mother with her husband's assent, gives to another as his son, provided the donor have no issue, if the boy be of the same class, and affectionately disposed, is a son given by water; i. e. the gift being conferred by the pouring of water. He who has no son, may appoint his daughter to raise up a son to him, by saying, the male child, who shall be born from her in wedlock, shall be mine, for the purpose of performing my funeral obsequies. The son of a man is even as himself; and as a son such is a daughter thus appointed. The son of a daughter, appointed as just mentioned, shall inherit the whole estate of her father, who leaves no son. Between the sons of a son and of a daughter, thus appointed, there is no difference in law."

Among the Greeks, adoption was called *isorg*, filiation, and children were divided chiefly into three classes, termed *Γνήσιοι*, lawfully begotten; *Νέστοι*, born of harlots; and *Θετοί*, adopted. Persons who had no lawful issue, were allowed to adopt whom they pleased, whether their own natural sons, or (by consent of their parents) the sons of other men. But such as were not, *πίστοι* *ταύροι*, their own masters, were excepted; such were slaves, women, madmen; and all such as were under twenty-one years of age for these not being capable of making wills, or managing their own estates, were not allowed to adopt heirs to them. Foreigners being excluded from the inheritance of estates at Athens, if any such were adopted, he was made free of the city. The adoption being made, the adopted person had his name enrolled in the tribe and ward of his new father; this was not done at the same time in which the children begotten of themselves were registered, but on the festival called *Θαυρύλας*, in the month Thargelion. The Lacedæmonians were very cautious and wary in this affair; and, for the prevention of rash and inconsiderate adoptions, had a law that they should be confirmed in the presence of their kings. Adopted children were called *παῖδες* *ἐκείνου*, or *ἐκείνου*, and were invested in all the privileges and rights, and obliged to perform all the duties belonging to such as were begotten, of their fathers; and being thus provided for in another family, they ceased to have any claim of inheritance or kindred in the family which they had left, unless they first renounced their adoption, which the laws of Solon allowed them not to do, except they had first begotten children to bear the name of the person who had adopted them; thus providing against the ruin of families, which would have been extinguished by the desertion of those who were adopted to preserve them. If the adopted persons died without children, the inheritance could not be alienated from the family into which they were adopted, but

ADOPT. returned to the relations of the persons who had adopted them. The Athenians are by some thought to have forbidden any man to marry, after he had adopted a son, without leave from the magistrate. And there is an instance in Tacitus's *Children*, of one Leogorus, who being ill used by Andronicus the orator, who was his adopted son, desired leave to marry. However, it is certain some men married after they had adopted sons; and if they begot legitimate children, their estates were equally shared between those begotten and those adopted.—Potter's *Archæologia Græca*.

An adopted son could not adopt another; so that if he had no legitimate son, his possessions received by adoption must revert to the heirs of the adopting father, for there could not be two adopted sons at the same time. The adopted sons of a family, and those who were born afterwards, should there be any, were co-heirs of the estate; but no adoption could be valid, if a man had legitimate sons born at the time. An emnech could not adopt a child; and the person adopted was required to be eighteen years younger than the person who adopted him.

Two forms of adoption were practised by the Romans: the one called *adoptio*, which was transacted before the prætor, the other termed *adrogatio*, performed, during this commonwealth, at an assembly of the people, and subsequently by a rescript of the emperor. In the former case, the natural father pre-empting himself to the magistrate, stated that he emancipated his son, relinquished all further authority over him, and agreed that he should pass into the family of the person who was desirous of adopting him: in the latter instance, the individual or the persons to be adopted being already free, it only remained that the names and distinctions should be altered, so that the adopted party assumed the name, and surname of the adopter. When Augustus adopted the two sons of Agrippa and Julia, he required the father to make over to him his right to the children by a kind of legal sale, and gave them his name in return. The senate decreed, in the reign of Nero, that fraudulent adoptions should be null and void; so that no honours could succeed to the adopted persons, nor could they be entitled to the whole of an inheritance, of which they might otherwise have become possessed. The Romans borrowed the custom of adoption from the Greeks, and it was practised among them with much greater frequency than among the latter people.

Adoption having been practised on various occasions, and by different modes, among different nations, several terms, expressive of these peculiarities, are found in their history. Adoption *by arms*, among the ancient Germans, was the term applied to the presentation of arms to any person by a prince, in consideration of distinguished merit: and it involved the obligation to defend and protect the father from all injuries and affronts. From this practice originated the ceremony of dubbing knights. The arms thus assigned were termed *adoptive arms*, and are distinguished from arms of alliance. Adoption *by baptism*, signifies the affinity acquired in the ceremony of baptism by god-fathers and god-children. It was first introduced into the Greek church, and was afterwards used by the ancient Franks. Adoption *by matrimony*, is the appropriating the children of a former marriage, and admitting them into the family upon an equality with those

of the present marriage. Adoption *by testament*, consists in making a person heir by will, upon the condition of his assuming the name, arms, and other distinctions of the deceased adopter.

The law of Mahomet prescribes a very curious ceremony in adoption. The person adopted is required to pass through the shirt of the adopter; and hence the phrase to *draw another through one's shirt*, is among them expressive of adoption. An adopted son is called *Akietogli*, that is, *the son of another life*.—D'Herbelot, *Bibl. Orient.* p. 47. Cabnet remarks, that something of the same kind prevailed among the Hebrews, and refers to the history of Elijah casting his mantle over Elisha, his disciple and successor, when he ascended in a fiery chariot to heaven; and to that of Moses, who dressed Eleazar in Aaron's sacred garments, when that high-priest was about to be gathered to his fathers; intimating by this act that Eleazar succeeded to the functions of the priesthood, and was, in a manner, adopted to exercise that dignity. God assured Shelaun, the captain of the temple, that he would deprive him of his honourable station, and substitute Eliakim, the son of Hilkiah, to his room. "And I will clothe him with thy robe, and strengthen him with thy girdle, and I will commit thy government into his hand." *Is.* xxii. 21. The expressions used by St. Paul, in various passages of the New Testament, are considered as illustrative of the same subject.—*Rom.* xii. 14; *Gal.* iii. 27; *Eph.* iv. 24; *Col.* iii. 10; and by St. John. *Comp.* John i. 12; 1 John ii. 2.

This ceremony is frequently performed in the different parts of the east, merely by the adopting person exchanging girdles with the person adopted, who succeeds to all the privileges and possessions of a son. In order to prevent their estates falling into the hands of the grand seignor, when there is no probability of their having children of their own, it is not uncommon for the Turks to choose a child of either sex, and perhaps from among the lowest classes of the people, and take it with its parents before the end, where they make a solemn declaration that they receive the child for their heir. The parents renounce all claim to it in future, and a writing is drawn up and properly witnessed; so that a child thus adopted cannot by any means afterwards be disinherited.

ADOPTION, in a theological sense, signifies an act of divine goodness, by which we are received into the number, and have a right to all the privileges of the sons of God. Transgressors are said to be adopted into the family of heaven by the propitiation of our Saviour, and the impartation of his merit: so that for his sake they are regarded as spiritual children. It also includes God's acknowledgement of his people at the last day; as when the Apostle speaks of "the manifestation of the sons of God" at that period. *Rom.* viii. 19. For the Romans first adopted the child in private; and, as has been stated, *by purchase*; but when that child arrived at the age of puberty, he was carried to the Forum, and the adoption became a public and recognized act, sanctioned by all the legal and binding forms of the age. Thus God's children are now supposed to be adopted *really*; but in the day of general judgment they shall be openly recognized or *manifested*; the adoption shall be complete in all its advantages, as well as in all its forms. There is, however, a difference between civil and spiritual adoption, as the latter has been

ADOPT.

ADOPT. designated. The former provided for the relief of those who had no children of their own; but this reason does not exist in spiritual adoption, to which the Almighty was under no conceivable obligation, since he had created innumerable beings, and all the intelligent ranks of creation may be considered as his children. The occasion of one person adopting another, amongst men, is their possession, or supposed possession, of certain qualities or excellencies which attract the adopter's regard; but the introduction of ranking into the family of heaven must be considered as resulting from no such existing merit. In the case of civil adoption, though there is an alteration of the name and external distinctions of the person chosen, it implies no necessary change of disposition, principle, or character; but the reverse is true of spiritual adoption, in which the adopted person is assimilated to the Being whose name he is permitted to assume.

The evidences of adoption are stated by divines as comprising the renunciation of all former sources of dependence and hope, combined with that implicit submission to the will of the adopter, which arises out of the parental character, as well as the supreme authority of God. Adoption is evinced also by a newly cherished and ardent affection to him who has conferred this honour, which it is obvious cannot be always secured in the case of civil adoption. It is displayed further by an obedient spirit, by a filial feeling pervading all our devotional intercourse with heaven, and by a patient expectation and humble anticipation of the final and everlasting inheritance.

ADORE', v. Ad: ara, on, oris, the mouth; (oro ad: ara factum proprie significat ore precor. Vossius.)
ADORE'ABLE,
ADORE'ANT,
ADORE'ATION,
ADORE'MENT,
ADORE'ER,
 To speak to, in prayer, supplication, with reverence, with awe, with love; and consequently, to pray to, to supplicate, to worship, to reverence, to love.

With that my father's saintly spirit on fate,
 And to the goddess capts to be my fate,
 The holy stone adores her right hand,
 Now, now, quod he, I try so langer,
 I follow, and quidder as gide or said I wend.

Douglas, book li. p. 68. *Æsch.*

My father vanquish, then beheld the skies,
 Spoke to the gods, and tholy spirit adored;
 Now, now, quod he, no longer I abide;
 Follow I shall where ye me guide at hand.

Surrey, B.

The good old man with suppliant hands implor'd
 The gods protection, and their star adored;
 Now, now, said he, my son, no more delay,
 I yield, I follow where heav'n's shows the way.

Dryden, B.

And niche more execrable is it to adore or worship th' (imagery) with any recurrent behaviour either by *adoration* prostration kneeling or kissing.

The Exposition of David by George Joye, fol. 35. col. 2.

Fotam in y^a scriptures hath not one only *synagoga*, but many. Some where it is a knowledge of gods beutyfices, some where a faith in his promyses, some where an *adoration*, a worship.

Ble's *Apology*, fol. 58. col. 1.

The said Sir John Bask, did not only attribute to him woody honours, but dispute nature, inventing flattering words, and vowed terms, and to a mortal man not conversant, but as oft as he spoke unto the king in his throne, he cast his hands abroad, as he had adored and worshipped God, beseeching his exalted, high, and adored majesty, that he would vouchsafe to grant him this or that.

Grafton, repr. 1609, vol. i. p. 465.

Dye rather, die, and dying doe her serve,
 Dying her serve, and living her adore;
 Thy life thee gave, thy life she doth deserve:
 Dye rather, die, than ever from her service sever.

Spenser's *Florida* Quest, book iii. canto v.

The priests of elder times deluded their apprehensions with sooth-saying, and such odious idolatry, and even their credulities to the literal and downright adoration of cats, &c.

Brown's *Falgar Errours*.

Rejoicing, but with awe,
 In adoration at his feet I fell

Submiss.

Milton's *Paradise Lost*, book viii.

The God of Nature ordain'd from the beginning, that he should be worshipp'd in various and sundry forms of adoration, which severals, like so many lines, should tend all to the same centre.

Hewitt's *Liters*.

Let our admiration be given to God, seeing deliberate wondering being raised up to an height, is part of adoration, and cannot be given to any creature without some sacrifice.

Feller's *Worship*.

They [Salmata and Scalliger] were vilified therefore, and traduced by those who, if they had been of their own communion, would have almost adored them.

Bentley on the *Epistles of Phalaris*. Preface.

Had some sweet tyrant in her stead been found,
 The poor miser sure had hang'd, or drown'd;
 But she, your sex's mirror, free from pride,
 Was much too meek to prove a housewife.

Pope's *January and May*.

Ye distant specks, ye antique towers,
 That crown the watery glade,
 Where graced science still adores
 Her Henry's holy shade.

Gray's *Ode on a distant Prospect of Eton College*.

James made his publick entry into Dublin, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. He was met at the castle-gate by a procession of popish bishops and priests in their pontificals, bearing the host, which he publicly adored.

Smollett's *England*.

That the more immediate objects of popular adoration amongst the heathens were deified human beings, is a fact attested by all antiquity, whether Pagan, Jewish, or Christian.

Farrar on *Minerals*.

ADORATION, in a Theological sense, is, strictly speaking, an act of worship, due to God only; but offered also to idols and to mortal men by the servility of their fellow-creatures. The derivation of the term plainly indicates the action in which it primarily consisted; namely, in applying the hand to the mouth to kiss it, in token of extraordinary respect to any person or object. In the ancient book of Job it is said, "If I beheld the sun when it shined, or the moon walking in brightness, and my mouth hath kissed my hand, this also were iniquity." (Chap. xxxi. 26, 27.) Minutius Felix states, "that as Cæcilius passed before the statue of Serapis he kissed his head, as is the custom of superstitious people." (*Is Oct.*) And Jerome mentions that those who adore used to kiss their hands and to bow down their heads. (Cont. Rufin. 16. 1.) It is a matter of general notoriety that the word 'kissing' is the usual idiom of the Hebrew language to signify adoration.

Although it cannot be imagined that one attitude or mode of indicating reverence is, in itself considered, more acceptable to the Supreme Being than another, inasmuch as his omniscient inspection primarily regards the affections of the worshipper; yet there is an evident decorum and respect implied in one posture more than in others, varying in different countries and at different periods according to the general opinion and established usages of society—but with which sentiments of devo-

ADORE. tion are inseparably connected. Upon the principle that one mode of address to a superior is deemed respectful, and another the reverse, and consequently the attitudes and motions of the body are believed to be expressive of certain corresponding emotions in the mind, and that religion cannot be totally separated from its forms, the genuine worshipper of God will be solicitous about his external appearance in his presence; nor have the votaries of superstition and idolatry been indifferent to this view of the subject. These sentiments and forms of address have by a very natural association been transferred to the intercourse of ordinary life, and have been made to denote either a proper or an extravagant and impious degree of veneration.

With regard to the different *modes* of Adoration, reference has already been made to the *kissing of the hand*. This is one of the principal tokens of respect in the east, and was, as appears from Herodotus, probably of Persian origin.

Travellers mention a large tree at Surat which is held in great veneration. There hangs a bell aloft, which the persons who come out to pay their devotions, first of all ring, as if to call the idol to hear them; then they commence their adoration by extending both hands downwards as much as possible, joining them together in a praying posture; then, lifting them up again by little and little, they bring them to their mouths as if to kiss them; and lastly, extend them so joined together as high as they can over their heads, which gesticulation is used only to idols and sacred things.—*De la Fulle*.

The Romans, having their head covered, applied the right hand to the lips, the forefinger resting on the thumb, which was erect, and thus bowing the head, the worshippers turned themselves round from left to right. To this mode of kissing, the term '*osculum labratum*' was applied, for they did not dare to touch the images of the gods themselves with their profane lips. Saturn and Hercules were adored with the head bare; and hence the worship of the latter received the epithet of '*institutum peregrinum*' and '*ritus Græcæ*', as differing from the ordinary method of the Romans, who usually concealed the person with a veil, and drew their garments up to their ears.

Kissing the feet, is also a mode of worship or adoration, adopted particularly in modern times among the popists, who express in this manner their reverence of the pope of Rome. It seems to have been derived from the imperial court; but at what precise period it was introduced, cannot now be determined. The eighth century is the generally assigned period, but some have found examples of it, as they believe, in the third. Dioclesian is said to have had gems fastened to his shoes, that divine honours might be more willingly paid him, by kissing his feet. Hence the popes fastened crucifixes to their slippers, that the adoration intended for the pope's person might be supposed to be transferred to Christ. Princes have sometimes practised this singular homage; and Gregory XIII. claimed it as a duty. It was rendered in the ancient church to bishops, the people kissing their feet and exclaiming '*спасею се*.'—*I adore thee*.

At the adoration of the cross on Good Friday the Roman Catholics walk *barefooted*. In the east it is a sign of the greatest respect to take off the shoes and approach to render homage barefooted. The Maho-

metans always observe this practice when they enter their mosques. Mr. Wilkins mentions, upon his expressing a wish to enter the inner hall of the college of Seiks, at Patna, he was informed it was a place of worship, and it was necessary for him to take off his shoes; and a very credible traveller reports that there are seen as many slippers and sandals at the doors of an Indian pagoda, as there are hats hanging up in our churches.

Kissing the ground, was an ancient mode of adoration which usually accompanied the act of *prostration*. Whenever the Persians met, if the parties were upon an equality, or nearly so, they kissed each other; but if the difference were considerable, the inferior prostrated himself and worshipped the other. The kings of Persia never admitted any one into their presence without this ceremony; and if the individual were a vanquished prince, he was required to kiss the prints of the horse-shoe of his conqueror, repeating these stanzas:—

"The mark that the foot of your horse has left upon the dust, serves me now for a crown.

"The ring, which I wear as the badge of my slavery, is become my richest ornament.

"While I have the happiness to kiss the dust of your feet, I shall think that fortune favours me with her tenderest caresses, and her sweetest kisses."

The above instance of extreme severity is cited by d'Herbelot.

Apollonius relates that a golden statue of the king of Babylon was exposed to all who entered the city, and that they could not be admitted within the gates, until they had fallen down and worshipped it: a homage which Conon refused to Artaxerxes, and Callisthenes to Alexander the Great.

Standing was sometimes an attitude of adoration; the body being inclined forward and the eyes cast down to the earth. The bands also probably rested on the knees. In the first book of Kings and in the eighth chapter, it is recorded that Solomon "stood before the altar of the Lord, in the presence of all the congregation of Israel, and spread forth his hands toward heaven." The priests also were accustomed to stand in the service of the temple. This was a posture practised both by the Greeks and Romans.

Sitting, with the under part of the thighs resting on the heels was an ancient eastern practice, which servants still do when in attendance upon their masters. Most, if not all, the Egyptian figures of worshippers in their sacred edifices are represented in this attitude, and it is often alluded to in the scriptures. Thus David "sat before" God on one of the most important occasions of worship. 1 Chron. xvii. 16.

Kneeling was extremely common, and seems very naturally to import a person's endeavouring to lessen his own self-importance in the presence of a superior.

The worshippers in eastern nations generally turn their faces toward the sun or to the east.

Mr. Ward, one of the Baptist missionaries at Serampore, in a work on the History and Literature of the Hindoos, has given the following curious account of the modes of adoration, which they call *poosâ*. "Previously to entering on this act of idolatry," says he, "the person bathes; returning home he washes his feet, spreads a blanket or some other proper thing to sit upon, and then sits down before the idol, having the articles necessary for worship before him: a *kosha* or metal basin, and a *kushee*, or smaller one; a small

ADORE. wooden stand, a metal plate, an iron stand to hold five lamps, a censer, a brass stand with a small shell placed on it, a metal plate on which to place flowers, a metal bowl into which the water and flowers are thrown after they have been presented to the idol, a metal jug for holding water, a metal plate to be used as a bell; a shell, or sacred conch, which sounds like a horn; with a number of dishes, cups, and other utensils for holding rice, paint, incense, betel, water, milk, butter, curds, sweetmeats, flowers, clarified butter, &c. Having all these articles ready, the worshipper takes water from the *kusha* with the *koshee*, and, letting it fall into his hand, drinks it; he then takes a drop more, and then a drop more, repeating incantations. After this, with the finger and thumb of his right hand, he touches his mouth, nose, eyes, ears, navel, breast, shoulders, and the crown of his head, repeating certain forms. He then washes his hands, makes a number of motions with his fingers, and strikes the earth with his left heel three times, repeating incantations. When this is done, he firsts the first finger and thumb of his right hand, waving his hand toward the two divisions of the earth; closes his eyes, and repeats incantations to purify his mind, his body, the place where he sits, as well as the offerings about to be presented (which it is supposed may have become unclean by having been seen or touched by a cat, a dog, a sharkal, a shoodru, or a Mussulman). Next, he takes a flower, which he lays on his left hand, and putting his right hand upon it, revolves in his mind the form of the god he is worshipping. He then lays the flower on his head, and joining his hands together, closes his eyes, thinks upon the form of the god, that he has a nose, eyes, four arms, four heads, &c. and then recites the outward forms of worship to his mind. He now presents the offerings: first, a square piece of gold or silver, as a seal for the god, inviting him to come and sit down, or visit him; and then, asking the god if he be happy, repeats for him, "very happy." After this, he presents water to wash the feet; takes up water with the *koshee*, and pours it into the metal bowl; and presents at once rice, a *vilva* leaf, eight blades of *doorva* grass, paint, and water, with incantations. He then presents water to wash the mouth, curds, sugar, honey; then water to wash the mouth again, and water to bathe in, with prayers; then cloth, jewels, gold, silver, ornaments, beads, curtains, a bed, pillow, cloth, printed cloth; clothes for men, women, or children; shoes, brass drinking cups, candlesticks, and whatever would be proper presents to the *brahmins*. After this, paint, either red or white, is presented on a flower; then eight or ten flowers; leaves of the *vilva* tree; a necklace of flowers; incense of three kinds, and a lighted lamp, with incantations. After the bloody sacrifices, the offerings are presented, comprising rice, split-peas, different kinds of peas, shaddocks, pomegranates, pine-apples, nutted custard-apples, another species of custard-apples, bread-fruit or *jakus*, mangoes, water-melons, cucumbers, plantains, oranges, ginger, coconuts, almonds, raisins, guavas, dates, jumbas, jujubes, wood-apples, melons, sugar-cane, radishes, sweet-potatoes, k. sooru, water, milk, curds, cream, butter,

* It must not be supposed that all these articles are presented daily by the Hindus. This account describes what is performed at festivals. In the daily worship, flowers, leaves, sacred grass, a little rice, &c. are presented.

sour-milk, clarified butter, sugar, sugar-candy, &c. &c. After presenting the offerings, the person repeats the name of a god for some time, and then prostrates himself (the spectators doing the same); putting the cloth round his neck and joining his hands, he offers praise to the god and prostrates himself again. The dinner follows, consisting of fried greens, and several other dishes made up of kidney-beans, yartakke, coconuts, &c. fried together; split-peas, and several kinds of fried herbs or fruits; four kinds of fish; boiled and fish goat's flesh, venison, and turtle; different fruits prepared with treacle; rice and milk boiled with sugar; things prepared with pounded rice; curds, sweet-meats, &c. The fish, flesh, fried greens, and every thing of this kind, is eaten with boiled rice. A dish called *keconce*, consisting of rice, split-peas, clarified butter, turmeric and spices, boiled together, is also presented; and then water to drink. With every article of food a separate prayer is offered. Water is next presented to wash the mouth, and a straw to pick the teeth, with prayers; then the burnt offering is made, and a present of money given. At last the person prostrates himself before the object of worship, and then retires to feast on the offerings with other *brahmins*. This is a detail of the form of worship on a large scale, at which time it occupies the offering *brahmin* two hours." Vol. ii. p. 64, et seq. 8vo.

The objects of adoration have been greatly diversified. We have before remarked that the Supreme Being is the only proper object of worship, but that man has most shamefully prostituted himself to others—to fellow men and to idols. Adoration of the latter was often performed by placing crowns or garlands on the statues of the gods. It was common to lie down in the temples, as if to receive responses from their gods during their sleep; and the sick, in particular, practised this ceremony in the temple of *Esculapius*. The Romish church offers an adoration to martyrs, images, crucifixes, relics, the virgin, and the host; to which protestants strongly object. The Phœnicians (the first navigators) adored the winds, on account of the terrible effects produced by them; a practice adopted by most other nations. The Persians paid adoration to the sun and fire; some say also to the elements. The Greeks and Romans adored fire, under the name of *Vesta*. Pliny mentions the admiration of lightning by gently clapping the hands. The Egyptians adored animals, plants, and fishes; the Arabs, stones; the Scythians, swords; the Chinese, the statues of their ancestors. The Hindoos have not only an amazing variety of gods, but they worship human beings, beasts, birds, trees, rivers, fish, books, and stones. See "Ward's View of the History, Literature, and Religion of the Hindoos," *passim*.

ADORN, v.

ADORN, n.

ADORN'ING, adj.

ADORN'MENT.

Ad: *arno*. Orno, Vossius derives from the Gr. *ἄρνο*, time; the time of spring, the seasonable time, of youth, of maturity, of beauty; and consequently that which beautifies. Wiclif uses the simple word *orn*.

To deck, dress, apparel, gaily, handsomely; so as to display to the best advantage; to decorate, to embellish.

Of which they be not withouten curious *ornayng* of beere, either doryng aboute of gold, either *ornayng* of clothing, but thikke that is the hid man of beere in uncorruption, and of anyle spirit which is

ADORE.
ADORN.

ADORN, *richer in the sight of god; for so assume thyne hooli wysdoms hopings in god enourage himself, and were right to her grace hallowe.*
Wiclyf, 1 Peter, chap. iii.

Whose *adorning*, let it not be that outward *adorning* of plaiting the hair, and of wearing of gold, or of putting on of apparel.

But let it be the hidden man of the heart, in that which is not corruptible, even the ornament of a meek and quiet spirit, which is in the sight of God of great price.

For after this manner in the old time the holy women also who trusted in God adorned themselves, being in subjection unto their own husbands.
N. T. Common Version.

Quoth till this was the daisieful liltie day,
 With festall floures, and bewin in May,
 Did wele adorne, and feist and riot mad
 Turned on the town, and for my self was gladd.
Douglas, book ii. p. 47.

With branches we the fests adorn, and wait
 In jollity, the day ordain'd to be the last.
Dryden. ff.

At his first setting foot on land, the garter of thonder was sent
 & made fast about his [Philip of Spain] legges, which was sent
 unto him by the queene, richly adorned with precious Jewelles.
Jalson, p. 715.

I knowe and perceive your person to be endued with so many
 notable vertues, and to be adorned with such magnificence, fidelity,
 fastness, cleancleane.
Hall, p. 58.

The holie sermo was adorned with oide prudent persons: And not
 without fables I saie it is at this houre it is full of iuglers & liars.
The Golden Bunch, D. v.

Quahs baris and his temple we were dight
 With ryall crown of fyne gold hymist brycht,
 Quahron stode tressitt twelf, like beemes schene,
 As it at riche aduersorst had bene
 Of clere Phobus, that was his gentschire halde.
Douglas, book iii. p. 418.

By the most wise and unchanged order, which God observed in
 the works of the world, I gather, that the light, in the first day
 created, was the substance of the Sun: for Moses repeateth twice
 the main parts of the universal: first, as they were created in mat-
 ter; so, as they were adorned with form.

Herbert's History of the World.

Her breast all naked, as net bery,
 Without adorne of gold or silver bryght,
 Wherewith the cradle-man wants it beaultie,
 Of her dew honour was despoyled nyght.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iii. canto xii.

Th' adorning thee with so much art
 Is but a barbarous skill;
 'Tis like the poisoning of a dart,
 Too apt before to kill.
Cowley's Mistress.

TABO. ————— Costume.
 Thy beauteous slims, like a precious tresser,
 Not shaped into a garment fit for wearing;
 Wants the adornments of the workman's cunning
 To set the richness of the piece at view.
Pope's Fancies, Chast and Noble, act i. sc. 1.

Remember how foolish a thing it is, to be proud of such a carcass:
 to spend all, or the greatest part of one's time, in trimming and
 adorning it; in studying new fashions, and new devices to set it out.
Hale's Contemplations.

Of that skill the more thou know'st,
 The more she will acknowledge thee her head,
 And to realities yield all her shows;
 Made in adorne, for thy delight the more,
 So awful, that with honour thou may'st love
 Thy mate.
Milton's Paradise Lost, b. viii.

What they can spare, besides the necessary expense of their
 domestique, the public payments, and the common course of stile
 increasing their stock, is laid out in the fabric, adornment, or fur-
 niture of their houses.

*Bar Wm. Temple's Observations upon the
 United Provinces of the Netherlands.*

How negligently graceful he [the noble Montague] wears
 His vesture, and writes in loose familiar strains;
 How Nassau's god-like acts adorn his lines,
 And all the hero in full glory shines!

Aldam's Account of the Greatest English Poets.

It were happy if the prisons of the kingdom were filled only with
 characters like these, men whose property could not make useful,
 and whose ruin could not make wise; but there are among us many
 who raise different sensations, many that owe their present misery
 to the seductions of treachery, the strokes of casualty, or the ven-
 derness of pity; many whose sufferings outrage society, and whose
 virtues would adorn it.

Adventure, No. 58.

Next to manners, are exterior graces of person and address:
 which adorn manners, as manners adorn knowledge.

Chesterfield. Letter cv.

At church, with much and unaffected grace,
 His looks adorn'd the venerable place;
 Truth from his lips press'd out with double sway,
 And truth, who came to teach, remain'd to pray.
Goldsmith's Deserted Village.

ADOTED. See **DOVE**.

It faileth that the most wise
 Ben other while of love adoted,
Greene. Con. A. bk. vi.

ADOUR, a river in France, which, rising in the
 Upper Pyrenees, in the county of Bigorre, pursues a
 northern course through Gascony, and then runs east-
 ward (receiving various smaller streams), and falls into
 the Bay of Biscay, about three miles below Bayonne.

ADOUY, a market town, in the county palatine of
 Stuhlweissenberg, in Hungary, situated on the Danube.
 In the adjoining counties of Beregh, Bihar, and Sab-
 boltsch, it is also the name of several villages.

ADOWA, a town of Abyssinia, the capital of the
 province of Tigrai, and containing a sovereign residence.
 It is situated a little below the river Ribierain, on the
 declivity of a hill, and affords extensive views of the
 mountainous district around. The word Adowa, signi-
 fying *pass* or *passage*, in the language of the country,
 is characteristic of its situation, so commanding the only
 road from Gondar to the Red Sea. It is said to con-
 tain 800 houses, of the usual conical form, built chiefly
 of clay, and thatched; and has long been remarkable
 for an extensive manufacture of coarse cotton cloths,
 which form a medium of exchange in Abyssinia, and
 are valued at the rate of ten webs to an ounce of gold;
 or at one *pataka* each web. Fine cotton cloths are also
 manufactured here; but the principal trade is in cattle,
 corn, and salt, produced in the environs, and is con-
 ducted chiefly by Mahometan merchants, attracted
 hither by the facilities for commerce with which the
 town abounds. Lon. 39° E. Lat. 14°, 10'.

ADOWN, } See **DOWN**.

pe lync be while London by segrade faste,
 And destreyde be eke's land, & so contris a down caste.
R. Gloucester, p. 35.

And stones adownward slange vp ben y move,
 And myd spere & myd flon vate of ben alone,
 And myd merd & myd az.
Id. p. 369.

My herd, my here that hangeth long adown,
 Tint never felt non offension
 Of mous no of shere, I wol thee yere,
 And ben thy tere sward whil I live.
Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, vol. i. p. 96.

When Phobus dwell'd here in erth adown,
 An elde lockes maketh mention
 He was the moste lusty bachelor
 Of all this world, and eke the best author.
Id. The Manly Tale, vol. ii. p. 967.

Unto Marie from alone
 Of that he knewe his humble enant,
 His owne some adown be went
 Abow all ether, and his be chere,
 For that vertu, whiche that koweth pro.
Greene. Con. A. b. i.

ADORN

ADOWN

ADOWN.
—
ADRI-
KOPLE.

— His dreadful hideous bed
Close crunched on the floor, would to these
From flaming south bright sparkles fierce red;
That undaine honor to faint hearts did show;
And stately tale was stretch'd across his back full low.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. i. c. vii.

— Her hair
Uny'd, and ignorant of awful ail,
Adown her shoulders to wels by display'd,
And in the petty curls two thousand Cupids play'd.
Frear's Solomon, b. ii.

Adown Augusta's pallid visage flow
The living pearls with unaffected we.
Discom'bar, hapless, see pale Britain mourn,
Abandon'd idly forsaken, and follow.
Falconer's Ode on the D. of York.

ADREAD. See DREAD.
be lying asleep, and how were't? he were a dead fal sore.
he ministered a down on knee, and cried merry & ore.
R. Gloucester, p. 39.

Ther n'as ballif, ne herde, ne other bise,
That he ne knew his sleight and his covise:
They were *adread* of him, as of the deith.
Chaucer: The Prioress: The first, vol. i. p. 25.

This my copyrater hath got mervelle
Of Nicholas, or what thing might him aile,
And said: I am *adread* by Senti Thomas,
It standeth not right with Nicholas:
God shilde that he died suddenly.
H. The Millers Tale, vol. i. p. 135.

And on that side of the towne
The kyngs let make flou:
That high towre, that stronge place,
Whiche was *adread* of no manne,
Of queene, nor of none engyne.
Gower. Con. A. bk. v.

Did shriek aloud, that through the house it rung.
And the whole family then, with *adread*,
Rashly out of their round courses spring,
And to the troubled chamber all in arms did throng.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. iii. c. i.

ADRIANISTS, in Ecclesiastical History, a name given to an obscure sect of heretics of the first century, mentioned by Theodoret, who gives us, however, no account of their founder, or the reason of this appellation. The same term is also applied to the followers of Adrian Hamstedius in the sixteenth century. They were Anabaptists, and maintained several errors concerning the person of Christ.

ADRIANOPLE, a large town, anciently called *Orestes*, and now, by the Turks and Arabs, *Adrenas*, or *Edraw*, situated on the Marizza, in the province of Romania, in European Turkey, 130 miles west of Constantinople. It was restored by the emperor Adrian, from whom its name is derived: it having formerly been the capital of the country of the Bessi, and called *Uskadama*. It is from eight to nine miles in circumference, and surrounded by a wall with towers, now in a decayed state. The houses are low, built chiefly of mud and clay; and the streets narrow and dirty. There is a beautiful bazaar, or market-place, called *Ali Bazaar*, which is an arched building, half a mile long, with six gates, and 365 handsome shops, kept by Turks, Armenians, and Jews. There is also a less beautiful bazaar, of a mile in length. The *Bisectis*, which contains about 200 shops, is in another part of the city, and appropriated to the sale of such articles as are made of gold and silver, jewels, pistols, scimitars, &c. The grand visier's palace is a commodious house, after the Turkish manner of building, and distinguished for the agreeableness of its situation

ADRIA-
KOPLE.
—
ADROIT.

The gardens are some miles in circumference. The structures most worthy of attention are the mosques, whose lofty steeples and colonnades, with pedestals and chapters of cast brass, gates of marble, exquisitely carved, fountains, and porticos and eucolas, surmounted with gilded balls, cannot fail of impressing the beholder with sentiments of wonder and delight. The number of inhabitants may be estimated at upwards of 100,000. It is the residence of a Greek archbishop, under the patriarch of Constantinople, and is a favourite place of retreat with the sultan, either for pleasure or in times of public danger and calamity. The air is good, and the adjacent country fertile. The wine is esteemed the best in Turkey. It is governed by a mullah cadi, who has absolute authority in civil and criminal matters. The Turks under Sultan Amurath I. took this city from the Greeks in 1362, and made it the capital of the empire, till Mahomet II. captured Constantinople in 1453. In 1754 and 1778, it suffered extremely by fire. E. lon. 26° 27'. N. lat. 41° 41'.

ADRIATIC Sea, or the Gulf of Venice, an arm of the Mediterranean, and contained between Dalmatia, Slavonia, Greece, and Italy, about 200 leagues long and 50 broad, extending from south-east to north-west, from lat. 40 to 45°, 55'. N. It derives its name from the town of Adria, in the Polesino di Rovigo. It is sometimes frozen over near Venice, though in summer its temperature is higher than that of the Mediterranean. The Venetians claim exclusive dominion over it, which is annually recognized by wedding it on Ascension-day; a ceremony performed by the chief navigators dropping a ring into the sea, on which he appears in great state. Its coasts on either side are sinuous and full of gulphs; and on the eastern shore are numerous small islands. The sea encroaches, though very slowly, on the land, and, unlike the Mediterranean, it has here a daily ebbing and flowing of the tide.

ADRIFFT, is the past participle *adrijed*, *adrij'd*, *adrijt*, of the AS. verb *drifan*, *adrijan*, to drive.

And quhat aventure has the bidden *drift*?

Douglas, b. iii. p. 79.

i. e. drifted, or driven. (Tooke.)

Adrijt, in Gower, is considered by Skinner to have originated in the same AS. verb.

The Kynges daughter, whiche this ight,
For pure abasche drove his *adrijgh*. *Gower. Con. A. b. iv.*

— Then shall this moont

Of *Phanias* by night of waves be sav'd

Out of his place, push'd by the boorded flood;

With all his verdure spell'd, and trees *adrijt*;

Down the great river, to the opening gulf.

Mil. Par. Lett, b. xii.

— Be got alone into a boat,

With bread and water only for three days;

So on the sea she shall be set *adrijt*;

And who relieves her, dies.

Dry. Marriage a la Mode, act iii.

The sleek sail shifts from side to side;

The boat untim'dly *adrijts* the tide.

Blow down, *adrijt*, at random tost,

His ore break's short, the rudder's lost.

Gay's Fables, p. ii.

Having fallen in with a reef of rocks in their return to the ship, they had been obliged to cut Mr. Banks's little boat *adrijt*.

Cool's Fables.

ADROIT, *adj.* } Lat. directus, Ital. dritto, Fr.

ADROIT'LY, } droit.

ADROITNESS, } An *adroit* man aims direct at

ADROIT. his mark, hits it; attains his purpose with ease, skill, dexterity.

AD VANCE.

Or, wanting these, from Charlotte Hayes we bring,
Dumetis alike adroit, to sport and sting.

Mason. Heroic Epit.

The stoic and the libertine, the sinner and the saint, are equally adroit in the application of the telescope and the quadrant.

Herrick's Sermon.

The skill and achievement of the artist, acquired, as years' has been, by repeated acts, and continual practice.

Horne.

ADRY. See **DRY.**

ADRYMETUM, or **ADRYMETUM**, anciently a celebrated city, the capital of Bysantium, in Africa, supposed by Dr. Shaw to have occupied the same situation with the present *Herkla*. It was the Justinianum of the middle, and the *Heraclia* of the lower empire. Its ruins indicate a place of about a mile in circumference.

ADSCITITIOUS. *Ad: scito, scitus.* To seek or inquire after (adjungere, assumere, at exponit Festus). To adjoin, to assume. And the word (when used) is applied to that which is adjunct, or assumed.

All which are additional labour, and take up much room to discourse and break, and are preferred by different authors, upon different subjects, and in different kinds of writing, with an infinite variety of methods and forms, according to men's different views and capacities; and many times not without a necessity of some considerations, additional advantages, and even applications to the position.

Wotton's Religion of Nature.

You apply to your hypothesis of an additional spirit what he [Philo] says concerning this *scelus* *Scelus*, divine spirit or soul, infused into man by God's breathing. *Clarke's Letter to Dodwell.*

ADUAR, or **ADAUER**, a moveable village, composed of huts, which the Arab families inhabit: and of which there are supposed to be 30,000 in the kingdom of Algiers.

ADVANCE, v.

ADVANCE, n.

ADVANCEMENT,

ADVANCE, n.

ADVANCE, n.

ADVANCEMENT,

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ADVANCE, n.

ADVANCE, n.

Anciently written *orange*: in French *avance*, *avance*. To bring into the sea.

In Robert of Gloucester the sea guard is called the *round wardens*.

To forward, or bring forward into the front or foreground, the *vanage* ground.

To propose, or offer to notice or attention; to promote, to prefer, to exalt.

Chaucer uses the adverb *avant*, forward; and also the noun *avant*, and the verb *avancer*, which, Mr. Tyrwhit says, are French, and mean about, to boast.

But this is a consequent application. He who *avanceth*, *vaneth*; cometh *avant*, puts himself or his deeds forward, outrides them, is a boaster. And this application is common in the elder writers.

Another application of *avant* is, to go forward, to pass on, to go on, to begone.

He laboureth in his name *avant* was not bet.

For his name is his *avant* was not bet.

He got him such *avant*, so he wille, he sawe in oþ.

þat he ne darste nevere carge of nede or of cloþ.

R. Gloucester, p. 512.

þe want warden hem mette worst, a rýge was to done.

Id. p. 437.

He felt him þayn & fettyr æke, his body was alle sece,

His childe he wild *avant*, till he a lyar were.

R. Brunne, p. 18.

þogh comelle of som of hise, refused he þat present,

þei said, on oþer wise he wille had *avantment*. *Id. p. 163.*

It is not honest, it may not *avant*.

As for to driden with so wiche pounille,

But all with rich and wiche of vicielle.

Chaucer. *The Prologue. The Friar, vol. i. p. 11.*

And thus of o thing I may *avant* me,

Atth' eude I had the better in eche degree,

By dreight or force, or by non manner thing.

Id. The Wy of Buckes Prologue, vol. i. p. 348.

For unto a poure ordre for to give

Is signe that a man is wel yachive.

For if he gave, he darste make *avant*,

He wote that a man was reputant.

Chaucer. *The Prologue. The Friar, vol. i. p. 10.*

Avantour, is he that boorth of the baron or of the house that he hath don.

Id. The Perceval Tale, vol. ii. p. 315.

And with that word came Dede *avant*,

Which was abaused, and in great ire

When he wist Jealousie was there.

Id. R. of R. fol. 154, col. 4.

There is another yet of *pride*,

Whiche never cosse his wordes bide,

That he ne oide hym selfe *avant*;

There nule nothing his tonge dauit,

That he ne clappeth as a belle.

Gower, Con. A. book i.

And thus for that there is no dele,

Whereof to make my *avant*,

It is to reason accidentally.

That I nule never, but I lie,

Of leue make *avant*.

Id.

And of some other *avantment*:

Thus wotheth me no repentance.

Shal no wechesse lette þe clerk þat ich lesye

That he ne worth first *avant*.

Vaine of Piers Plouman, p. 39.

The French soldiers, which from their youth have been practised and inured in feats of arms, do not crack or *avant* themselves to have very often got the upper hand and mastery of your new made and unpractised soldiers.

Mary's Utopia by Robinson, p. 56.

In heath how highly so ever any man is *advanced*, therewith is more offended, but rather every one (as you will they have eche other) rejoyceth and hath his part in eche others *advancement*.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 1309, col. 1.

Or rather would, it would it had so chance't,

That you, most noble sir, had present borne,

When that lewd misadit (with vile last *advantage*)

Laid first his filthy hands on virgin clothe,

To spoyle her daintie corse so faire and shewe.

Shew's Fairie Queene, b. ii. c. i.

After this piece

To give her the *avant*, it is a pity,

Would move a monster.

Shakespeare, Henry VIII.

Avant! begone! I shal't set me on the rack:

I swear 'tis better to be much abrid,

Than but to know a little.

Id. Othello, act iii.

With this *avante* did Christe put of the devil, when he was tempted of him: with these weapons ought of presumption, whiche double *avante* itself against God, to be overthrowen and conquered.

Acute's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of Englande.

Those that are *advanced* by degrees are less envious than those that are *advanced* suddenly.

Bacon's Essay on Envy.

A cherub fall;

Who forthwith from the glittering staff unfurld

Th' imperial ensign; which, full high *advanced*,

Shew'd like a meteor streaming to the wind,

With grins and golden hoofs rich link'd,

Scorch'd arm and impetuous.

Milton, Par. Lost, b. i.

Wherefore Sir Edward Pownings according to his commission, extending to punish such as have bene ayders and *advancers* of Perkins foolish enterprise, with his whole army, march'd forth aye against thys wylde Irishmen.

Greifin, v. ii. p. 200.

ADVANCE.

ADVANCE.
ADVANTAGE.

Our advanced bellows are not to be built upon dictates, but having received the probable inducements of truth, we become emancipated from trivial engagements, and are to erect upon the sure base of reason.

More advantageous had it been unto truth to have fallen into the endowments of some co-opting advances, that might have performed it to the life, and added authority thereto; which the privacy of our condition, and unequal abilities cannot expect.

Id. Pref.

To redeem any doth signify goodness, to redeem many doth increase, to redeem all doth advance it to the highest pitch.

Barnes's Sermons.

Th' advance of kindness which I made, was feign'd,
To call back fleeting love by jealousy.

Dryden.

All for Love, act iv.

Mr. Newton, in his never enough to be admired book, has demonstrated several propositions, which are so many new truths, before unknown to the world; and are farther advances in mathematical knowledge.

Lack's Essay on Human Understanding.

If the perfection of a rational creature consist in acting according to reason; and if his merit rises in proportion as he advances in perfection; How can that state, which best secures him from acting irrationally, lessen or take away his merit?

Wentworth's Divine Legation of Moses Demonstrated, b. v.

True religion is the best support of every government, which, being founded on just principles, proposes for its end the joint advancement of the virtue and the happiness of the people.

Hersley's Sermons.

So love, that clings around the noblest reliefs,
Furlids th' advancement of the soul he blinds.

Cooper, Retirement.

Hence, ev'ning! 'tis holy ground;

Come and his midnight crew;

And Ignorance with lock profound

And drossing Sloth, of pallid hue;

Mad Sedition's cry prophane,

Servitude, that hugs her chain;

Nor in these consecrated bowers,

Let painted Flattery hide her serpent-tails in flowers.

Gray's Installation Ode.

ADVANCE, fosse or ditch; in fortification that which surrounds the glacis or esplanade of a place to prevent surprise. Also that part of the retrenchment which is nearest the enemy.

ADVANCE GUARD, or Vanguard; in military tactics the first line or division of an army, in order of battle; or that part which is nearest, or which marches first towards the enemy. It is more particularly applied to a small party of horse stationed before the main guard.

ADVANTAGE, v.

ADVANTAGE, R.

ADVANTAGEOUS,

ADVANTAGEOUSLY,

ADVANTAGEOUSNESS,

ADVANTAGEABLE.

It is applied consequently to forward, to promote the interests of, to favour, to benefit, to profit.

Sir, fairere he were, groatte vs jil corteysie,

Jou parties pitched more, he advantage set us his,

bat jou may crye with right, when jou wille & have,

bat alle not be purg night be dened of Iseu Jan Jon.

R. Branne, p. 314.

That I have fought with brexter at Ephesus after y^e manner of us, what advantage it me, yf y^e deed rye not agayne.

BMR, 1339—1 Corinthians, chap. xv.

As sooth is sayd, alle hath grete advantage;

Le ride is holte wisdom and sage;

Mes may the old out-reme, but not out-ride.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, vol. i. p. 97.

VOL. XVII.

ADVANTAGE.
ADVANCE.

Therefore strupper thy courage:
Foolhard deth none advantage,
But ofte it set a man behynde
In cause of love, and I finde
By olde ensamples, as thou shalt here
Toucherd of love in this matere.

Greene, Cyn. A. bk. iii.

For as the darke is in thys matter all hys advantage: ere so is verely the light in like wise myne.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 931. col. 1.

KING JOHN. Within this wall of flesh

There is a soul combs thee her creditor,

And with advantage means to pay thy love.

Shakespeare, R. John, act iii. sc. 2.

K. HEN. And take with you free power to ratify,

Argument or alter, as you your wisdom best

Shall see advantageous for our dignity.

Shakespeare, Henry V. act v. sc. 2.

Without Christ, it would be far from advantageous to toward our salvation: for alas! though we should turn never so holy, never so virtuous and reformed: what satisfaction or recompense could we make for our former sins and iniquities.

Chillingworth's Sermons.

Here, perhaps,

Some advantages act may be achiev'd

By sudden onset; either with bell-fire

To waste his whole creation, or possess

All as our own; and drive as we were driven,

The pony habitations.

Milton's Par. Lost, b. ii.

Comst all th' advantage prosperous vice attains,

Tu but what virtue flies from and disdains;

And grant the bad what happiness they would,

Our they must want, which is, to pass for good.

Pope's Essay on Man, epist. iv.

Whatever advantages I obtain by my own free endeavours, and right use of those faculties and powers I have, I look upon them to be as much the effects of God's providence and government, as if they were given me immediately by Him, without my acting.

William's Religion of Nature.

The lost property which qualifies God for the fittest object of our love, is the advantageousness of his to us.

Bayle's Scrupulous Love.

Danger, then,

Urges the prince's death: * * *

He dies this minute, that the next may better

Advantage our escapes.

Southern's Legal Brother, act. i.

Every man should be well acquainted with his own talents and capacities; and in what manner they are to be exercised and improved to the greatest advantage.

Mason's Self-knowledge.

You see by this one instance, and in the course of your life you will see by a million of instances, of what a good reputation it is, and how swift and advantageous a barbing it is, wherever one goes.

Cheneyfield, Letter clxxxv.

Some abruptly speak advantageously of themselves, without either pretence or provocation. They are impudent.

Id. Letter clxvi.

ADVENE, v.

ADVENT, R.

ADVENT, R.

ADVENTINE,

ADVENTIVIOUS,

ADVENTIVE R.

ADVENTIVE, adj.

ADVENTUAL.

Ad: venio; venio, from

(venire) to come to. These

componends have not come into

very common use.

Advent and adventine are

more particularly applied to the

coming of Jesus Christ.

Adventitious is the most fre-

quently met with, though with little necessity.

So great from her com in Advew, bat men myght agryve,

bat men myght bope ryde & go in Tenew, p. 465.

R. Gloucester, p. 465.

The accidental of any act is said to be whatever adheres to the act itself.

Ayliffe's Parergon.

R

ADVENTURE. Being thus divided from truth in themselves, they are yet farther removed by *adventitious* deception. For true it is (and I hope I shall not extend their vulgarities) if I say they are daily mocked into error by sinister diviners, and have been expressly deluded by all professions and ages.

To him who is concerned in the most holy mystery of Regeneration, the perfective Unction of Christ gives him the *advent* of the Holy Spirit.

If the proportion of the *adventitious* heat be greatly predominant to the natural heat and spirits of the body, it teacheth to dissolution or notable alteration.

A humor is a liquid or fluent part of the body, comprehended in it, for the pervasion of it, and is either innate or born with us, or *adventitious* and acquired.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

The natives be not so many, but that there may be elbow-room enough for them, and for the *adventitious* also.

I do also daily use one other collect; as, namely, the collects *adventus*, quadragesimal, paschal, or pentecostal, for their proper seasons.

If his blood boil, and th' *adventitious* fire
Raid by high moods, and higher wines, require
To trumpet and ally the burning heat;
Waters are brought, which by decoction get
New coolness.

Death's dreadful *advent* is the mark of man;
And every thought that muzzes it, is vain.

Thy mists proclaim thee king, and thy delay
Gives courage to this foe, who, could thy see
The dawn of thy last *advent*, long deriv'd,
Would creep into the bowels of the hills,
And flee for safety to the falling rocks.

Copier's *Tash*, book vi.

To things of great dimensions, if we annex an *adventitious* idea of terror, they become without comparison greater.

Barker on the *Sublime and Beautiful*.

ADVENT, in the calendar, the time preceding the feast of the nativity. It includes four weeks from St. Andrew's day, or the Sunday before or after it. It was appointed to employ the thoughts on the *Adventures*, or first coming of Christ in the flesh, and his second coming to judge the world. This is one of the seasons, from the beginning of which to the end of the octave of the Epiphany, marriages cannot be celebrated in England without express licence.

ADVENTURE, *v.* *Ad: venio: adventus; ad-venturus, a. venturus.*
Adventure, as a substantive,
means, any thing, that will,
adventurously, that is about to, come.
Adventure, *tr.* *Adventure*, he that tries,
risks, hazards, braves, whatever is about to come.
It was anciently written *Amtre* and *Aventure*. *Ad-ventry* is sometimes found.

Now is he in pe see with stile in mast vponste.

Toward his lord pet drouth, to adventure his chonour,
With Normandes innob, of Flandes & of France.

R. Brunne, p. 70.

pe he com out ward with ys folk, pe emprouer with stou,
And dredde of his hardynesse, & poynte ys was not god,
To do his lyl an avnture, and ys men al so.

R. Glouceter, p. 64.

And when this jape is told another day
I shal be hidden a drafte or a colerney:
I wol arise, and nautre it by my key:
Unhapply is coonly, thus men say.

Chaucer. *The River Tale*, vol. i. p. 166.

Thus can I taught my selfe comraite,
But all I write on macture,
And am, as who saith, out of cure.

Gower. *Com. A.* book iv.

This lady there right well apaid
Me by the hand took, and said,
Welcome prisoner *adventure*!
Right glad am I ye have said thus,
And for ye doubt not *adventure*
I will wany to doe you true.

Chaucer's *Dream*, fol. 337, col. 1.

And for he was a knight austrous,
He w' old sleep in non house,
But liqer in his head,
His brighte helu was his wanger,
And by him baited his *adventure*
Of herbes fit and good.

Id. *The Rime of Sir Thopas*, vol. ii. p. 69.

Ye and the woman that is so tender and delicate, that she dare not *adventure* to sett the sole of her foot upon the ground, (for softness and tenderness,) shall be grieved to take on her husband that lyeth in her bosom, and on her son, and on her daughter.

Bible, 1529, *Deut. chap. xxviii.*

Whereunto if she saide that she myghte out for feare of her husbands losse, and her sonnes perill, *adventure* to kepe these bookes because of the kinges proclamation, he woud let her and perrade her playfully, thus the bookes of the scripture she must needs keepe syght of all the prynters proclamation to dye therefore.

Sir T. More's *Works*, p. 761, col. 2.

And the *Platene* and *adventurers* which were with Demetrius, were the first that came to seize and possess the purse and cuneo into it by the quarters, where as presently is now a trophy or victorie addressed & set up.

Nicoll's *Travels*, fol. 111, col. 2.

Had they not been assisted from the gallies with an unusual kind of engines, which did beat back the Britaners (in respect of that strange manner of assault) the Romans had not set foot on British soil, neither durst they then *adventure* it.

Spicer's *Hist. of Gr. Britain*.

And sure this marvell'd prince, though weak he was,
He was out ill; not yet so weak, but that
He shou'd much martial valor in his place
Adventuring off his person for the state.

Daniel's *Civil Wars*, b. iii.

It is a pleasure to stand upon the shore, and to see ships lost upon the sea; a pleasure to stand in the window of a castle, and to see a battle, and the *adventures* thereof below.

Racine's *Essay on Tragedy*.

Then let the former eye with this content her,
She brought the poets forth, but our's tis' *adventure*.

Ben Jonson's *Apoc. cxxxiii.*

Great chab-first (Alcides) though thy back and bones be use
Still, with thy former labours, add one more,
Act a brave work, call it thy last *adventure*.

Id. *Voyage itself*.

So there, the late

Heaven-bani-bred host, left dead almost hefl
Many a stark league, redu'd to careful watch
Round their metropolis; and now expecting
Each hour their great *adventurer*, from the search
Of foreign worlds.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book x.

What will not one in captivity (as Sir Walter was) promise, to regain his freedom: who would not promise, not only silvers, but mountains of gold, for liberty; and 'tis pity such a knowing well-would's knight had not had a better fortune; for the Drury I mean that brave ship which he built himself of that name, that carry'd him thither) is like to prove a fatal destiny to him, and to some of the rest of those gallant *adventurers*.

Hecate's *Letters*.

Fast by the oracle of God; I thence
Beside thy aid to mine *adventurous* song,
That, with no middle flight, intends to soar
Above th' *Aonian* mount, while I purue
Things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, b. i.

Boy. Rurdisse and Nym had tenne times more valor, then this
raring diuill I th' able play, that errie one may payre his rayles
with a wooden dagger, and they are both hang'd, and so would
this be, if hee durst steale any thing *adventurously*.

Shakespeare's *Henry F.* act iii.

ADVENTURE.

It is a folly to spend our care and pains upon that, which is too hard for us to effect; and it is worse than so to adventure upon that, which most probably will bring us into sin, and hurt our souls.

Burton's Sermons.

ADVENTURERS.

O Palamon, my kinsman and my friend,
How much more happy fate they have attend!
Thine is th' adventure; thine the victory;
Well has thy fortune turn'd the dice for thee.

Dryden's Palamon and Arcite, l. i.

I sing the sds; I who lately sang
Truth, Hope and Charity, and touch'd with awe
The solemn courts, not, with a trembling hand,
Escap'd with pain from that adverse-ross flight,
Now seek repose upon as humble theme.

Couper's Task, h. i.

Some bold adventurers disdain
The limits of their little reign,
And unknown regions dare descry.

Gray's Ode to Eton Col.

ADVENTURE, Bill of, in Commerce, a writing signed by a merchant to testify that the goods shipped on board a certain vessel, belong to another person who is to take the hazard; the subscriber only signing to oblige himself to account to him for the produce.

ADVENTURE Bay, the name of a bay in the southern part of New Holland, off Van Diemen's land. Captain Cook states that it has a beautiful sandy beach, about two miles long, at the bottom of the bay, formed apparently by particles which the sea washes from the fine white sand-stone. Behind it is a plain, with a brackish lake, out of which his party caught some bream and trout. The vicinity of the bay is hilly, covered with a forest of tall trees, rendered almost impassable by brakes of fern, and shrubs, &c. The soil is sandy, consisting of a yellowish earth, or of a reddish clay; the country in general is very dry, and the heat intense. The only quadrupel observed was a species of opossum, about twice the size of a large rat. The inhabitants are mild and cheerful, with little of that wild appearance which characterizes savages; but they are almost as devoid of personal civility or genius as the natives of Terra del Fuego. Their complexion is a dull black, their hair woolly, and clothed with grease and red ochre, like that of the Hottentots; their noses broad and full; they are, upon the whole, well proportioned. This bay was first visited by Captain Furneaux in 1773, then in 1788 by Captain Bligh, and was completely surveyed by the French officers who went in search of Perouse. *E. lon.* 147° 29'. *S. lat.* 43° 21'.

ADVENTURERS, an ancient company of merchants erected for the discovery of lands, territories, and trades. This society originated in Burgundy, and was first established by John, duke of Brabant, in 1248, for the encouragement of English and other merchants at Antwerp. It was afterwards confirmed in England by Edward III. and IV.; Richard III.; Henry IV. V. VI. and VII.; and by patent of the last monarch in 1505, they received the title of *Merchant Adventurers*.

Before this period the *Merchant Adventurers of London* (who appear to have been a distinct company) had been accustomed to require from the merchants of other places, and who called themselves the *Merchant Adventurers of England*, a considerable duty upon all commercial transactions in the great fairs of Flanders and Brabant; but in 1497 this impost was reduced by act of parliament to a fine of ten marks. The influence of the English Merchant Adventurers at Antwerp was

so important in 1550, that they were able successfully to resist the establishment of the Inquisition in that city.

ADVERB, n.
ADVERBIAL,
ADVERBIALY,

Adverbs are words so called from their manner of signification. See GRAMMAR, Div. i.

For this wondrous notion (Mark, chap. xiv. v. 25) seemeth not there to be paid for an adverb, but is a wondrous adverb; and therefore it signifieth some hynde of newness in the drinks it sell.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1320, col. 2.

But of one thing I do not a little marvel, that in my dyscrepency of a vowel, a poor adverb of negation should so much offend the eye, and the vaunted orthotypes with all outrageous pride in the clergy.

Bale's Apology, fol. 26, col. 4.

An adverb is a word without number, that is joynted to another word: as

Well-learned.

Hee fighteth valiantly.

Hee dispatcheth very secretly.

R. Jonson's English Grammar.

Adjectives compared, when they are used adverbially, may have the article the going before.

There is in the liturgy as well as holy scripture a twofold Amen, the one affirmative in the end of the creed, the other optative in the end of collects, and particularly of this collection; so that here it is an adverb of wishing, a serious device that God would grant all our petitions.

Cotter's Companion to the Temple.

He [the censoring man] gives half-looks and thrugs in his general behaviour, to give you to understand that you do not know what he means. He is also wondrously adverbial in his expressions, and breaks off with a "perhaps" and a nod of the head upon matters of the most indifferent nature.

Tatler, No. 191.

ADVERSE, v.

ADVERSE, adj.

ADVERSARY,

ADVERSATIVE,

ADVERSELY,

ADVERSENESS,

ADVERSITY.

Ad: *verso*; to turn to or against. The verb is obsolete.

The adjective is applied to that which turns to or is turned against,

with a design to oppose, resist,

content against: to that which

is hostile or destructive to;

which causes calamity, misfortune, distress.

At Wynechestre he held his parliament hit gere,

& for men him told, who was his adversere.

R. Brune, p. 82.

With that he polleth vp his head,
And made right a glad visage,
And said, howe that was a porgage
Touche to that other Iere,
Of that fortune him shuld advere.

Gower. Con. A. book ii.

Than said he thes, fulfille of hid disdaine,
O cruel Jace, and thou fortune adversa
This ill and some, that falsly have yu shalve
Cremide.

Chaucer. Fourth book of Troilus, fol. 184, col. 2.

But every loys hym is deluded,
So that within his herte adressed
A thousande tyme with one breath,
Wende he wissheth after death,
When he fortune lyst advere.

Gower. Con. A. book iv.

Be ye solre and wake ye, for your adversarie the deuel, as a reynge lion, gaith about weylde whom he schal deuaie.

Wiclyf, 1 Petr, chap. v.

Be soler and watch, for youre adversary y^e deuyll, as a roving lyon, walke about rekyng whom he may deuoure.

Bible, 3559, 7h.

For who so maketh God his adversarie,
As for to merke any thing in contrary
Of his will, certes never shal he thrive,
Though that he multiply terme of his lye.
Chaucer. The Chaucer's Ymagines Tale, vol. i. p. 262.

A 2

ADVERSE.
—ADVERT.

For chain is man, right as another beast,
And dwelleth eke in prison, and arrest,
And hath sickness, and greet adversity,
And oftentimes gilleles pardi.

Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, vol. i. p. 33.

Besides, the king's name is a tower of strength,
Which they upon the adverse party want.
Shakespeare. *Rich. III.*, act iv. sc. 3.

This loss was so great, that it is accounted the first of the three adverse fortunes which ever happened to Caesar in all his proceedings.
Speed's *Hist. of Gr. Britain*.

There is a third kind of world, which is in a great measure without us; namely, the accidental, or, more truly, the providential world, in relation to man and his condition in this world; and 'tis commonly of two kinds, viz. prosperous, or adverse.

Hale's *Contemplations*.

And they but idly talk, upbidding us with lies,
That Geoffrey Notmarch, first our Brutus did devise,
Not heard of till his time, our adverse says;
When pregnant we prove, 'ere that historian's days,
A thousand long years, our prospects clearly wing.
Dryden. *Poly Olinus*, a. 2.

FIL I'll give thee armour to keep off that ward;
Adversity's sweet milk, philosophy,
To comfort thee, though thou art lurch'd.
Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, act iii. sc. 3.

Prosperity is not without many fears and distastes; and adversity is not without comforts and hopes. Bacon's *Essay on Adversity*.

But some souls we see
Grow hard, and stiffen with adversity.
Yet these, by fortune's favours are undene;
Rash'd into a boar for they run,
And bore the wind, but cannot bear the sun.
Dryden. *And and Panther*.
Impede the bark that ploughs the deep serene,
Clang'd with a freight, transconducting in its worth
The gems of India, nature's rarest birth,
That flies, like Gabriel, on his Lord's commands,
A herald of God's love to pagan lands.

Cooper. *Clarissa*.

Truth seems to be considered by all mankind as something fixed, unchangeable, and eternal; it may therefore be thought, that to vindicate the permanency of truth is to dispute without an adversary.

Bentley's *Livy on Truth*.

Of these disjunctives, some are *adversative*, simple, as when we say, "either it is day, or it is night;" *adversative*, when we say, "it is not day, but it is night."

Against which allegations, M. Persons himself, a man known unto you for his malignity and envenom, could take no exception.
Morton.

ADVERSATIVE, a species of disjunctive conjunction, according to Mr. Harris. See the above extract, and GRAMMAR, Div. I.

ADVERT, v. } Ad: *verbo*. To turn to.
ADVERTENCE, } The difference between the
ADVERTENCY, } old verb, to *adversare*, and
ADVERT'ENT, } still common verb, to *advert*, is
in the application.

To *advert* is used when we *turn to*, with a design to look at, observe, attend to, consider, remark upon.

Helena, the drayne, as we with him can luge,
Queen horribly dings ere he dyd advert
Behov not before to use thy barneys smart,
Nor sit the fellow skawit Celestia.

Douglas, book iii. p. 92.

During this time Enesio was *adverted*,
Within one veil for these cloist'ring
Quake stole and wad.

Id. book vi. p. 169.

But in my inward thought I *gan advert*
And oft I said my wit is dull and hard
For with her beauty thus God wot I fed
As doth the man yearished with sight
When I behold her christall eyes so bright.

Chaucer. *The Court of Love*, l. 349, c. 2.

ADVERT.
—ADVERSE.
—TISE.

I am beset to gash, *adversetur*,
This test is full of stories ever ill drill.
Realms, and lands, quashed I have so fell
But as I follow Virgil in sentence.

Douglas. Pr. to book iii. p. 66.

For God it wote, her heart on other thing is
Although the body not among them there
Her *adversetur* is always els where
For Trevisa full fast her scale sought
Withosen word, on his awy she thought.

Chaucer. *4th book of Troilus*, l. 179, c. 4.

There is no commensuration, but a man that considers, that en-
dangers, that understands, that knows, that labors, may do in
time and place, and so long as he is *adversetur*, and is dispassionate, so
long as his instrument is in tune.

Taylor. *On the Doctrine and Practice of Repentance*.

In this life our understanding is weak, our attention trifling, our
adversetur interrupted, our diversion many.

As I cannot be conscious of what I do not perceive, so I do not
perceive that, which I do not advert upon. That which makes me
feel, makes me *adversetur*. Every instance, therefore, of consciousness
and perception is attended with an act of *adversetur*.

Watson's *Religions of Nature*.

God strictly eyes and observes every man in the world, with the
very same *adversetur* as if there were nothing else for him to ob-
serve; and certainly there cannot be imagined a greater engagement
to *adversetur*, and attention, and consciousness, than this.

Hale's *Contemplations*.

Is he rich, prosperous, great? yet he continues sad, because he
continues humble, watchful, *adversetur*, lest he should be deceived
and transported.

Id.

Our low world is only one of those,
Which the capacious universe compose.
New to the universal whole advert;
The earth regards, as of that whole a part.

Blackmore's *Creation*, book iii.

ADVERTISE, v. } From the same source as
ADVERTISEMENT, } Adverse and Advert.
ADVERTISE, } turn the mind or attention
ADVERTISING, } to; to call the attention to;
to give notice or information of.

And now behold, I go unto my people: come therefore and I
will *advertise* thee, what this people shall do to thy folk: is the later
days.

Bible, 1539. Numbers, ch. xxiv.

When the ladies of Brytayne were and considered the great
multitude of Saxons, and they daily repaire into this land, they
assembled them together, and shewed to the kynge the inconsequence
and injurty that might come to hym and his land, by reason of
the great power of these straungers, and *adverted* hym in shewing
of greater danger, to expell & put them out of his realm,
or the more parte of them.

Fabyan, p. 62.

These dathe in deede, in theirs that either neuer or but seldom
have any good counsaile there against, and when they have it,
harken it not; as they would an idle tale, rather for a pastime, or
for the meane sake, then for any substantiall content and purpose
to follow good *advertising*, and take any fruit thereby.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, p. 152, c. 2.

This grudge was *perceived*, by their mutual freendes, which by
charitable exhortation and Godly *advertising*, exhorted them to
renew their old love and familiarities, and to meet and converse, in
some place decent and convenient.

Hall, p. 173.

GARD. The king is so *adverted* of your guilt,
He'll by no means admit you to his presence.
Anders. *Brit. Drama*.—Lord Cromwell, act v.

DWAR. Your fair is now your price: so I was then
advertising, and holy to your business,
Not changing heart with habit, I am still
Attended to your service.

Shakespeare. *Measure for Measure*, act v. sc. 1.

TEA. — Let me *advertise* you;
Your daughter Antony met I on the way,
With Justice Brandle in her company;
Who means to carry her to Pancezo-church.

Ben. Jonson. *Tale of a Tub*, act iii.

When he heard his accusation to be, because he made himself the

ADVER-

TISE.

—

ADVISE.

Son of God, he was the more afraid; he had secret checks from his own conscience, and weighty advertisements from his wife, that doubtless did put him to a great perplexity of mind.

Hale's Contemplations.

It was not easy to persuade those who had trusted Willm so much, and who thought him faithful in all respects, to believe that he could be guilty of so black a treachery: so Morland's advertisement was looked on as an artifice to create jealousy.

Barnes's Own Time.

Then, as a cunning prince that needs spies,
If they return no news, doth nothing know;
But if they make advertisement of lies,
The prince's council all away do go.

Sir John Denham, Immortality of the Soul, sect. xxxii.

The great skill in an advertiser is chiefly seen in the style which he makes use of. He is to mention "the universal esteem, or general reputation," of things that were never heard of.

Tatler, No. 224.

Estates are landscapes, put'd upon a while,
Then advertis'd, and auctioneers'd away.

Super. Task. l. iv.

With respect to his own conduct, it seems to be one great object of his discourse, to advertise the Christian world that it is quite a distinct event from the demolition of the Jewish temple.

Halsley's Sermons.

ADVISE, v. To advise is usually derived from the barbarous Latin *advicare* (q. d.), to see to, to look to. Junius suspects that *advicare* is from the German *wissen*, to show, instruct, direct; and the ancient mode of writing the word viz. *aux*, confirms this etymology. From which same source is the Saxon and English, *wise*; to wisse, to wist. Our application of the word is this, viz. to look, listen, or attend to; with care, caution, prudence; to consult, to deliberate, to counsel, to inform.

He charged chaperons, to chasten bare children
And let us *advise* for were here, he wold þei ben gone
For he so spore þe spring squib he children
And so wold þe adv. to wren his alle
Qui peris surge adu. filium.

Faun of Fiers Ploughman, p. 82.

Sir Edwards's out, & oþere al so nek
He arived þe out talpe wel, & þrou Gude's grace,
He hopeid winne a day þe maistris of þe place.

R. Gloucester, p. 558.

pe erchbishop of Wallis acide ys awys,
" Sir," he seide, " get þer ys any man so awys,
" þat beste red þe can rede, Merfyn put ys."

Id. p. 144.

Of werre & of bataille he was fulle anis,
þer woldon sold anisic was non so trewe als þe.

R. Brune, p. 188.

Ten schippes wer dryoen, þorgh lile anisic,
þorgh a tospet ryen, þe schippes lacht þan schent.

Id. p. 148.

Senek among his other wordes wise
Saith, that a man ought him right wel advise,
To whom he giveth his lord or his castel.

And sith I caught anisic me right wel,
To whom I yewe my good away fro me,
Wel moos I kagit anisic me, þarde.

To whom I yewe my lordy, for alway
I wane you wel it is no childes play
To take a wif without anisic.

Chaucer The Merchant's Tale, vol. i. p. 383.

The mayre than abashed with that question, besought the kynge that he myght comen with his leethestre the admeren, and he shalde shewe vnto hym his and his oppynnyons, but y^e kynge seyde he wold here his admeren without more counsaile.

Falgon, p. 349.

When there cometh anytyme a mistrouse best in the town, we reune, and are glad to paye some money to have a sight thereof; but I feare, if we would take vpo thaim self aduisedly, they should see a more mistrouse best never here.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 11. col. l.

Who so glodly halseth the golden aune,
Vnde of daungers aduisedly bath his lounes
Not with luthouse tock, as a den workare,
Nor palser like, wheat thidain may gloue.

Surry.

And also that be right ware,
In what maner he liden his chare,
That be mistake not his gate,
But vpon animent algate
He shalde beare a shier cie.

Geuer. Cos. A. bk. iv.

Amonge the proude there is cuer stryfe, but amonge those that do all thynges with aduise, there is wysdome.

Bible, 1599—Proverbs, chap. xiii.

You knew he wold' o'er perils on an edge,
More likely to fall be than to get o'er;

You were aduic'd his flesh was cobbler
Of wounds and scars: and that his forward spirit
Would lift him where most trade of danger rang'd.

Shakespeare. 2d pt. Henry IV, act i. sc. i.

Adv. — I dare be bound again,
My soul upon the forfeit, that your lord
Will never more break faith aduisedly.

Shakespeare. Mer. of Ten, act v. sc. i.

Rigour is now gone to bed,
And Advice, with scrupulous head,
Strict Age and sour Severity,
With their grave awes in slumber lie.

Milton. Comus.

Whether to confess to a priest be an admirable discipline, and a good instance, instrument, and ministry of repentance, and may serve many good ends in the church, and to the souls of needing persons, it is no part of the question.

Taylor's Dissuasive from Popery.

In the mean time the Britanians, that after flight had againe recovered head, and in their assemblies aduisedly considered their imminent dangers, concluded their submission for the safest remedy.

Speed's Hist. of Gr. Britan.

And herewithal turning about, he wakes,
Lab'ring in spirit, troubl'd with this strange sight,
And mur'd an life, making movement takes,
Of what had pass'd in sleep, an silent night.

Daniel's Civil Wars, book i.

I much thank you for the action you sent me how matters pass thereabouts.

Howell's Letters.

Nor do less certain signs the town advise,
Of milder weather, and serener skies;
The ladies, gayly dress'd, the Mall adorn,
With various dyes, and paint the sunny morn.

Gay. Trivia, book i.

The advice sent over all the country, from their leaders who had settled themselves at Edinburgh, was, that they should do and say nothing that might give a particular distaste.

Barnes's Own Time.

While things are in agitation, private men may modestly tender their thoughts to the consideration of those that are in authority; in whose care it belongeth, in proceeding concerning indifferent things, to proceed with all just circumspection.

Sanderus's Judgment.

Here, free from court-compliances he [N. Charles] walks,
And with himself, his best adviser talks;
How peaceful olive may his temples shade,
For pleasing laws, and for restoring trade.

Waller. St. James's Park.

The end of pleasant or unpleasant advice, is full of delight; but whenever a pleaser, or a heater of it is, there danger is also.

Sir Wm. Jones's Dissertation.

May breach of friendship be in the mansion of the enemies; and may every wicked adviser, detected in time, be dragged continually to perdition; but may every man of virtue enjoy all prosperity; and may every boy delight in pleasing and useful instruction!

Id.

ADVISE.

ADULA.
—ADULT.

ADULA, in Ancient Geography, a mountain of the Alps, in Rhætia, said to be the highest in Europe, in which are the sources of the Rhine, Rhone, Nantz, Tesin, and Aa. It is the modern St. Gothard. Adula is also a name given to a mountain of Navarre, in Spain.

ADULATION, *n.* } *Adulator*: perhaps from *ad-*
ADULATOR, } *adulo*, Dorice *pro* *glaucos*, from
γλαυκός, *surcis*, sweet; *ἱκανός* (says Vossius) *valet idem*
ac *glaucos*, sive, *bysanina* *ac* *suavis* *verbis* *utor*. "To
use well placed words of glowing courtship."

To gloss, to flatter, to give unmerited or excessive respect, approbation, or applause.

When her came to man's estate, her exercised foates of knight-
hood, her bowed discipline, and hated adulation.

Golden Booke, p. 3.

While each perle laboureth too her chiefe fastener, *adulation*
shall then have more place then plain and faithful advice, of which
saute under cause the euill bringynge vp of the prince, whose mynde
to tender youth infecte shall redely fall to mischiefe and riewe, and
dewe downe this noble realm to rine.

Hell, p. 544.

There he beheld how humbly diligent

New adulation was, to be at hand;

How ready falsehood slept; how slowly went

These pack-thrash flattery, and prevents command.

Daniel's Civil Wars, b. ii.

Without the least adulation, we are bound to prefer this worthy
Peer [William Cecil] his own election; whether he will be pleased
to repose himself under BENEFICE to the PERIL, all Eng-
land in that age being beholden to his loyalty, acknowledging, under
God and the Queen, their prosperity the fruit of his prudence. Or
else he may rest himself under the title of LAWYER.

Feller's Worthies. *Lincolnshire*.

Flattery corrupts both the receiver and the giver; and adulation
is not of more service to the people than to kings.

Burke on the French Revolution.

Less the foundation of the king's exclusive legal title should pass
for a mere man of ordinary freedom, the political divine proceeds
dogmatically to assert, that by the principles of the revolution the
people of England have acquired three fundamental rights. *Id.*

ADULE, or **ADULIS**, in Ancient Geography, a town
of Ethiopia, built by fugitive slaves of Egypt, distant
from its port on the Red Sea twenty stadia, and from
Axum about fifty leagues. Ptolemy calls the inhabitants
Adulites, and represents Adule as the place whence
the Ethiopians chiefly exported ivory, and other articles
of commerce. Dr. Vincent thinks it the same with
Massauh, the proper entrance into Abyssinia.

ADULT, *a.*

Ad: *oleto*; *adultus*, grown up

ADULT, *adj.*

To. *Adoleo* proprie est *crecere*.

ADULTED.

Vox.

One who is grown up—to manhood or maturity.

Now that we are not only *adulted*, but entire Christians, I be-
lieve the most acceptable sacrifice we can send up to Heaven, is
prayer and praise; and that sermons are not so essential to either of
them as the true practice of devotion.

Hewell's Letters.

His province should be to superintend the moral and spiritual
concerns of the slaves, to take upon himself the religious instruction
of the adult negroes, and to take particular care that all the negro
children are taught to read.

Forten's Essay on the Civilization of Negro Slaves.

The Holy Ghost here witnesses, by the acknowledgment of the in-
fant Jesus, made, by the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, by the
mouths of his servants and instructors Simeon and Anna; and more
directly, by his visible descent upon the adult Jesus at his baptism.

Hewell's Sermons.

So language in the mouths of the adult,

Witness its insignificant result,

Too often proves an impediment of play,

A toy to sport with, and pass time away.

Cropper's Conversation.

ADULT BAPTISM. See **BAPTISM**.

ADULT SCHOOLS. The present may justly be re-
garded as an age of benevolence during; in which, no
greater satisfied implicitly to follow the footsteps of
their predecessors, individuals combining and con-
centrating their energies, have struck into new paths, and
most adventurously, but must wisely, have occupied
hitherto untrodden fields of labour. Till the com-
mencement of the nineteenth century, the proposal to
form schools of instruction for the grown up children
of a former generation, would assuredly have excited
ridicule rather than respect; and nothing could have
furnished a finer subject for declamatory banter than
the imagined scene of a village school, consisting of
honey-headed disciples, and boys of fifty and three-
score;—shrivelled fingers grasping the horn-book—eyes
begirt with spectacles, poring over A, B, C,—and
grandames sitting at the feet of experienced instructors
of sixteen. This, however, is no longer a subject for
ridicule, but for congratulation; and a system of edu-
cation applicable to persons of adult age, which had
hitherto been wholly overlooked or set down as im-
practicable, has been pursued upon an extensive scale,
and with very considerable success. Difficulties which
at a distance appeared formidable, have vanished upon a
nearer approach, and both the juvenile and mature poor
population of the empire are now placed in a situation
to receive those educational advantages, which, there is
reason to believe, will not only prove conducive to the
welfare of the recipients themselves, but most beneficial
in their influence upon the civil and moral interests of
the whole community.

The first school for the exclusive instruction of adult persons,
was opened in the summer of 1811, in North school
Wales, through the efforts of the Rev. T. Charles, Epis-
copal Minister of Bala, Merionethshire, who has since
stated, that the original reason of his attempting this
benevolent measure, was the aversion which he had
observed in adults to associate with children in their
schools. The success of the undertaking was, very
considerable; multitudes in every district repaired to
the chapel, or other places appropriated to the purpose,
for instruction, and the most beneficial results were
every where observable. Mr. Charles's own account is
as follows:

"My maxim has been for many years just to aim at
great things; but if I cannot accomplish great things,
to do what I can, and be thankful for the least success,
and still to follow on without being discouraged at the
day of small things, or by unexpected reverses. For
many years I have laid it down as a maxim to guide me,
never to give up a plan in despair of success. If
one way does not succeed, new means must be tried;
and if I see no increase this year, perhaps I may the
next. I almost wish to blot out the word *impossible*
from my vocabulary, and obliterate it from the minds
of my brethren. We had no particular school for
the instruction of adults *exclusively*, till the summer of
1811; but many attended the Sunday schools with the
children, in different parts of the country, previous to
that time. What induced me first to think of estab-
lishing such an institution, was the aversion I found
in the adults to associate with the children in their
schools. The first attempt succeeded wonderfully, and
far beyond my most sanguine expectations. The report
of the success of this school soon spread over the
country, and in many places the illiterate adults began

ADULT.

ADULT. to call for instruction. In one county, after a public address had been delivered to them on the subject, the adult poor, even the aged, flocked to the Sunday school in crowds; and the shop-keepers could not immediately supply them with an adequate number of spectacles. Our schools, in general, are kept in our chapels: in some districts, where there are no chapels, farmers, in the summer time, lend their barns. The adults and children are sometimes in the same room, but placed in different parts of it. When their attention is gained and fixed, they soon learn; their age makes no difference, if they are able, by the help of glasses, to see the letters. *As the adults have no time to lose, we endeavour (before they can read) to instruct them without delay, in the first principles of Christianity.* We select a short portion of Scripture, comprising the leading doctrines, and repeat them to the learners, till they can retain them in their memories; and which they are to repeat the next time we meet."

Origin of the Bristol adult schools.

Contemporaneously with these proceedings, but wholly independent of them, and indeed at the time without any knowledge of their existence, were the efforts of certain individuals in England directed to the same object, at Bristol. At an anniversary meeting of the Bible Society, a letter was read from Keynasham, stating, that in the distributions of the Bible, several poor families had been omitted, owing to their incapacity to read, from which it had been deemed needless to supply them. This awakened the attention, and prompted the immediate interference of W. Smith, who concerted measures with Mr. Stephen Prust, through whose kind encouragements he hastened to commence his work in the out-parish of St. Philip and Jacob, with the assistance of two companions. Rooms were immediately obtained, and scholars came forward to avail themselves of the opportunity to learn to read the Scriptures. "The successful exertions of William Smith," says Dr. Pole (*Hist. of the Origin and Progress of Adult Schools*), "have proved him to be a well-wisher to his country, and to mankind at large, and strikingly evince to us, that neither a humble station in life, nor the want of an extended education, preclude the sincere Christian from imparting usefulness to his fellow-creatures. This estimable man, who, through divine Providence, has been made so great a blessing to the indigent in society, occupies a rank in life no higher than that of a door-keeper of a Dissenting chapel in this city, for a salary of eighteen shillings per week; out of which he pays three shillings, to have a part of his work done by another person, for the purpose of setting himself more at liberty to perform the duties dictated by that Christian philanthropy, which animates his heart, and guides his footsteps to the haunts of sorrow, the abodes of sickness and of want. This is the person who collected the learners, engaged the teachers, and opened the first two schools in England for instructing adults exclusively, in borrowed rooms, and with borrowed books."

Not many weeks elapsed before a society was formed under the patronage of a few individuals, having for its designation, "An Institution for Instructing Adult Persons to read the Holy Scriptures;" and on the publication of the first report, dated April 19, 1813, it appeared that two hundred and twenty-two men and two hundred and thirty-one women were receiving education.

The Society of Friends, or Quakers, contributed

during this year, their extensive and powerful co-operation; and in addition to their personal and pecuniary assistance, offered the school-room, adjoining their place of worship, gratuitously, for the Bristol Adult School Society, where only the scholars were taught the art of writing, in addition to that of reading. Although this appeared some deviation from the original plan, and excited some apprehensions in the minds of several of the committee, its evident importance at length conciliated their agreement with the measure.

The system of public adult tuition has been since somewhat modified, both at Bristol and in other places, in conformity with the very natural accession of the grown up poor to an exposure of their incapacities. The plan of private schools has accordingly been adopted, by which a few neighbours are associated together, and taught at their own habitations, or in a private manner at some convenient place. A very pleasing story is recorded of the eagerness which a poor man displayed to be taught to read the Scriptures, and there is good reason to believe, that similar feelings are every where prevalent. Joseph Ingram was seen in much distress in Ann-street, Bristol, with a wife and two small children. Not being able to procure work a considerable part of the winter, they were reduced to great poverty. This case was visited and relieved, until the man was employed by some builders as a mason's labourer; but in a few days he met with a severe accident by a block of freestone falling on his hand, which was dreadfully bruised, and one of his fingers nearly torn away. He was admitted an out-patient to the Infirmary, but his parish being remote, he applied again to the Stranger's Friend Society, who visited him, and recommended his case to the Samaritan Society for more effectual relief. The visitors, on calling a second time, found the poor man, though afflicted with great pain, and all the aggravations of cheerless poverty, was gone to an adult school to learn to read the Holy Scriptures.

Adult schools have, since this period, been established in various parts of the kingdom; at Plymouth, Salisbury, Uxbridge, Sheffield, Norwich, Ipswich, and other places; and these examples of benevolence have not been disregarded or unimitated by the metropolis.

The simplicity of the principle upon which these institutions are founded, whose object is to provide for the instruction of the adult poor, affords a considerable pledge of their success and extension. No feelings of party are allowed to predominate in this benevolent system, or at least they have no opportunity of display. The purpose to do good is adhered to with the utmost scrupulousness, and having taught the objects of the charity to read the Scriptures, they are left to the free and uncontrolled exercise of the right of private judgment as to their meaning and design. No authoritative imposition of a creed is attempted; there is no insistence upon the subject of public worship, as to place or denomination. As the different Committees in the respective towns and districts, where schools are established, consist of persons of various religious persuasions, each is necessarily required to waive the assertion of his own peculiarities, in order to that general union which the common cause of adult education demands; and consequently instruction is neither obstructed by the folly of discord, nor depraved by the asperities of controversy.

ADULT.

Private schools.

Co-operation of the Quakers.

ADULT. That great practical good has already been accomplished by these societies, cannot surely be doubted. In many well attested instances the moral habits of the poor have been improved, in consequence of the impressions they have received from the inspired volume they had been taught to read, and advised to study. They have exchanged intemperance for sobriety; dissoluteness, for domestic peacefulness and kindness; blasphemy, for inoffensive language; and the profanation of the Sabbath, with its concomitant evils, for a regular attendance on the ordinances of religion.

Effects.

"If," says Dr. Pole, "those who knew the late condition of the wretched inhabitants of the Cock-road, that fountain of impurity, and den of thieves, (about four miles from Bristol), disgraced to a civilised country, were, to visit it now, on the first day of the week, at the time of holding the schools, they would be witnesses of an evident change already produced, where they have been opened for instruction not more than a few months. The very place where several parish roads, or rather lanes, meet, called by them the exchange, the spot where the gangs of robbers have been accustomed to assemble, to deliberate upon, and to settle their plans of nocturnal depredation, is now the ground where the poor of that district collect to worship their great Creator: it is there the tears of contrition wash the wrinkled cheeks of age, and the supplications of sinners ascend to the God of mercy for pardon through Christ Jesus, their all-sufficient Mediator. I am far from intending by the foregoing description, to assert that this is not still the place of rendezvous for men who have long been the terror of the surrounding country, and the spot where they assemble to share the spoils of those depredations. I can by no means say the robbers themselves are reclaimed, but in there not reason at least to hope that this may ultimately be the case, when we see their wives, their children, and their less iniquitous neighbours, eager to promote and extend these schools, and the worship of that God, at whose tribunal they must shortly appear? The learners are also much more decent in their appearance, and decorous in their deportment. If these unsupplanted creatures, who live by stealing, are not themselves reformed, the visible improvement already produced, cannot but afford us a consoling hope, that succeeding generations will be happily preserved from sinking into the same deplorable state of moral turpitude."

This field of labour is wide, and comparatively at present but little cultivated. What has already been done for the adult poor, is trifling, in the view of the Christian philanthropist, who takes an extended survey of what yet remains to be accomplished. It has been found that there exist in England one million two hundred thousand adults who have never been taught to read! In the Highlands, and islands of Scotland, the first annual report of the society in Edinburgh, for the support of the Gaelic school, states, that nearly three hundred thousand individuals are unable to read. In some districts inhabited by those of the poor, who usually migrate to the south in harvest, to reap the fields, not one in sixty, in others, not one in a hundred, and in a few instances, not one in several hundreds can read. In tracts of ten or twelve miles, not an individual is to be found capable of reading either English or Gaelic; and these are situated from fourteen to twenty-five miles distant from the parish church.

In the report of the committee of the Edinburgh society, issued in November 1811, the following statement is given. "The returns made by the clergymen of different parishes, fully confirm all that has been feared by individuals belonging to the society. This will appear by the mention of a few parishes, their population, and the number incapable of reading in each.

"On the main land.

In the parish of Fearn, out of 1,500, 1,300 are unable to read.

Gairloch . . . 2,945, 2,549 . . do. . .

Lochbroom . . . 4,000, 3,300 . . do. . .

"In the islands.

In the parish of Kilmuir, Skye 3,056, 2,718 . . do. . .

. Stornaway, Lewis 4,000, 2,800 . . do. . .

. Harris 3,000, 2,900 . . do. . .

. North Uist 4,000, 3,800 . . do. . .

"Thus, out of 22,501, 19,367 are incapable of reading either English or Gaelic; and many other parishes might be mentioned in a state equally destitute. Connected with this melancholy fact, it must be observed that the proportion who are able to read, reside in or near the district where a school is taught; but in the remote glens, or subordinate islands of almost every parish, few or none can be found who know even the letters."

The benevolent exertions of Great Britain in the line of adult instruction, soon excited the attention of transatlantic Christians. In a letter from Mrs. Bethune, the lady of Davie Bethune, of New York, esq.; dated July 13, 1814, addressed to Mr. Prust, was given the first intimation of her desire to see an adult school; and of the practicability of such a measure. From other communications received from Philadelphia, it appears that similar sentiments prevailed about the same period in that city, and that what the liberal mind devised, the active hand achieved. In February 1816, Mr. Bethune writes a very pleasing account of the proceedings at New York, particularly of the active party of females. He states that the second meeting, held a week after the first, was so crowded attended, that they were necessitated to adjourn from a lecture room to a church, and that at length male and female vied with each other in zeal and benevolence. Amongst others is a school of *black adults*.

ADULTER, v.

ADULTERATE, v.

ADULTERATE, adj.

ADULTERATION,

ADULTERER,

ADULTERESS,

ADULTERINE,

ADULTEROUS,

ADULTEROUSLY,

ADULTERY.

Adulterer and adulteress are so called, because the former betakes himself to another woman (*ad alteram*), and the latter to another man (*ad alterum*). Festus.

In our elder writers the words are written *ad- or a- adulter*, *voultre*, *voultre*.

The old English words are, spousebreach, spousebreaker, wedlock-breaking. The examples furnish the explanation.

Adulterate, adulteration, and adulterine, are applied consequently to that which changes to another, but a worse state or condition; which destroys the integrity, which sullies the purity.

get alle hater hater wien y served so.
Me scholde fynde he les such spouse breche do.

R. Gloucester, p. 86.

An yeel lyndrede and a spouse brecher skith a tokene, and a tokene schol not be given to it.

Wicif. Matt. chap. xix.

ADULT.

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Therefore using the punishment of adultery is a meane that a me can not chuse, let every man consayde by hym selfe, how kisse another man wold be therof, and let him not touche another man wyfe, so shal his sin not be needful withall.

Concubine's Christian State of Matrimony, fol. 38, col. 1.

Yf a married man bringe a mortal accuser vnto another man, for anye filthy acte that he should haue committed with his wife, and counsell him therof, the same adulterer shal with the sword be punished vnto death, according to y^e statute of the lawes imperiall.

Id. fol. 39, col. 2.

For besides that the adulterers altereth the inheritance, and with false penyances, & shamefull disceit withholdeth and stealeth it fro the right heires, the lawfull first hye honest poore husbande with great shame, great trouble, labour, sorrow & paine, in that he is faine to bring vp those adulterous children, which are not his owne.

Id. fol. 42, col. 1.

But if it be determined by Iudgment that our marriage [Th. VIII. and Queen Catherine,] was against Goddies law, and cherefully voyde, then I shall not ouerly sorrowe the departing from so good a body and loving companion, but much more lament and bewaile my unfortunate clamour, that I haue so long lived in adultery to Goddies great displeasure, and haue no true heyre of my body to inherit this realm.

Id. fol. 755.

Was I not gouernour, and chief lecher there,
The time quen that the Troiane adulteress
Embroider'd the clete of Sparta,
And the quene Eleue rich and brecht awa?

Douglas, book x, p. 316, *Æneid*.

Was I the cause of mischief, or the man
Whose lawless lust the fatal way began?
Think on whose faith th' adulterous youth rely'd;
Who promis'd, who press'd the Spartan bride?

Dryden, *ib.*

It was in that point like unto the church y^e Jewes had against the coming of Christ, infected by many false folke wth false doctrine, & the scripture adulterate & vicke with false gosses and wrong explications.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 636, col. 2.

Wherefore he wrote longely vnto hym, that he should vicerly leaue of any further to followe the newe attempted enterprise aduertising him and protesting agaynst that the enuyring and wrongfull withholding of an other mans possession, was not to ryle and slander, as the defying of a pure and chaste bed, and adulterously keeping the wife of his Christian brother. *Gifford*, vol. 1, p. 360.

If an alchymist should shew us howe coloured like gold, and made poudrous, and so adulterate that it would confound the touchstone for a long while, the deceptor is, because there is a pretence of improper accident.

Taglio's Discourse of the Real Presence of Christ in the Holy Sacrament.

— In the blossom of my youth,
When my first fire knew no aduise'nt increase,
Nor I no way to daine it, but my foolishness.

Menager, *Very Woman*, act. iv.

To make the compound pass for the rich metal simple, is an adulteration, or counterfeiting. *Bacon*, *Nat. Hist.*

If the church should acknowledge her self to be the spouse of any other but of Christ, she were a person where and adulterate.

Knox's Hat of the Reformation, *Prof.*

A base apothecary, that administers the physic, and makes the medicine, may do infinite harm, by his old obsolete doses, adulterary drags, bad mixtures, &c.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

The present war has so adulterated our tongue with strange words, that it would be impoissible for one of our great-grandfathers to know what his posterity have been doing, were he to read their exploits in a modern news-paper.

Spectator, N^o 45.

We have well proved, that Leucippus and Democritus were not the first inventors, but only the deprecaters and adulterators of the stoical philosophy.

Cadellus's Intellectual System.

The printer's discipline allowed not adulterers the communion of the church, till their last hour.

Cowley's Companies to the Temple.

Custom, habit, the desire of novelty, and a thousand other causes, confound, encheate, and change our palates.

Burke, on the Sublime.

ADULTERATION. Various statutes against the adulteration of coffee, tea, tobacco, wine, and the

VOL. XVII.

ADULT.

necessaries of life, have been thought needful by the legislature of England; they may be found in stat. 23 Eliz. cap. viii.; 13 W. III. cap. v.; 1 W. and M. cap. xxiv.; 10 Anne cap. xxvi.; 1 Geo. I. cap. xvi.; 11 Geo. I. cap. xxx.; 3 Geo. III. cap. xi. Coins are adulterated in various ways: as, by forging another inscription; by mixing a wrong metal with the gold or silver, or by making the alloy too great. Evelyn has given rules both for adulterating and detecting adulterated metals. The ancients punished this crime with great severity. The emperor Tacitus decreed the counterfeiting of coin to be a capital offence; and under Constantine it was made treason, which it now is in Great Britain. Among the Egyptians, both hands were cut off; and by the civil law, the offender was thrown to wild beasts. Adulterating gems is a curious art, the methods of detecting which are important. Consult *Nichol's Lapid.* p. 18. For an account of the adulteration of wine, see *BECKMANN'S Hist. of Inventions*, vol. i. p. 306.

ADULTERY, in Civil Law, the child of an adulterous intercourse. Adulterine children are considered as more odious than any other illegitimate offspring. The Roman law refused them the title of natural children; as if they were disowned by nature; and various obstacles were interposed by the canons to their admission into the church.

ADULTERY. Mankind, in almost all ages of the world, and in all civilised countries, have regarded the violation of the marriage bed with feelings of abhorrence. It has been punished by various methods, and in different degrees, according to the general manners and morals of the country; sometimes with extreme and even cruel severity; in other instances, with capricious and ridiculous penalties.

By the Jewish law, adultery was punished with death: which was the case also, as Strabo asserts, in Arabia Felix. Among the ancient Egyptians the practice was unfrequent; but where it did occur, a thousand lashes with rods were inflicted upon the man, and the woman was deprived of her nose.

In Greece this was a crime which the laws treated with great severity. The rich were sometimes allowed to redeem themselves by a fine; in which case, the woman's father returned the dowry he had received from her husband, which some suppose was refunded by the adulterer. A frequent punishment was putting out the eyes.

According to Homer, adulterers were stoned to death; a punishment which was denominated *laion* *xenon*, a stone coat. By the laws of Draco and Solon, adulterers, when caught in the act, were at the mercy of the offended party. Adulteresses were prohibited in Greece, from appearing in fine garments and entering the temples. A remarkable story is recorded of Zaleucus, the law-giver of the Locrians, who was distinguished for his rigorous execution of the law against adultery. His own son having been guilty, he determined to deprive him of his sight, and long continued unmoved from his purpose by the earnest and reiterated entreaties of the people. Considering the crime, however, as one that ought not to be forgiven, he submitted to the painful operation of losing one of his own, in order to redeem one of his son's eyes; after which time, it is said, the crime of adultery was unknown in this state. *Val. Max.* l. vi. cap. 5.

8

ADULT.

Some suppose this offence was made capital by a law of Romulus, and again by the twelve tables. Others, that it was first made capital by Augustus; and others, not till the reign of the emperor Constantine. The fact is, that the punishment was left to the discretion of the husband and parents of the adulterous wife, who acted without any formal authority from the magistrate. The most usual mode of taking revenge was mutilating, castrating, or cutting off the ears, or noses. The punishment allotted by the *lex Julia de adulteriis*, instituted by Augustus, was banishment, or a heavy fine. It was decreed by Antoninus that the charge of adultery brought against a wife by her husband, could not be sustained unless he were innocent himself, "per iniquum enim videtur esse ut pudicitiam vir ex uxore exigat, quam ipse non exhibeat." Under Maximian, adulterers were burnt at a stake. Under Constantius and Constans, they were burned or sewed in sacks, and thrown into the sea. But the punishment was mitigated under Leo and Marcian to perpetual banishment, or cutting off the nose; and under Justinian, the wife was only to be scourged, lose her dowry, and be shut up in a monastery; at the expiration of two years the husband might take her again; if he refused, she was shaven and made a nun for life. Theodosius instituted the shocking practice of public castration, which was again soon abolished by the same prince.

In Crete adulterers were covered with wool as an emblematical representation of their effeminacy, and were carried in that dress to the magistrate's house, where a fine was imposed upon them, and they were deprived of all their privileges and their share in public business.

The punishment in use among the Magrellians is the forfeiture of a hog, which is usually eaten in good friendship between the gullant, the adulteress, and the cuckold. In some parts of India, it is said any man's wife may prostitute herself for an elephant, and it is reputed no small glory to her to have been rated so high. Adultery is stated to be so frequent in Ceylon, that there is scarcely a wife but practises it, though it is punishable with death. Among the Japanese, and other nations, adultery is only penal in the woman. Among the Abyssinians, the crime of the husband is punished on the innocent wife. On the contrary, in the Marian islands, the woman is not punishable, but the man, and the wife and her relations waste his lands, turn him out of his house, &c. Among the Chinese, adultery is not capital, for fond parents will make a contract with the future husbands of their daughters to allow them the indulgence of a gallant. In Portugal an adulteress is condemned to the flames, but the sentence is seldom executed. By the ancient laws of France this crime was punishable with death. In Spain the men suffered the loss of the instrument of the crime. In Poland, previous to the establishment of Christianity, the criminal was carried to the marketplace, and there fastened by the testicles with a nail; laying a razor within his reach, and leaving him under the necessity, either of doing justice upon himself, or of perishing in that condition.

The Saxons consigned the adulteress to the flames, and over her ashes erected a gibbet, on which the adulterer was hanged. King Edmund, the Saxon, ordered adultery to be punished in the same manner

as homicide; and Canute the Dane ordered that the offender should be banished, and the woman have her nose and ears cut off. In the time of Henry I. it was punished with the loss of eyes and genitals. Adultery is in England considered a spiritual offence, cognizable by the spiritual courts, where it is punished by fine and penance. The common law only allows the party aggrieved an action and damages.

In Scotland a distinction is made between *notore*, or when the parties live openly together, and *simple* adultery. The former by an act in 1563, cap. lxxix. was rendered capital; the punishment of the latter is left to the discretion of the judge. Both in England and Scotland this crime is a sufficient ground of divorce. In England the adulterous parties are permitted to marry after a divorce, which is prohibited by the law of Scotland.

The Mohammedan code pronounces adultery a capital offence, and one of the three crimes which the prophet directs to be expiated by the blood of a Mussulman.

Adultery, considered in a moral point of view, must be allowed to be a violation of some of the first and most important duties of life. Whatever security the marriage-contract affords for the education of children, and the preservation of families, in their honours and properties, is daringly broken by this crime; to which the baseness of seduction is commonly added: and however the laws or customs of the particular community to which she may belong, may dispose of the adulteress, from the destruction of her moral principles which attends this outrage, she rarely rises in character. Upon no crime is the language of scripture more explicit; and in almost all the catalogues of crimes which are given us in the New Testament, "adulterers" are declared to be excluded from the kingdom of God.

From the importance which is so justly attached to home-virtues in England, it is truly astonishing that adultery should be visited with no severe penalties by the law; it is a crime which, under the present system of attaching to it a mere pecuniary inconvenience, has been alarmingly on the increase. Many well-educated foreigners have expressed their surprise at this circumstance.

ADULTERY, among ecclesiastical writers, is used for a person's intruding into a bishopric during the lawful bishop's life. It is so called, because a bishop is supposed to contract a kind of spiritual marriage with his church.

ADULTERY has been applied, among ancient naturalists, to the art of ingrafting one plant upon another.

ADUMBRATE, *v.* { *Ad:* *umbrā.* To shade.
ADUMBRATION. } To shadow out; a description or delineation; and consequently to describe or delineate.

By the subject are paraphrased the writings of our modern saints in Great Britain, as they have spiritualised and refined them, from the gross and grossness of sense and human reason.

Sage's Tale of a Tub. Introduction.

We must be cautious, that, in making the comparison, we mistake not a hideously distorted picture for a finished likeness—a disfigured for an embellished copy: lest we be inadvertently and involuntarily restricted to the impure and blasphemous fictions of idleness—to her obscene and savage story, as nothing worse than elegant embellishments of sacred truth in significant allegory.

Boswell's Sermons.

ADUMMIM, in Scripture Geography, a town in the tribe of Benjamin, near Jericho. The mountain of the

ADULT.

ADUM-
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AD-
MUM.
ADVOCATE.

same name Dr. Shaw assigns to the tribe of Judah, through which he says it cut the road-way which leads from Jerusalem to Jericho; it is a difficult pass, and the word may signify, the bloody road or mountain, with reference, perhaps, to its being infested by robbers. SHAW'S *Travels*, vol. ii. p. 276.

ADUNATION. Ad: *nous*. To one. Obsolete and needless. Collecting, uniting, gathering into one.

Hereby, or blasphemy, may creep without possibility of prevention; hith to external forms to exterminate the face of the more common spirits; nor any alignment to persuade and entice its adherents; nor any means of education and uniformity amongst its confidants.

Taylor's Apology for authorized and set Forms of Liturgie. Pref.

ADUN'CITY, } Ad: *nous*. Crooked, or
ADUN'QUE, } hooked.
Crookedness, bent so as to hold like a hook.

Parrots have an *adunque* bill. *Bac. Nat. Hist.*

The *adunquity* of the pinnaces and bows of the hanks, is the cause of the great and habitual immorality of those animals.

Pope. Marston Scrib.

ADVOCATE, v. } Ad: *roco*, to call to.
ADVOCATE, n. } An advocate, is one called to
ADVOCACY, } to give his advice, assistance,
ADVOCATESHIP, } patronage; to give the aid of
ADVOCATES, } his talents and knowledge,
ADVOCATION, } particularly in pleading a
cause at law.

Advocacies is applied by Chaucer to a call or summons to answer an accusation.

O thou that art so fair and full of grace,
Be thou not advocat in that high place,
Ther as withouten crime is seignour Anne,
Thou Cristes mother, daughter dre of Anne.

Chaucer. The Second Nocturnal Tale, vol. ii. p. 204.

but if any man syneth, he hath an advocat mennis the felle leas crist, and he is the forgyverse for our synes.

Wiclif. 1. Jon. ch. ii.

And yf any man synne we have an advocat with the father Jesu Christ the ryghteous, & he it is y^e obeyneth grace for our synes.

Bible, 1539. ff.

Be thou an *advocate*, and stande in iudgment thy selfe, to speake for all such as be domme and accursed.

Bible, 1539. Prov. chap. xxv.

Be ye not ware how false iudgement
Is now about effources for to pierce,
And bring on you *advocates* new.

Chaucer. 2d book of Troilus, fol. 163, col. 2.

After it had been advocated, and mov'd for by some honorable and learned gentlemen of the house, to be call'd a combination of libelling separatists, and the *advocates* thereof to be branded for incendiaries; whether this speech met the judgment and approbation of the parliament, I leave to equal arbiters.

Milton's Antidote against the Remonstrants' Defence, &c.

Dos. They have alleg'd

As touch to make your deapring mercy, Sir,

As all the *advocates* of France can plead

In his defence.

Reverent and Fletcher. Leece's Progress, act v.

Christ is not [says Antoninus, arch-bishop of Florence.] our *advocate* alone, but a judge: and since the just is aware secure, how shall a sinner go in him, as in an *advocate*? Therefore God hath provided us of an *advocate*, who is gentle, and sweet, in whom nothing is that is sharp to be found.

Taylor's Discourse from Popery.

Poe. Leave your *advocateship*,

Except that we shall call you Oration Fly,

And send you down to the dresser, and the dishes.

Ben Jonson. New Jon, act. ii.

The mysteriousness of Christ's priesthood, the perfection of his sacrifice, and the unity of it, Christ's intercession and intercession for

as in heaven, might very well be accounted trifling, before Saint Paul's Epistle to the Hebrews was admitted for canonical.

Taylor on Traditions.

Our poet, something doubtful of his fate,
Made choice of me to be his *advocate*,
Relying on my knowledge in the law;
And I as boldly undertook the cause.

Dryden's Epit. to Mankind Quen.

Whichever dishonesty the *advocate* of religion has been either justly or unjustly charged with, the supporters of it have given full proof, at least of their inclination not to come short of them.

Sherker's Sermons.

They're native still, and will not be conceal'd,
Ere ever each charis betrays him, and breaks
An *advocate*, whose silent eloquence
Fights 'gainst thy voice, and tells thy fearful power.

Mason's Elfride.

ADVOCATE, a pleader, or one who undertakes the defence of causes at the bar. The term *barrister at law* is used in England to express the same avocation, and in court the advocates are usually termed *counsel*. The profession of an advocate was anciently held in high esteem among the Romans. Whoever aspired to honours and offices, endeavoured to interest the people by pleading *gratis*. But when luxury and corruption began to prevail, their zeal and eloquence, being sold to the highest bidder, rapidly degenerated. The tribune Cincius procured a law, called from him *Lex Cincia*, to prohibit the advocates from taking money of their clients. The emperor Augustus had indeed annexed a penalty to such a proceeding; but the advocates managed so well, that the emperor Claudius considered it an extraordinary triumph when he obliged them to take only eight grain sesterces, about 64 l. sterling, for each cause. Nero attempted to revive the *Lex Cincia*, or at least recommended it to the senate; and Alexander Severus paid the provincial advocates from the public purse, on condition of their receiving nothing from their clients. Constantine banished extortionate advocates from the bar, but countenanced something like the modern practice.

ADVOCATES. Faculty of, a society of lawyers in Scotland, who enjoy the exclusive privilege of pleading before the supreme courts. They founded a library in 1660, the plan of which was suggested by Sir George Mackenzie, of Rosehaugh, advocate to King Charles II. who was himself a large contributor of books. The whole collection was destroyed by fire in 1700, but since that period, it has increased so considerably, as to contain at present the best collection of law books in Europe; besides a great variety of original manuscripts, coins, and medals.

A candidate for admission into the Faculty of Advocates, must undergo an examination in Latin, upon the civil law, and Greek and Roman antiquities, and, a year afterwards, in English, upon the municipal law of Scotland; then he is required to defend a Latin thesis, and, finally, makes a short speech in Latin to the lords, when he takes the oath to the government and *de fide*. At the first institution of the College of Justice, in 1537, there were only ten members; previous to which time the barons usually appeared in the causes of their vassals. The Faculty now numbers about 300 members.

ADVOCATE, in Church History, is particularly used to denote a person appointed to defend the rights and revenues of a church. The word *advocatus*, or *advocatus*, is still employed for *patron*.

ADVO-
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AD-
VOWEE.

Feudal ADVOCATES were a military class, whose services the church endeavoured to secure, by giving them lands in fee, which they held by doing homage to the bishop or abbot. They were the standard-bearers of the churches, and were to superintend all its military expeditions.

Judicial ADVOCATES, in feudal times, were those who, from attending causes in the court of the count of the province, became themselves judges, holding courts of their vassals thrice a year.

Matricular ADVOCATES, were the advocates of the cathedral churches.

Military ADVOCATES were appointed in times of public confusion for the defence of the church, by authority and force, ecclesiastics not being permitted to bear arms, and the scholastic advocates being unacquainted with them recourse was had to persons of rank, princes, knights, noblemen, as well as soldiers.

Supreme or Sovereign ADVOCATES, had the authority in chief, but acted by deputies. Kings sometimes belonged to this class, either by being chosen advocates, or becoming such as founders or endowers of churches.

ADVOCATE, Lord or King's, the chief crown lawyer in Scotland, whose business it is to conduct public prosecutions. The powers of this officer surpass those of all the grand juries in England, for he is competent in capital crimes to restrict the sentence to what is called an arbitrary punishment; or a punishment, not extending to death, at the discretion of the judge. This office was established about the commencement of the 16th century. At the circuit courts he acts by deputy.

ADVOCATION, in Scots Law, a form of appealing from an inferior to the supreme court, or court of session. If the sum be less than twelve pounds, the cause cannot be removed by advocacy, except on the plea of incompetency on the part of the inferior judge. Delay or injustice is a sufficient plea for advocacy.

ADVOWEE, in Ancient Customs, the advocate of a church or religious house, as a cathedral, abbey, monastery, &c. Sometimes it signifies a person who has a right to present to a church living. Charlemagne had the title of advowee of St. Peter's, which the people conferred upon him for having protected Italy against the Lombards. Pope Nicholas constituted king Edward the Confessor, and his successors, advowees of the monastery at Westminster, and of all the churches in England. Advowees were the guardians and administrators of temporal concerns; and under their authority all contracts passed which related to the churches. The command of the forces furnished by their monasteries for war, was entrusted to them. Sometimes there were sub-advowees, who introduced great disorder, and very much contributed to the ruin of the monasteries. The origin of this office is sometimes assigned to the time of Sillicio, in the fourth century; but the Benedictines represent it as commencing so late as the eighth century. Persons of the first rank were gradually introduced into it, as it was found necessary either to defend with arms, or to protect with power and authority. In the course of time every person who took upon him the defence of another, was denominated advowee or advocate. Hence, cities had their advowees, as Angsburgh, Arras, &c. There were also advowees of provinces and countries, as of Alsace, Swabia, Thuringia, &c. Two kinds of eccle-

siastical advowees are mentioned by Spelman; the one of causes or processes, *advocati causarum*; who were nominated by the king, and undertook to plead the causes of the monasteries. The other, of territory or lands, *advocati soli*; sometimes called by their primitive name, advowees, though more usually patrons, were hereditary; as being the founders and endowers of churches, &c.

ADVOWSON, or ADVOWZEN, in Common Law, a right to present to a vacant living in the church of England, synonymous with the term *patronage* in Scotland. The word is derived from the right of presenting having been originally gained by such as were founders or benefactors of the church. The nomination of proper persons to all vacant benefices, was, at first, vested in the bishops; but they readily allowed the founders of churches the nomination of the persons to officiate, only reserving to themselves a right to judge of the qualifications of such persons for the office. Advowsons are *presentive*, where the patron presents a person to the bishop to be instituted in the living; *collative*, where the bishop presents as original patron, or from a right he has acquired by negligence and lapse; *donative*, where the patron puts the person into possession by a single donation in writing.

Formerly, advowsons were appurtenant to manors, and the patrons were parochial barons: the lordship of the manor and the patronage of the church being usually in the same hands, until advowsons were given to religious houses. The lordship of the manor and advowson of the church were afterwards divided. In ancient times, the patron had frequently the sole nomination of the prelate, abbot, or prior; either by investiture, or direct presentation to the diocesan. A free election was left to the religious, but a *coged d'elire*, or license of election, was first to be obtained of the patron, who confirmed the person elected.

Advowson of the moiety of the church is where there are two patrons, and two incumbents, in the same church, each of a moiety respectively. A moiety of the advowson is where two must join the presentation, and there is but one incumbent, stat. 7 Anne, c. 18. Grants of advowsons by papists are void. 9 Geo. II. c. 36, § 5. 11 Geo. II. c. 17, § 5.

Advowsons are temporal inheritances and lay fees; and may be granted by deed or will, and are assets in the hands of executors.

ADURE,
ADUR',
ADUSTED,
ADUSTION.

Ad: *uro, ustum*; to burn.
To burn up, to heat, to scorch,
to parch, wither, or dry, to
harden.

And although, that, to touche and se them withoute, and through the bodies; they were not exceeding hotte nor pale, but that their skynne was as redde colour adustet, full of a lytle thyne maynes.

Arnott's Thesaurus, fol. 57, col. 2.

Raufe, the byshop of Chichester than stode up lyke a praty man, and rebuked the kynge for takyng that trybale, which lyke an adust encyenced by poyrte he called the fyre of dysmayre.

Rale's English Venerie, part II. fol. 42, col. 1.

A degree of heat, which doth neither melt nor scorch, doth mellow and not adure.

Bacon. Nat. Hist.

If natural melancholy abound in the body, which is cold and dry, so that it be more than the body is well able to bear, it must needs be distempred and diseased: and so the other [umatural], if it be depreded, whether it arise from that other melancholy of choler adust, or from blood, produceth the like effects, and is, as Melancholia contends, if it come by adustion of humours, most part hot and dry.

Bartow's Anatomy of Melancholy.

AD-
VOWEE.
—
ADURE.

ADURE.
—
ÆDESSA.

Ambition is like choler; if it can move, it makes men active; if it be stopp'd, it becomes *adust*, and makes men melancholy.

Bacon's Organum Rationalis.

High in front advance'd,
The brandish'd sword of God before them blaz'd,
Fierce as a comet, which with torrid heat,
And vapour, as the Libyan air adust,
Began to parch that temperate clime.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iii.

From hence we dream of wars, and wailful things,
And swapa and hornets with their dewy wings.
Choler adust congeals our blood with fear,
Then black bulls turn us, and black devils fear.

Dryden's Cock & Fox.

Arabia's scorching sands he crost,
Where blasted nature pants supine;
Conductor of her tribes adust
To freedom's adamantine shrine.

Smollett's Ode to Independence.

In shirt of hair, and wreath of cypress dress'd,
Girt with a belt-strap that the paper has bleas'd,
Adust with stripes told out for every crime,
And sore tormented, long before his time.

Couper's Truth.

ADY, in Natural History, the name of the palm-tree of the island of St. Thomas, having a thick, bare, upright stem, growing single on its root, of a light timber, and full of juice, which the natives obtain by incision and make into wine. The fruit of this tree is called by the natives, *abaga*. It is of the size and shape of a lemon, and contains a kernel very good to eat roasted; and the raw kernels are often mixed with meal, and are supposed to be very cordial. An oil is prepared from this fruit, which answers the purposes of butter; and is used also for anointing stiff or contracted parts of the body.

ADYTUM, in Ancient Mythology, the most retired and sacred place of the Pagan temples, into which none but the priests were admitted. The term signifies inaccessible.

ÆA, anciently a celebrated city, and port of Colchis, fifteen miles from the sea, according to Pliny. It was famous for containing the golden fleece of Jason at the time he reached this country. Some authors have considered it as the *Æapolis* of Ptolemy; from the Greek *æa*, earth, or the Heb. *æ*, island. From this city the Circe obtained the appellation of *Ææa*. *Hom. Odyss.* l. i. v. 32. *VIRGIL*, l. iii. v. 386.

ÆACEA, in Grecian Antiquity, solemn festivals and games celebrated in Ægina, in honour of Æacus, the son of Jupiter, by Ægina, who was renowned for his impartial administration of justice, and supposed to have been exalted to the office of judge in Elysium.

ÆAS, in Ancient Geography, the name of a river of Greece, which rose in Mount Pindus, and flowed into the Adriatic, ten stadia from Apollonia. It is conjectured to be the same with the *Jous* of STRABO, tom. i.

ÆDESSA, *ÆGUS*, or *ÆGUS*, in Ancient Geography, a town of Macedonia, near Pella. Caranus, king of Macedonia, is said to have followed a flock of goats to this place when they were seeking shelter from a shower of rain; he took the town by surprise, and in memory of the event called it *Æγυς*, *coprus*, *Ægens*. It was the burial place of the Macedonian kings, to whom an oracle declared, that so long as the royal family were interred here, the kingdom would continue; and to the circumstance of Alexander's being buried in a different place, some ancient writers attributed the ruin of that kingdom.

ÆDICULA RIDICULI, in Mythology, a Roman temple to the god of mirth, erected in commemoration of the repulse of Hannibal by severe weather, when he was advancing upon Rome after the battle of Cannæ.

ÆDILE, in Antiquity, a Roman magistrate who was appointed to the care of various public buildings, the preservation of order and equity in the markets, the repair of the roads and streets, and the examination of weights and measures. There were at first only two ædiles, called the *ædiles plebei*, who were created in the same year as the tribunes (A. V. 260) for their assistance in inferior concerns; hence the ædiles were elected every year at the same time as the tribunes. At length these plebeian ædiles refusing to treat the people with the expensive public shows which it had been customary for these officers to give, the patricians offered to provide for them, on condition of their being admitted to the honours of the *Ædilitis*. This occasioned the creation of two new ædiles in A. V. 388, who were called *ædiles curules*, or *maiores*; as having a right when they gave audience, to sit on a curule chair (*ædilis curulis*), enriched with ivory; whereas the plebeian ædiles sat on benches. The principal employment of the curule ædiles was, to procure the celebration of the Roman games; they were besides appointed judges in all cases relating to the rate or exchange of estates; they were to inspect all new pieces offered to the theatres, and to be particularly watchful that no new gods, or religious ceremonies were intruded upon the people. To these four ædiles Julius Cæsar added two others, called *ædiles cæresales*, chosen from the patrician order; their office was to inspect the public granaries, and to take care of the corn, which was called *donum cæresale*. The office of ædile continued without much variation, from this period to the reign of Constantine.

ÆDIPUS, in Ancient Geography, now *Dipsus*, a town in Eubœa, remarkable for its hot-baths.

ÆDITUUS, in Roman Antiquity, an officer entrusted with the care of the Roman temples.

ÆDUI, in Ancient Geography, a powerful people of Gaul, who were the first allies of Julius Cæsar in his invasion of that country.

ÆGADES, *EGATTS*, or *INSULE ÆGUSÆ*, of the Romans, a cluster of islands in the Mediterranean, to the west of Sicily, and north of Cape Lilybœum. Here the Carthaginians, commanded by Hanno, were defeated by L. Capellus, in a battle which terminated the first Punic war. Also a promontory of Eolia.

ÆGÆ, or *ÆGÆA*. See *ÆDESSA*.

ÆGALEON, or *ÆGALEUM*, in Ancient Geography, a mountain of Attica, opposite Salamis, on which Xerxes sat during the battle of Salamis.

ÆGEAN SEA, *ÆGÆUM MARE*, the ancient name of the Archipelago; that part of the Mediterranean which divides Greece from Asia Minor. Several etymologies of this name have been given. By some authors it is derived from a neighbouring town of Eubœa, called *Ægæ*, and which gave the name *Ægeus* to Neptune; by others, from *Ægæa*, a queen of the Amazons; some again derive it from the circumstance of *Ægeus*, the father of Theseus, having been supposed to drown himself in this sea; while another opinion supposes this name to arise from the number of islands which appear as *ægæi*, goats, above its surface. It extends from north to south more than 400 miles, and contains between 40 and 50 principal islands; their two general

ÆDICULA RIDICULI.
—
ÆGEAN SEA.

ÆGEAN SEA. names were the Cyclades and Sporades. See *ÆGÆI-PELAGO*.

ÆGERI, or ÆGERT, a lake in the canton of Zug, Switzerland, which gives the name to a neighbouring community.

ÆGIDA, in Ancient Geography, the capital town of the northern territory of Istria, in Italy, afterwards called Justinopolis, in honour of Justinian, and now Capo d'Istria. N. lat. 45°, 50'. E. lon. 14°, 20'.

ÆGILOPS, or ÆGYLOPS, in Surgery (from *æg*, a goat, an *ops*, the eye, because goats are said to be peculiarly subject to it), a disease in the internal canthus of the eye; more properly known by this name before it becomes ulcerous.

ÆGILUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, of the order Monocotylæ, and the class Polygamia; also a name given to theholm-oak.

ÆGIORUS, or EGIMURUS, in Ancient Geography, an island near Libya, in the bay of Carthage, and sometimes called Galecta; near which the Romans and Carthaginians agreed to fix their respective boundaries. This is supposed to be mentioned by Virgil under the name of *Arae*.

ÆGINA, or ENGINA, in Ancient Geography, an island in that part of the Ægean sea which formed the Saronic gulph. It was more anciently called *Enopia*, and *Myrmidoinea*, and was about 180 stadia, or 22½ miles in circumference. The inhabitants were once very powerful at sea; they furnished the greatest contingent of vessels to the battle of Salamis, of all the states of Greece, except the Athenians, with whom they disputed the honour of the victory. They afterwards brought seventy ships against Pericles, under whom the Athenians declared war against them; but he defeated and expelled them from the island. After the ruin of Athens, by Lysander, they returned, but never regained their former prosperity. The busy mercantile character of this people (the origin probably of the fable, of the country being re-peopled by ants turned into men, by Jupiter, in the time of *Æacus*), is celebrated in history. They completely changed the face of the country, from that of a barren rock to extreme fertility; and money is said to have been first coined amongst them. The island was not more than 18 miles from the Athenian coast.

Here was a magnificent temple to Jupiter, on the summit of the mountain *Paulelennus*; the ruins of which still remain. It is said to have been built by *Æacus*, to propitiate that deity in a time of extreme drought; and was of the Doric order, as described by Pausanias, having six columns in front. There was also a splendid temple to Venus on the island, mentioned by the same author.

ÆGINA, the capital of the above island, was nearly destroyed by an earthquake in the time of Tiberius; it was taken by the Turks in 1536, and burnt. The town and island are now called *Engia*, and the former contains a Turkish garrison of about 800 troops, an ancient castle, and thirteen mean churches. Travellers have stated the number of partridges in this island to be so great, in modern times, that the inhabitants, to preserve their corn, go out on annual expeditions to destroy the eggs. The revenue is farmed out to a wainode, or governor.

ÆGINETIA, in Botany, genus of plants, of the order Angiospermin, and the class Didynamia.

ÆGIPHILA, in Botany, a genus of plants, of the order Monogynia, class Tetrandria.

ÆGIS, in Ancient Mythology, is by some supposed to be the buckler, by others the cuirass of Jupiter and Pallas. It should appear, however, that either the *ægis* of Jupiter was a common name for his shield, or that the term was sometimes applied generally to the armour of heroes and gods. In Virgil, lib. viii. ver. 437 and 8 of the *Æn.* it is said,

— " *ispanque in pectore Dione
Gorgæa desus vertitur ludæa rotæ.*"

Thus the Medusa's or Gorgon's head which characterized the *ægis*, is placed on the breast of the goddess, the manner in which painters most usually represent her; whilst by the same author, in the same poem, and in this very book, the *ægis* of Jupiter is mentioned in the words,

" *Cum saepe nigrescit
Jovis coarctatus dextra.*" Ver. 554.

whicb passage can by no ingenuity be applied to a breast-plate, although it may well allude to a shield or buckler. *Servius* also makes the same distinction.

The fables of antiquity, generally represent Jupiter to have preserved the skin of the she-goat *Amalthea*, which had suckled him, and to have covered his buckler with it, whence (*æg*, *myes*, she-goat) the buckler took its name. Jupiter presented this *ægis* to Minerva, who having killed the Gorgon Medusa, fixed her snaky head in the middle of the *ægis*; and it had the power of converting those who beheld it into stone.

ÆGITHALIES, in Ancient Geography, a promontory of Sicily, upon which stood a citadel of the same name. It was situated between Drepanum and the Emporium *Ægistræum*. In after times it was called *Aeclius*, and is now known by the name of Capo di Santo Teodoro. Ptolemy writes this place corruptly *Ægitharon*.

ÆGIUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Achaia Propria, where the Achæans commonly met in council. The worship of Conventional Jupiter was celebrated here; and in this place also it was supposed that that god had been suckled by the she-goat *Amalthea* mentioned above. Greek imperial medals were struck in this town; and there was a coin formerly in the cabinet of the king of Prussia, with the inscription *ÆGI*, and the impression of a tortoise (the peculiar symbol of *Peloponnesus*), which demonstrates the antiquity of the medal, and the importance of the place where it was struck.

ÆGOPIDIUM, in Botany, a genus of plants; order Dicotylæ, class Pentandria.

ÆGOPRICON, in Botany, a genus of plants, in the Monocotylæ. Diandria. It is an East Indian tree.

ÆGOCEROS, in Ancient Astronomy, a name given to the constellation Capricorn by Lucan and others. In Mythology, Pan transformed himself into a goat, and was made a star by this name.

ÆGOS-POTAMOS, or GOAT-RIVER, in Ancient Geography, a town and a road for ships, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, in the Thracian Chersonesus, falling into the Hellespont to the north of Sestos. Here it was that the Athenians, under Conon, received that signal defeat, by the Lacedæmonians, which ended the Peloponnesian war.

ÆGYPT, see *EGYPT*.

ÆGYPTIACUM, in Pharmacy, an ointment composed of honey, verdigrise, and vinegar; and a

ÆGIPHILA.

ÆGYPTIACUM.

ÆGYPT. name also given to divers arguments of the detergent or corrosive kind.

ÆGYPTILLA, in Natural History. The ancients gave this name to a stone of the cameo, onyx, or sardonyx kind, to which they assigned many fabulous qualities; such as that it possessed the power of turning water into wine, &c.

ÆGYPTUS, an ancient name applied to the river Nile. Ægyptus, in fabulous history, was also the son of Belus, and brother of Danus.

ÆINAUTÆ, in Antiquity, *æcinæum*, always mariners. The senators of Miletus obtained this name from their constantly holding their councils on board their gallees, and never coming on shore until the matters in debate had been determined.

ÆLIA CAPITOLINA, a town built by Adrian, nearly upon the site of Jerusalem, about A. D. 134; Ælius being the family-name of Adrian, and Capitolinus, the well-known epithet of Jupiter, to whom he here erected a temple. This circumstance so exasperated the Jews, as to urge them to a desperate effort toward regaining their former independence, in which they once more took the city, and reduced it to ashes. The emperor, however, quickly suppressed the rebellion, rebuilt the place, and prohibiting any Jew to approach it on pain of death, he erected a marble statue of a hog (the animal most abhorred by the Jews), over the principal gate, near which he also planted, at Bethlehem, a grove to Adonis. The Jews were now reduced to the necessity of bribing the Roman soldiers, according to Ætrome, for permission to weep over this memorable spot; but peculiar indulgence was extended to the Christians, who established a flourishing church in the town. So commonly did it now pass by the name of Ælia, that in the coins of Adrian, Antoninus Pius, and Aurelius, we meet with the inscription COL.

ÆL. CAP. on medals struck here, and the name of Jerusalem was only retained among the Jews and Christians. Constantine restored the ancient name, however, and though he treated the Jews with much cruelty for a new attempt to recover the place, he repaired and beautified the town.

ÆLI PONS, in Ancient Geography, one of the fortresses in the north of England, in the range of the hither Roman wall, which intersected our island from Newcastle, east, to Carlisle, west. The Pons Ælii is represented by Camden as situated somewhere between Newcastle and Morpeth.

ÆLIUS PONS, the celebrated stone bridge across the Tiber, which is now called il Ponte St. Angelo, or the Bridge of St. Angelo, and leads to the Borgo and Vatican from the city; this also is one of the monuments of the magnificence of Adrian's reign.

ÆLURUS, in Egyptian Mythology, the god of cats.

ÆM, AM, or AME, a measure for fluids, used in Germany. The æm of Heidelberg contains 48 masses; the Würtemberg æm 160 masses; but the one most generally used, is equal to 80 masses, or 20 vertils.

ÆMÖBOLUM, in Antiquity, the blood of a bull slain in the sacrifice called *tauræobolus* and *criobolia*. We find this word not unfrequently in inscriptions upon ruined temples and altars.

ÆMONIA, an ancient name for Thessaly, which gave the epithet *Æmonius* to Achilles. The word has been applied by some writers to the whole of Greece.

ÆNARIA, in Ancient Geography, an island opposite ÆNARIA Cums, in Italy, in the bay of that name. It was once famed for its cypress, as well as its mineral waters; and was called after Æneas, who is supposed to have landed here on his voyage from Troy. It is our modern Icaria.

ÆNEATORES, in Antiquity, the musicians attendant upon an army.

ÆNEID, the title of Virgil's celebrated epic poem. Availing himself of the pride and superstition of the Roman people, which never abounded more than during the Augustan age, the poet traces the origin and establishment of the "eternal city," to those heroes and actions which had enough in them of what was human and ordinary to excite the sympathy of his countrymen; in terminating with persons and circumstances of an extraordinary and superhuman character, to awaken their admiration and their awe. No subject could have been more happily chosen. It has been admired too for its perfect unity of action; for while the episodes command the richest variety of description, they are always subordinated to the main object of the poem, which is to impress the divine authority under which Æneas first settled in Italy. The wrath of Juno, upon which the whole fate of Æneas seems at first suspended, is at once that of a woman and a goddess: the passion of Dido, and her general character, bring us nearer the present world; but the poet is continually introducing higher and more effectual influences, until by the intervention of the father of gods and men, the Trojan name is to be continued in the Roman, and thus heaven and earth are appeased.

*Hic genos, Ausonio mistum quod sanguine turpi,
Supra Iovis, supra ire Deos pietate violatus;
Nec grævis illis tuus neque celebrabitur honore.
Annuit his Juno, et sanctæ lætata relictæ.*

Æneid, l. xii.

The style for sweetness and for beauty, occasionally, and in the author's finished passages, surpasses every other production of antiquity. "I see no foundation," says Dr. Blair, "for the opinion entertained by some critics that the Æneid is to be considered as an allegorical poem, which carries a constant reference to the character and reign of Augustus Cæsar; or that Virgil's main design in composing the Æneid, was to reconcile the Romans to the government of that prince, who is supposed to be shadowed out under the character of Æneas." "He had sufficient motives, as a poet, to determine him to the choice of his subject, from its being in itself both great and pleasing; from its being suited to his genius, and its being attended with peculiar advantages for the full display of poetical talent." *Lectures on Rhetoric*, vol. iii.

The first six books of the Æneid are the only finished part of the poem; and the author is said to have desired the last six to be committed to the flames after his death. Its imperfections are alleged to be want of originality in some of the principal scenes, and defectiveness in the exhibition of character. That of Dido is by far the most decided and complete. But Voltaire has justly observed upon the strange confusion of interest excited by the story of the wars in Italy, in which one is continually tempted to espouse the cause of Turnus rather than that of Æneas; and to which the

ÆNEID. exquisite scenes for displaying the tenderness of the poet in narrating the story of Lavinia, seem to have been his only temptation. Though M. la Harpe has endeavoured to convict Virgil of numerous plagiarisms in the *Æneid*, it would seem to remain an unsupported charge; especially when we consider that a large portion of them are stated to have been committed on the productions of contemporary authors, who would not have failed to assert their own claims.

ÆNIGMA, a definition or proposition given in obscure, involved, dubious, and often in contradictory terms. Childish as the exercise of resolving enigmas may appear, it is certain that the practice of their proposition and explanation has existed in the most remote, and in the most learned ages of the world.

Almost the whole of the Egyptian learning is said to have been comprised in enigmas; and that of the sphinx and the supposed discovery of its celebrated riddle by Œdipus, appears to be testified by the numerous Egyptian statues of that fabulous monster. The story is this. A certain monster, having the head and breasts of a woman, the wings of a bird, the claws of a lion, and the body of a dog, had long ravaged the country about Thebes, and could not be destroyed until this riddle was solved, *What animal is that which walks on four legs in the morning, on two at noon, and at night on three?* The answer of Œdipus was, it is man: when the monster, in despair, dashed out its brains against a rock. Sphinxes themselves indeed were enigmatical of the rising of the Nile; the head of a woman, and the body of a lion, indicating the overflow of that river, when the sun passed through the signs of Virgo and Leo in August; see more of these symbolical forms in the article **HIEROGLYPHS**. The Jews were not unacquainted with enigmas; and Gule (*Cost of the Gentiles*, 4to. p. 76) thinks them borrowed by the Egyptians from the Hebrews. Samson proposed a riddle (Judges) rendered by the Septuagint a problem; and it is mentioned as the distinction of Moses (Numb. xii. 8), that God would not speak with him "in dark speeches" (Judges) but "face to face". This the Septuagint renders "Καὶ ἐν ὁμιλίᾳ" to which the Christian scriptures have been thought to allude in 1 Cor. xiii. 12, "Now (in this state), we see through a mirror or *κατὰ ἑἰκασίαν*, in an enigmatical manner, but then (in an eternal state) face to face." The Latins had their *serapna*, *serpna*, or *serpna*, and our own Saxon or Belgic ancestors their *ræden* or *æthane*; from one of which words comes our popular expression riddle. There are some enigmas of antiquity, which, in the absence of more useful or more fatiguing pursuits, have furnished an amusing perplexity to critics. We shall copy the celebrated Spanish *enigma* from the Bologna marble preserved in the Voßmann family, which is perhaps the most famous specimen of this kind of learning, and an enigmatical epitaph of a similar description on the fair Rosamond of our Henry II.

D. M.

ÆLIA LÆLIA CRISTINA,

Nec vir, nec mulier, nec alogotona.

Nec prola, nec juvenis, nec anus.

Nec casta, nec meretrix, nec publica.

ÆTIOLOGIA.

Soluta.

Nec fane, neque feno, neque veneno.

Sed omnino.

Nec canis, nec agnus, nec veris.

Sed veritas facit.

Nec maritus, nec amator, nec necessarius.

Nec mater, neque gaudens, neque feno.

Ille.

Nec molens, nec pyromachus, nec sepulchrum.

Sed omnino.

Sed, et necis cui potest.

ÆLIIUS AGASTIUS FRIGIDUS.

ON FAIR ROSAMOND.

Hic puer Rosa mundi, non Rosa mundi.

Non redolens, nec odor, que redolere solet.

ÆNONA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Liburnia, denominated by Pliny, *Pasinus Civitas*. It is now known by the name of Nonsa. It lies opposite the island Gissa, westward, and is almost surrounded by the Adriatic Sea. E. lon. 16°, N. lat. 28°.

ÆNUS, in Ancient Geography, a well known river of Germany, now called the Inn, it takes its source in the Rharitan Alps, and thence flows into and through the Grisons, the country of Tyrol, the duchy of Bavaria, and into the Danube by way of Passau.

ÆNUS, in Ancient Geography, now called Eno, and too often undistinguished from Ænea, which Ænus founded. Ænus was an independent city of Thrace, situate eastward at the mouth of the Hebrus. The brother of Cato of Utica died, and his memory was perpetuated by a marble monument, in this city.

ÆOLIA, or **ÆOLIS**, in Ancient Geography. This country takes its name from the colony of Greeks, called the Æolians, who settled in this part of Hiher Asia, or Asia Minor. It was sometimes a name given to a very extensive line of coast from Ionia to the Propontis; others, however, speak of it as confined by Troas in the north, and Ionia to the south; though Strabo makes it reach from the river Hermus to the promontory Lectus; and Herodotus mentions eleven cities belonging to Æolia. Ptolemy gives it the boundaries of Caycus northward, and Hermus southward. The Æolians according to the opinion of Josephus were derived from Elishah, one of the sons of Javan, and the Grecian historians rather confirm than contradict this when they say they descended from Æolus, the third son of Ion, who descended from Deucalion. The Æolians migrated from Troy, as did the Ionians and the Dorians, about half a century after the taking of that town; although their settlement here, preceded that of the Ionians and the Dorians, it is calculated, by about a century. Æolia is now a district of Anatolia, and has sunk into utter unimportance.

ÆOLIE INSULE, in Ancient Geography, a cluster of seven islands between Sicily and Italy; viz. Lipara, Hiera, Strongyle, Didyme, Ericusa, Phœnicusa, and Ennymos. They appear to have been called Æolie, from their having been fabled to have been the retreat of the winds, and the kingdom of Æolus, the god of the winds. They are also sometimes called Vulcania, and Hephæstias, by the ancients, and are known in Modern Geography as the Lipari Islands.

ÆOLIAN HARP, or **HARP of ÆOLUS**, a musical instrument which evidently received its name from the effects produced upon it by the air without human aid. It is a simple box of thin fibrous wood (generally of deal), to which are attached a certain number of fine catgut strings, sometimes to the number of fifteen, of equal size and length, and consequently unisous, stretched on low bridges at each end. Its

ÆNIGMA.

ÆOLIAN HARP.



length is generally made to correspond with the size of the window or aperture in which it is intended to be placed; its width is about five or six inches, and its depth two or three. The sash must be raised to admit it with the strings uppermost, under which is a circular opening in the centre, as in the belly of the guitar. When the wind blows athwart the strings, it produces the effect of a choir of music in the air, sweetly mingling all the harmonic notes, and swelling or diminishing its sounds according to the strength or weakness of the blast. A more recent Æolian harp of Mr. Crosthwaite's, has no sounding box, but consists merely of several strings extended between two deal boards.

This instrument is generally ascribed to Father Kircher, because he is the first European author who has described it. But the learned Mr. Richardson (*Dissertation on the Languages and Manners of the East*, p. 180), says, that an instrument of the kind has been long in use in the eastern countries. As Kircher, however, was a great student in the Rabbinic, it is probable he borrowed it from them: for it is mentioned, *Herak* (fol. 6) that when David hung up his harp in the night it vibrated in the north wind; and there can be but little doubt that the invention of the Æolian harp originated in some such accidental circumstance.

Kircher's harp was but five palms, or about 15 inches in length, not above half the width of the modern instrument; he clothed it with sounding boards, or valves as he called them, so placed as to catch and concentrate the breeze, but these have been discontinued by subsequent manufacturers as inconvenient and of no perceptible service; while the increased length of the instrument gives a more sonorous and organ-like tone to the notes.

The Æolian harp was introduced into this country about half a century ago, but is rather too delicate for our climate, except in summer, as it will not bear the violence of storms and rain. It is, however, a very pleasing piece of furniture in a summer parlour. Various improvements have been attempted in their structure; and Mr. Robert Bloomfield, author of the *Farmer's Boy*, now a manufacturer of Æolian harps, has published an interesting collection of extracts and observations on the subject. He says that he has tried to rove the strings with silver wire, which appeared to deaden the sounds; while a covering of oil wholly stopped them: that silk strings will give a most delicate note, but are with difficulty made to endure sufficient tension. He advises that the instrument be so placed as to catch the wind rather in a vertical than a horizontal direction. For the theory of this instrument (as of others) we must refer to *SOUND*, Div. II.

ÆOLIC, an adjective, formed from the name Æolus, and applied to any thing belonging to that god, or to the country of Æolia. The Æolic *digamma*, among the Æolians, is the letter F prefixed to words beginning with vowels, or inserted between words to separate vowels.

ÆOLIPILE, in Pneumatics, an instrument formerly used to convert water into steam, by means of caloric. It is now scarcely ever employed for any such purpose.

ÆOLUS (αἰολος, varius), the mythological god of storms and winds, derived from a king of this name, who reigned over Æolia.

ÆON (αἰων, an age), the life or duration of any period. VOL. XVII.



son or thing. Anciently used in this literal sense, and applied to all the varieties and terms of existence, it was gradually adopted by philosophers to express the duration of spiritual and immortal life, in distinction from that which is corporeal and liable to change, for which they used the word *χρονος*. "Possessing an immovable being," says Aristotle, speaking of the gods, "free from external impressions, happy and self-sufficient, they exist throughout all *αἰωνος*, eternity." He then adds, "For this word has been divinely spoken by the ancients: for the consummation containing the time of every life is called its *age* (its period of duration). For the same reason, the consummation of the whole heaven, and the consummation containing the unlimited duration, and the immensity of all things is *eternity*, deriving its name from *always being*—immortal and divine." Lib. I. *Cal.* c. 10. By a natural *metonymy*, this word was frequently used to express those beings themselves to whom such existence was attributed; and the Gnostics, and other ancient sectaries, taking advantage of this ambiguity of language, formed the notion of an invisible world of *χρονος*, *entites* or *virtutes*, of which ours was one of the extreme links, and the Supreme God the other. Sometimes they assigned to the divine nature itself a distinction of this kind:—"A celestial family, immutable in its nature, and above the power of mortality, was called by these philosophers *αἰων*, formed in the process of time out of the *πληρωμα*, or divine fulness. *NOSTRUM'S Eccles. History*, vol. I.

ÆORA, in Ancient Physics, signified the gestation, or bearing about the body, without a correspondent motion of the limbs, as in a chariot, or in a boat.

ÆRA, in Chronology, is used synonymously with Epoch, or Epocha, for a fixed point of time from which any computation of it is reckoned. *Æra* is more correctly the range or circuit of years within certain points of time, and an epoch is one of those points itself. The word *Æra* has been supposed to be derived from the abridgement, or initial letters, of *Anno Erat Augusti*, A. E. R. A., a mode of computing time in Spain, from the year of the conquest of that country by the Romans; and Vossius favours this opinion. Various principal *Æras* have been given by chronologists, which must regulate all our researches into history:—we speak correctly of the Christian *Æra*, or that space of time between the epoch of the birth of Christ and the present year; the Mahometan *Æra*, of which the flight of Mahomet is the epoch, &c. The Jewish *Æra* dates from the Creation, and embraces the whole duration of the world; that of the ancient Greeks was marked by the Olympiads; and of the Romans, by the building of the city of Rome. See *CHRONOLOGICAL*, and *EROCHE*.

ÆRARIUM, in Roman Antiquities, the treasury of the public money. It differed from the *fiscus*, inasmuch as the latter contained the money of the prince. They are sometimes, however, used synonymously; and with various epithets attached; as the *Ærarium Sanctius* which contained the legal tax on all legacies, and was reserved for peculiar exigencies of the state; the *Ærarium Vicesimarum*, where the foreign levies were deposited, &c.

ÆRARIUS, a name denoting a citizen of Rome who had been degraded, and struck from off his century. These people were incapable of making wills, or of holding any post in the state, but were liable to its burdens.

ÆRIAL.
—
ÆRO-
GRAPHY.

ÆRIAL ACID, in Chemistry, carbonic acid. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii.

ÆRIAL PERSPECTIVE, that branch of the science of Perspective which regards the relative diminution of the colours of bodies in proportion to their distance from the eye. See COLOUR and PAINTING, Div. ii.

ÆRIFORM FLUIDS, in Chemistry, a name sometimes given to the different gases. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii.

ÆROGRAPHY (*æp*, air, and *γρᾱφω* I write), the

science of describing the air and its properties. A term in little use; but formerly embracing what is now treated under Air, Aerology, Meteorology, &c.

ÆROLITHS (*æp*, air, and *λίθος*, a stone), a name sometimes given to those mineral substances which occasionally fall through the atmosphere. Some have considered them as concretions actually formed in the air, but no satisfactory theory respecting them has yet been given.

ÆRO-
GRAPHY.
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ÆRO-
NAUTICS.

AËRONAUTICS.

Definition.

ÆRONAUTICS, from *æp*, the air, and *ναυτικῆ*, the art of navigation; signifies the art of navigating through the air, and is therefore adopted as a more appropriate term for our present subject than that usually employed, *Aërostatism*, which properly denotes the weighing of air, or the weighing of bodies suspended in the air.

In sketching the history and progress of this art, we shall not detain the reader with recounting the fabulous stories of ancient excursions through the atmosphere, but proceed at once to the first propagation of the art of aerial navigation in Europe towards the conclusion of the last century.

Principle.

From principles long known, and which will be found established in our treatise of Hydrostatics, it follows, that any body which is specifically lighter than a fluid, will float in it; and consequently a mass bulk for bulk lighter than the atmosphere, or the air encompassing the earth, will be buoyed up by it, and will ascend for the same reason that a cork, or a blown bladder would rise in water, supposing either of these to be in the first instance immersed at any given depth below its surface.

If the atmosphere were every where of the same density as at the terrestrial surface, and a mass could be obtained specifically lighter, such a mass would not only rise in the first moments, but it would continue to ascend to the upper surface of this medium; and having attained that situation, it would there remain in a quiescent state, or float along upon the surface, having neither the power to ascend, nor any tendency to descend, except that which is resisted by the upper pressure of the fluid. But as the air is compressible and elastic, its density continually decreases as we ascend, and therefore a body can only rise in such a medium to an elevation at which the air is of the same density as itself.

This principle, as we have observed above, has been long known, and various projects have in consequence been formed for producing a mass of sufficient rarity to effect the purpose of aerial ascensions; but most of these schemes were merely imaginary, and are entitled to little notice: we shall therefore only mention two of them, which seem to approach the nearest in idea to the present practice of æronautics. The jesuit Francis Lana, contemporary with bishop Wilkins, proposed to exhaust hollow balls of metal of their internal air, and by that means to render them specifically lighter than the atmosphere, and determine them to ascend, as represented in Plate I. This idea, in a theoretical point of view, is unexceptionable, but the means were certainly insufficient for the practical performance of the experiment; for vessels of copper of any manageable dimensions, made sufficiently thin to float in the atmosphere, would be

utterly unable to resist the external pressure to which they must necessarily be exposed. The second case we have to mention seems entitled to more consideration; being represented as an actual experiment, made in the beginning of the last century by Gusman, a Portuguese friar, who is reported to have launched a paper bag into the air, which ascended to the height of 200 feet. We have no particulars of this experiment, but if the recorded account of the ascent of the bag be correct, it must have been something very similar to the first air balloons.

Dr. Black, of Edinburgh, soon after Cavendish's discovery of the specific gravity of inflammable air, suggested that if a bladder sufficiently light and thin were filled with this air, it would form a mass lighter than the same bulk of atmospheric air, and rise in it. This thought was suggested in his lectures in 1765 and 1768; and he proposed, by means of the alientois of a calf, to try the experiment; this, however, he was prevented by his other employments from carrying into effect. The possibility of constructing a vessel, which, when filled with inflammable air, would ascend in the atmosphere, had occurred also to Mr. Cavallo about the same time; and to him belongs the honour of having first made experiments on this subject in the beginning of the year 1782, of which an account was read to the Royal Society on the 20th of June in that year. He first tried bladders, but the thinnest of these, however, scraped and cleaned, were too heavy. In using China paper, he found that the inflammable air passed through its pores like water through a sieve; and having failed of success in blowing this air into thick solutions of gum, varnishes, and oil paint, he was under the necessity of being satisfied with soap balls, which, being inflated with inflammable air, by dipping the end of a small glass tube, connected with a bladder containing the air, into a thick solution of soap, and then gently compressing the bladder, ascended rapidly in the atmosphere; and these are doubtless the first inflammable air balloons that ever were made.

The practice and science of æronautics is not, however, to be considered as springing from the above experiments, for while these were yet unfinished, and even perhaps before the soap balls had been made to ascend, Stephen and John Montgolfier, natives of Annonay, in France, and masters of a considerable manufactory there, had turned their attention to the subject, and in the same year their first experiment was made at Avignon; by applying to an aperture in a fine silk bag some lighted paper, which rarified the air, and caused it to ascend to the perpendicular height of 70 feet. After this, various experiments were tried upon

Experiment
of Gusman.

Dr. Black's
suggestion.

Cavallo's
experiments.

Montgol-
fier's expe-
riement.

Proposition
of Lana.

**ARRO-
NAUTICS.** a large scale, which greatly excited the public curiosity. An immense bag of linen, lined with paper, and containing upwards of 23,000 cubic feet, was found to have a power of lifting about 500 lbs. including its own weight. Burning chopped straw and wool under the aperture of this machine, it immediately occasioned it to swell, and afterwards to ascend into the atmosphere with such rapidity, that in ten minutes it had risen to a height of 6000 feet, when its force being exhausted, it fell to the ground at the distance of 7008 feet from the place whence it departed.

Not long after this, one of the brothers, invited by the Academy of Sciences at Paris to repeat his experiment at their expense, constructed a large balloon of an elliptical form. In a preliminary experiment, this balloon lifted from the ground eight persons who held it, and would have ascended with them, had not others come quickly to their assistance.

On the following day the machine was filled by the combustion of fifty pounds of straw, and twelve pounds of wool, with which it soon became inflated, and sustained itself in the air, together with a weight of between four hundred and five hundred pounds. A few days after this, a new balloon was constructed, 60 feet in height, and 48 feet in diameter; and with this, in a wicker cage, were sent a sheep, a cock, and a duck. The entire success of this experiment, however, was prevented by a sudden gust of wind, which tore the machine in two places near the top before it ascended; still, however, it was estimated to have risen 1440 feet; and after remaining in the air about eight minutes, it fell to the ground, about two miles from the place whence it departed, and without the animals having received the slightest injury.

These experiments and others, which it would be useless to enumerate, having shown that such aerostatic machines were capable of carrying up great weights, and consequently men, with great safety, M. Pilâtre de Rozier offered himself to be the first aerial adventurer, with a new machine, constructed in the faubourg of St. Antoine. This was of an elliptical or oval form, 48 feet in diameter, and 74 feet in height, and was elegantly painted and ornamented. A proper gallery and grate enabled the aeronaut to supply the fire with fuel, and thus to keep up the machine as long as he pleased; the weight of which, with the apparatus, &c. was about 1600 lbs. On the 15th of October, 1783, M. Pilâtre, placing himself in the gallery, inflated the balloon, and permitted it to ascend to the height of 84 feet, where he kept it aloft about four or five minutes; after which it descended very gently; but such was still its tendency to ascend, that it rebounded to a considerable height after touching the ground. He then repeated the experiment, and ascended to the height of 210 feet; he afterwards rose 262 feet, and in the descent this third time, a gust of wind having blown the machine over some trees in an adjoining garden, M. Pilâtre, by throwing a little fuel on the fire, rose again sufficiently to extricate himself from this difficulty; and thus demonstrated the practicability of the management of such machines.

Soon after this, the same adventurous philosopher again ascended with M. Girond de Villette, to the height of 330 feet, hovering over Paris at least nine minutes, in sight of thousands of spectators; the machine preserving, during all this time, a steady position.

On the 21st of November, 1783, M. Pilâtre again ascended with the marquis d'Arlandes. Their voyage occupied about 25 minutes, the aeronauts having, in that time, passed over a space of about five miles. In this ascent it appears there was some danger of the machine taking fire, the marquis having observed several holes made by the fire in the lower parts; the application, however, of a wet sponge was found to be sufficient to stop the progress of combustion, and they descended in safety.

This last voyage may be said to conclude the history of aerostatic machines elevated by means of heated air; for they were found in some degree inconvenient, on account of the impossibility of keeping up the elevated temperature of the enclosed air, without the continued renewal of fuel, and that in considerable quantity; whereby the aeronauts were exposed to great danger, from the occasional sudden and unavoidable expansion of the flame, and their inability to command that uniformity of rarefaction so necessary to the safety of the voyage.

As aerial chemistry had been before this time making rapid advances, so the philosophical world, through the indefatigable labours of Cavendish, had been made acquainted with the properties of inflammable air, whose specific gravity, in a tolerably pure state, is at least twelve times lighter than atmospheric air. We have noticed the suggestion to which this discovery had given rise in the lectures of Dr. Black, and the experiments of Cavallo, by which the truth of these suggestions was in part demonstrated. It was very natural, therefore, after the success that had attended the experiments on heated air balloons, that the attention of philosophers should be drawn towards the completion of their purpose by the application of this inflammable air, or, as we now term it, hydrogen gas.

The first machine of this kind was launched on the continent by M. M. Roberts and Charles, in 1783, and such was the great convenience of these machines compared with those elevated by heated air, that they soon became almost exclusively adopted; yet even these possessed some disadvantages, particularly that of the aeronaut not being able to rise or lower them without a loss of ballast in the first instance, and of gas in the latter; the filling of them was also attended with considerable expense. These defects suggested the idea of enclosing a bag of common air, in one of inflammable air, whereby, in varying the temperature of this inner balloon, the whole apparatus could be raised or lowered *ad libitum*.

The first attempt conformably to this idea, was made by the duke de Chantreaux. He placed a small balloon within the greater one, the former being filled with common air by means of a pair of bellows, when necessary, viz. whenever it was thought proper to descend, it being supposed, that the machine would thus become heavier, and the air in the outer balloon condensed, and consequently, that the ascent or descent might be effected at pleasure. The circumstances, however, of this voyage were so unfavorable, that it could not be ascertained whether or not the experiment would have succeeded, in a more serene state of the atmosphere, the weather being so boisterous during the whole time, that the duke had a very narrow escape with his life.

The above scheme for raising or lowering an aëro-

Animals
ascend in a
balloon.

Pilâtre de
Rozier.

Other as-
censions of
M. Pilâtre.

Charles and
Roberts ex-
cend with
an hydrogen
gas balloon.

Ascent of
the duke de
Chantreaux.

AERO-
NAUTICS.

tatic machine by bags filled with common air, being thus rendered dubious, another method was suggested, which was to put a small aërostatic machine with rarefied air under an inflammable air balloon, but at such a distance that the inflammable air in the latter, might be perfectly out of the reach of the fire employed for inflating the former; and thus, by increasing or diminishing the fire applied to the small machine, the absolute gravity of the whole mass might be considerably reduced or augmented.

Total ascent
of Pilatre
and Ro-
maine.

This scheme was unfortunately put in execution by the celebrated Pilatre and M. Romaine. Their inflammable air balloon was about thirty seven feet in diameter, and the power of that rarefied air was about sixty pounds. They ascended without any accident; but had not been long in the atmosphere when the upper balloon was seen to swell very considerably, at the same time the aëronauts were observed, by means of telescopes, very anxious to descend, being busily pulling the valve and opening the appendages to the balloon in order to facilitate the escape of as much inflammable air as possible. Shortly after this, the machine took fire, at the height of nearly a mile from the ground. No explosion was heard, and the silk balloon seemed at first to oppose some resistance to the descent for about a minute, after which, however, it collapsed, and descended with the two unfortunate travellers with such rapidity, that both of them were killed. Pilatre seems to have been dead before he came to the ground, but M. Romaine was still alive when some persons came up to him; he expired, however, immediately after. This fatal experiment, which cost the life of the first and most intrepid aëronaut, was undertaken on the 15th of June, 1785, the ascent having taken place at Boulogne, with the intention of crossing the English channel to repay the visit which Dr. Jeffries and M. Blanchard made to the French coast, on the 7th of January of the same year.

Guyton
Morveau
and Ber-
trand.

We have introduced this account of the unfortunate Pilatre de Rozier, in consequence of the similarity of his experiment to that of the duke de Châtres; but prior to this, certain other ascents were made that appear to be deserving of some detail, especially that of the celebrated chemist Guyton Morveau, who ascended from Dijon in a balloon, nearly of a globular shape, 29 feet in diameter, composed of the finest varnished silk, and filled with hydrogen gas. He was accompanied by the Abbé Bertrand, and took his departure about five o'clock in the evening; the barometer being then 29.3 inches, and the thermometer at 57° Fahrenheit's scale. After surmounting some accidents, they rose to an altitude of nearly two English miles, where the barometer had sunk to 19.8 inches, and the thermometer to 25°. They felt no inconvenience, however, except from the pinching of their ears from cold. They saw an ocean of clouds below them, and in this situation witnessed, as the day declined, the beautiful phenomenon of a perihelion, or mock-sun. At this time the real luminary was only ten degrees above the horizon, when all in an instant another sun appeared to plant itself within about six degrees of the former: it consisted of numerous prismatic rings, delicately tinted on a ground of dazzling whiteness. After a voyage of an hour and a-half they alighted safely at about 15 miles distance from the place of their ascent.

Guyton
Morveau's
second
ascent.

M. Guyton Morveau ascended a second time on the

12th of June, accompanied by the president de Verly. The machine was launched at seven o'clock in the morning, the mercury in the barometer standing at 29½ inches, Fahrenheit's thermometer at 66°, and Saussure's hygrometer at 83½. The balloon swelled very fast, in consequence of the increasing heat of the sun, and the upper valve being at intervals opened to give vent to the excess of gas, the latter escaped with a noise resembling the rushing of water. As the aëronauts did not rise to a very great elevation, they enjoyed an agreeable temperature, and could easily, by observing the situation of the different villages scattered below them, trace out their route with tolerable accuracy on the surface of the map. By nine o'clock they had reached the height of 6030 feet, as appeared from the barometer, which now stood at 24.7 inches, the thermometer at 70°, and the bygrometer at 65½. They descended three quarters of an hour afterwards, about 12 miles from Dijon.

AERO-
NAUTICS.

But the most remarkable voyage which had yet been performed, was that of M. Testu, who ascended from Paris on the 18th of June, 1786, with a balloon 29 feet in diameter, of glazed tiffany, furnished with auxiliary wings, and filled as usual with hydrogen gas. The ascent took place at about four o'clock in the afternoon, the barometer standing at 29.68 inches, and the thermometer so high as 84°, though the day was cloudy, with an apparent prospect of rain. The balloon had only been about five-sixths filled, but it gradually swelled as it became drier and warmer, and acquired its full distention at the height of 2800 feet; when, in order to avoid the waste of gas, or the rupture of the machine, the voyager endeavoured to lower the balloon by the re-action of his wings; but they were found insufficient for this purpose: he did, however, at length descend in a corn-field, in the plain of Montmorency, where he had the mortification to be taken prisoner by the farmer and several peasants, who insisted upon his paying the damages that the curiosity of his followers had occasioned. Anxious to get clear of such troublesome attendants, he persuaded them, that since his wings were broken, he and his balloon were at their mercy, and they drew both along, in supposed triumph, for some distance, by cords fixed to the car; till M. Testu finding that the loss of his wings, cloak, &c. had rendered the apparatus much lighter, suddenly cut the cord, and took an abrupt leave of the farmer and his men.

He now rose to the region of the clouds, where he saw small frozen particles floating in the atmosphere, and heard thunder rolling beneath his feet. As the coolness of the evening advanced, the buoyant force of his machine diminished, and he again approached the ground, a little before seven o'clock, near the abbey of Royaumont. Here he threw out some ballast, and in the space of twelve minutes, rose to the height of 2,400 feet, where the thermometer stood at 66°. He now heard the blast of a horn, and could perceive huntsmen below in full chase. Curious to witness the sport, he opened the valve, and descended between Etouen and Varville, when rejecting his ears, he began to collect some ballast, and while he was thus employed, the huntsmen galloped up to him. He then mounted a third time, and passed through a dense body of clouds, in which thunder followed flashes of lightning in quick succession. The thermometer fell

AERO-
NAUTICS.

to 21°, but afterwards, when the balloon had reached the height of 3,000 feet, regained its former point of 56°. In this region the aeronaut remained till nearly nine o'clock, and at this time witnessed the setting of the sun; immediately after which, he was involved in thick masses of thunder clouds; lightnings flashed on all sides, succeeded by loud claps of thunder, while snow and sleet fell copiously around him. The thermometer, was then sunk to 21°, as he perceived by the help of a phosphoric light which he had struck for that purpose.

In this tremendous situation the intrepid adventurer remained three hours, the time during which the storm lasted. The balloon was affected by a sort of undulating motion, upwards and downwards, occasioned, as he imagined, by the electric action of the clouds. The lightning appeared excessively vivid; the thunder was sharp and loud, and preceded by a sort of crackling noise. A calm at length succeeded, when he had the pleasure of seeing the stars, and embraced the opportunity of taking some necessary refreshment. At half past two in the morning, day began to appear, and he resolved to descend, which he accomplished about a quarter before four, having already witnessed the setting and rising of the sun. He found himself near the village of Campreni, about sixty-three miles from Paris, perfectly safe, after a voyage which had lasted near twelve hours, under circumstances at one time the most pleasant, and at others, the most terrific it is possible to imagine.

Lunardi's
ascent in
England.

The first aerial voyage in England was performed on the 15th of September, 1784, by Vincent Lunardi, a native of Italy. His balloon was made of oiled silk, painted in alternate stripes of blue and red, and in diameter, it measured thirty-three feet. From a net which went over about two thirds of it, descended forty-five cords to a hoop, hanging below; and to this the car or gallery was attached. There was no valve; its neck, which was terminated in the form of a pear, being the aperture through which the hydrogen gas was introduced, was also that through which it might be emitted. Mr. Lunardi departed from the Artillery Ground, at two o'clock, taking with him a dog, a cat, and a pigeon. After throwing out a little ballast to clear the houses, he ascended to a considerable height; about half an hour after three, he descended very near the ground, and landed the cat, which was nearly dead with cold; and then rising, he prosecuted his voyage; but at ten minutes past four he again descended near Ware in Hertfordshire, after a pleasant voyage of two hours.

Blanchard
and Sheldon.

The second aerial voyage in England, was undertaken by M. Blanchard, and Mr. Sheldon, professor of anatomy to the Royal Academy. They ascended at Chelsea, on the 16th of October of the same year, about 12 o'clock. Mr. Sheldon was landed after a short voyage, about fourteen miles from the place of departure; but M. Blanchard then re-ascended, and finally descended near Rumsey in Hampshire, about seventy-five miles distant from London. In this second experiment, M. Blanchard ascended so high, that he found great difficulty in breathing, the air at this height being so rare, that a pigeon sent off from the car, found great difficulty in supporting itself, and at length came and settled on the side of the boat, seeming afraid to attempt the boundless vast by which it was surrounded.

About this time Mr. Sadler made his first aerial excursion from Oxford; since which date he has performed several other voyages to the upper regions. One of these was attended with peculiar circumstances, as will be seen in the subsequent part of this article.

AERO-
NAUTICS.
Sadler.

Perhaps the most daring attempt that had yet been made, was that of M. Blanchard and Dr. Jeffries across the straits of Dover. This took place on the 7th of January, 1785, being a clear frosty morning, with the wind barely perceptible at N.W. The operation of filling the balloon began at 10 o'clock, and a little before one o'clock every thing was ready for their departure. At one o'clock M. Blanchard ordered the boat to be pushed off, which then stood only two feet distant from that precipice, so finely described by Shakespeare in his tragedy of *King Lear*. As the balloon was scarcely sufficient to carry two men, they were obliged to throw out all their ballast, except three bags of sand, of ten pounds each; when they rose gently, but made little way, on account of the wind being very slight. At a quarter past one the barometer, which on the cliff stood at 29.7, was fallen to 27.3, and the weather proved fine and warm for the season. They had now a most beautiful prospect of the south coast of England, and were able to count twenty-seven villages upon it. After passing over several vessels, they found that the balloon, at fifty minutes after one, was descending, and they immediately threw out a sack and a half of their ballast; but this being found insufficient, their descent being still more rapid than before, they threw out all that remained; but even this was found to be ineffectual; they therefore next cast out a parcel of books: this caused the balloon to ascend, at a time when they were about midway between France and England; viz. about twelve miles from either shore. At a quarter past two, finding themselves again descending, they threw away the remainder of their books, and about ten minutes after, had a most enchanting prospect of the coast of France. Still, however, as the machine descended, and as they had now no more ballast, they cast out their provisions, the wings of the boat, and every other moveable. "We threw out," says Dr. Jeffries, "our only bottle, which in its descent cast out a steam like smoke, accompanied with a rushing noise; and when it struck the water, we heard and felt the shock very perceptibly on the car of the balloon." All this proving insufficient to stop the descent of the balloon, they next threw out their anchors and cords, and at last stripped off their clothes, and fastening themselves to certain slings, intended to cut away the boat as their last resource. They had, however, now the satisfaction to find that they were rising; and as they passed over the high lands between Cape Blanc and Paris, the machine rose very fast, and carried them to a greater elevation than they had been at any former part of their voyage. They soon after descended safely amongst some trees in the forest of Guineens, where there was just sufficient opening to admit them. In consequence of this voyage, the king of France presented M. Blanchard with a gift of 12,000 livres, and granted him a pension of 1200 livres a year.

We have thus traced the history and practice of this science, from the time of its first introduction to the period above stated, viz. 1786; but it would be useless

AERO-
NAUTICS.Garnerin
descends in
a parachute.

to attempt a mere enumeration of the various voyages that have been since undertaken; we shall therefore select only such as have been made with particular scientific views, or which have been performed under circumstances that render them of particular interest.

Blanchard was the first who constructed parachutes, and attached them to balloons, for the purpose of securing himself from the fatal consequences of a rapid fall, in case any accident happened to his machine. In one of his excursions from Lille, about the end of August, 1785, when he traversed a distance of more than 300 miles without halting, he let down from a great height a dog, by means of a basket fastened to a parachute, and the animal reached the ground unhurt. Since that period, the practice and management of the parachute have been carried much farther by other aerial adventurers, and particularly by M. Garnerin, who has dared repeatedly to descend from the region of the clouds by that very slender machine.

This ingenious Frenchman visited England during the short space of 1802, and made four fine ascents in his balloon; in the last of which, September 21, he undertook the singular and desperate experiment of descending in a parachute. The ascent took place from St. George's Parade, North Audley-street, London, and he descended in a field near the Small-pox Hospital, Pancras. The balloon was of the usual sort, viz. of oiled silk, with a net, from which ropes proceeded, and were terminated in, or were joined to, a single rope at a few feet distance below the balloon. To this rope the parachute was fastened. The construction of the machine, with the mode of fastening, may be described as follows. It consisted in the first place of thirty-two gores of white canvas, formed into a hemispherical case of twenty-three feet diameter, at the top of which was a truck, or round piece of wood, ten inches broad, having a hole in its centre, admitting short pieces of tape to fasten it to the several gores of the canvas. Several ropes about thirty feet long, which proceeded from the edge of the parachute, terminated in a common joining, from which the shorter ropes proceeded; and to the extremities of these a circular basket was fastened, intended for the reception of the adventurer. Now the single rope, which has been said above to proceed from the balloon, passed through the hole in the truck in the centre of the parachute, and also through certain tin tubes which were placed one after the other in the place of the handle or stick of an umbrella, and was lastly fastened to the basket; so that when the balloon was in the air, by cutting the end of this rope next to the basket, the latter, with the attached parachute, would be separated from the balloon, and in falling downwards, would naturally be opened by the resistance of the air. The use of the tin tubes was, to let the rope slip off with greater certainty, and to prevent its becoming entangled with any of the other cordage, as also to keep the parachute at a distance from the basket. The above description will be better understood by referring to the Plate, in which the ascent and descent of M. Garnerin are shown in corresponding figures. The balloon began to be filled about two o'clock; there were thirty-six casks filled with iron filings and diluted sulphuric acid, for the production of the hydrogen gas; these communicated with three other casks, or general receivers, to each of which was fixed a pipe that emptied itself into the main tube attached to the

balloon. At six the operation of filling being completed, M. Garnerin placed himself in the basket, and the machine while machine and apparatus rose majestically amidst the acclamation of innumerable spectators. The weather was the clearest and pleasantest imaginable, the wind was gentle, and about west by south, and consequently the balloon moved slightly in the opposite direction. In less than ten minutes, the machine, with its attendant and appendages, had ascended to an immense height, and M. Garnerin in the basket was scarcely perceptible. Every eye was now directed to the adventurous aeronaut; in a moment the rope was cut, and the balloon and parachute separated from each other. Before the latter opened, it fell with a great velocity, and as soon as it was expanded, which took place a few moments after, the descent became more gradual, but still attended with a very fearful appearance, the whole apparatus vibrating like the pendulum of a clock, but in such large arcs that several times the parachute, and the basket with Garnerin, seemed to be nearly horizontal; the extent, however, of the vibrations diminished as he came nearer the ground, which he ultimately reached, as we have already said, in a field in St. Pancras, but with so much violence as to throw him on his face, by which accident he received some severe cuts and bled considerably. He seemed much agitated, and trembled excessively at the moment he was released from the basket. One of the stays of the parachute had given way, an untoward circumstance which deranged the apparatus, and threatened the adventurer during the whole of his descent, with immediate destruction.

The voyages which we have hitherto detailed, were undertaken merely as matters of curiosity, and little of scientific research had yet been attempted by them. Philosophers, however, now became anxious to turn them to a more useful purpose, and to determine, by the means which they afforded, what circumstances attended the magnetic and electric action in the upper regions of the atmosphere; as also the proportions of the component parts of the air in places remote from the surface of the earth.

The first aerial voyage which can be said to have been made with the above views, was undertaken by Mr. Robertson and Lhoest, from Hamburg, about the middle of July, 1803. The ascent having been accomplished, the aeronauts hovered for some time over the city; when, after throwing out some ballast, they rose to such a height, that the elasticity of the air distended the balloon so much that they were under the necessity of opening the valve and suffering some of the gas to escape, which issued from its confinement with a loud noise. The tension of the balloon being thus considerably lessened, they threw out more ballast, and ascended to such a height, that it was almost impossible to endure the cold that they experienced. Their teeth chattered, and Mr. Robertson's veins swelled, and the blood issued from his nose. His companion was otherwise affected, his head having swelled so much that he could not keep on his hat; they also both experienced a great numbness, which inclined them to sleep. Not being able any longer to endure this temperature, they descended slowly for about half an hour, and approached the earth over Badenburr, near Wismen on the Lube, where they intended to have alighted, but the inhabitants taking them for spectres fled with

AERO-
NAUTICS.

AERO-
NAUTICS.

the utmost consternation, taking with them their cattle. The aéronauts, fearing that this terror might be attended with serious consequences to them, after throwing out part of their ballast, again ascended, and continued their voyage, ultimately arriving at Wiehenbeck, on the road to Zeil.

When the balloon first rose, the atmosphere below was very serene, but it was cloudy above; they observed, that as they ascended the heat decreased very sensibly, and that they could look at the sun without being dazzled. The barometer, which before the ascent stood at 27 inches, fell to 14, where it appeared to become stationary; and the thermometer sunk to 4½ below zero. Having, while thus situated, taken some refreshment, they ascended higher, viz. till the barometer fell to 12½ inches; and at that height the cold out of the car was insupportable, although the thermometer was now only one degree below the freezing point. Here our adventurers were obliged to respire very rapidly, and their pulsations became very quick. In this region, while the balloon was invisible to the earth, Mr. Robertson made the following experiments:

1. Having let a drop of ether fall on a piece of glass, it evaporated in four seconds.

2. He electrified by friction glass and sealing wax; but these substances gave no signs of the accumulation of electric fluid that could be communicated to other bodies. The Voltaic pile, which, when the balloon was set free from the earth, acted with its full force, gave only one-tenth part of its electricity.

3. The dipping needle seemed to have lost its magnetic virtue, and could not be brought to that direction which it had at the surface of the earth.

4. He struck with a hammer oxygenated muriats of potash. The explosion occasioned a sharp noise, which, though not very strong, was insufferable to the ear. It is also to be observed, that though the aéronauts spoke very loudly, they could only with great difficulty hear each other.

5. At this height Mr. Robertson was not able to extract any electricity from the atmospheric electrometer and condenser.

6. In consequence of a suggestion from Professor Helmholtz, of Berlin, Mr. Robertson carried with him two birds. The rarefaction of the air killed one of them, and the other was unable to fly; it lay extended on its back, but fluttered with its wings.

7. Water began to boil by means of a moderate degree of heat maintained with quick lime.

8. According to observations made, it appeared that the clouds never rise above 2000 toises; and it was only in ascending and descending through clouds, that Mr. Robertson was able to obtain positive electricity.

The greatest height attained in this voyage is estimated at 2600 toises.

Mr. Robertson afterwards, viz. on the 30th of June, 1804, ascended from Petersburg with the academicians Sacharof, the aéronauts, taking with them, for the purpose of making the different experiments proposed by the academy, twelve exhausted flasks, a barometer and attached thermometer, a detached thermometer, two electrometers, sealing wax and sulphur, a compass and magnetic needle, a seconds watch, a bell, a speaking trumpet, a prism of crystal, and unlaked line, and a few other apparatus for chemical and philosophical experiments.

In order to ascertain with some precision, over what

part of the earth the balloon at any time was hovering, the two following methods were employed.

In an aperture made in the bottom of the car, there was fixed perpendicularly, an achromatic telescope, which showed very distinctly those terrestrial objects over which the balloon happened to be, and to which side it directed its course. In the next place, two sheets of black paper were fixed together at right angles, and suspended from the car with a piece of thread, which was intended to indicate any variation in the direction of the balloon, and was therefore called the *way wiser*; it answered its purpose much better than had been anticipated. At about a quarter past seven in the evening, when the barometer stood at 30 inches, and the centigrade thermometer at 19°, the machine ascended, and at 31 minutes past seven the barometer had sunk to 29 inches, and the thermometer to 18°; the first cask was now filled with air, and six minutes after, when the barometer had fallen another inch, the second cask was opened and filled. At this time, as the towns and villages were obscured by a fog, the paper *way wiser* was thrown out, which indicated any variation in the direction of the balloon, as also its sinking and rising; for as soon as the machine fell, the way wiser, as it was much lighter than the balloon, and found more resistance in falling, appeared to fly up, and when the balloon rose, it sunk to the full length of its thread; at other times it was found to hold a diagonal direction, and in short pointed out with considerable accuracy, with the assistance of the compass needle, not only any variation in the motion, but the actual direction of the whole machine.

Having, at twenty-five minutes past eight, ascended to such a height that the barometer stood at twenty-six inches, another cask was filled with air; and soon afterwards another, when the barometer was at twenty-five inches; and the same was done for every inch of descent of the mercury. At about thirty minutes past nine, the barometer indicated twenty-two inches, and the thermometer 4½°; at which time the voyagers saw the sun; it was about half obscured either by a fog or by the horizon, but they could not distinguish which. At this period they commenced the following series of experiments and observations. A piece of sealing-wax rubbed with cloth, put in motion Bennet's electrometer. The magnetic needle, which was taken for the purpose of examining the inclination, had been damaged; but in order to ascertain whether the magnetic power still remained the same, as at the earth's surface, Mr. Sacharof placed a common magnetic needle, on a pin, and was surprised to find the north end rise, and consequently the south descend considerably, making an angle of ten or twelve degrees. This experiment being repeated several times, both by this gentleman and Mr. Robertson, the result was constantly the same; after descending, and at present, Mr. Sacharof observes, the same needle assumes a horizontal position. At this height the aéronauts did not experience the slightest inconvenience, except that their ears were benumbed with the cold. "My pulse," says Mr. Sacharof, "beat as on the earth, that is, eighty-two times in a minute, and I breathed twenty-two times in the same interval, as is usual with me. In a word, I was exceedingly tranquil and cheerful, and experienced no change or uneasiness." At that time there were white clouds a great way above the balloon, but the heavens in general were clear and bright, notwithstanding

AERO-
NAUTICS.Sacharof
and Robert-
son ascended
at Peters-
burgh.

AERO-NAUTICS. which, however, they could observe no stars. Mr. Sacharof at this time proposed to continue their voyage all night, in order that they might see the sun rise, and have time to make other experiments; but being ignorant of the country over which they were then floating, and the almost total consumption of their ballast, and the continual though gradual and slow sinking of the balloon, induced Mr. Robertson to reject this proposal. As the aeronauts were now floating over some towns or villages, Mr. Sacharof took his speaking-trumpet, and directing it towards the earth, called as loud as he was able, when, contrary to his expectation, he heard his own words after a considerable interval, clearly and distinctly repeated by an echo; he called out again several times, and each time the echo repeated his words in about ten seconds; at this time the barometer was removed for the purpose of descending, so that he could make no observation upon it; but computing by the supposed velocity of sound, he must then have been about 5,700 feet from the earth.

In order that the descent might be made as safely as possible, and for the sake of security, all the instruments and warm clothing were tied up in a bundle, and let down together with an anchor by a rope. The balloon, which was driven by the wind with considerable force, and fell with great rapidity, was, notwithstanding, so light, that when the bundle reached the earth, and the machine was in part divested of this load, it had a tendency to rise; in the mean time, however, Mr. Robertson suffering the gas to escape, the descent was ultimately effected in the gentlest and pleasantest manner possible, at about forty-five minutes past ten, on the estate of Counsellor Demidoff; but it unfortunately happened, by the bundle being drawn for a considerable distance along the ground, that most of the instruments were destroyed, and only four of the eight casks that had been charged, were in a state proper for experiment.

We have given the detail of the two preceding ascents, not in consequence of the importance of the observations or experiments that were performed in them, but because they seem to have been the first aerial excursions made purely with a view to philosophical research; and moreover, because in some respects the inferences to be drawn from them are at variance with the deductions formed from the experiments performed in the two following ascents; the first by Biot and Gay-Lussac, and the second by the latter philosopher alone.

Biot and
Gay-
Lussac.

M. Biot and Gay-Lussac ascended from the *Conservatoire des Arts*, on the 24th of August, 1804, their principal object being to examine whether the magnetic power experienced any appreciable diminution as we ascend from the terrestrial surface. It seems from the account given by Messrs. Sacharof and Robertson, that there was at least a change in the dipping power; and Saussure, from experiments made on the Col de Geant, at the height of 3435 metres above the level of the sea, thought he could perceive a very sensible decrease of magnetic virtue, which he estimated at one-fifth. It had even been asserted by some aeronauts, that the magnetic energy vanishes entirely at a certain height; and it appeared important to many of the members of the Institute to ascertain the truth or fallacy of these assertions, and Saussure, in particular, was anxious that his observations might be repeated in isolated situations remote from any effect of local attractions.

Besides the usual provisions of barometers, ther-

mometers, hygrometers, and electrometers, MM. Biot and Gay-Lussac took with them two compasses and a dipping needle, with another fine needle carefully magnetized, and suspended by a very delicate silk thread, for ascertaining by its vibration the force of the magnetic attractions in the upper regions of the atmosphere; and, to examine the electricity of the different strata of this medium, they carried several metallic wires, from 60 to 300 feet in length, and a small electrophorus slightly charged. For galvanic experiments, they had procured a few discs of zinc and copper, with some frogs; to which were also added some insects and birds.

It was also proposed to bring back air collected at as great a height as possible; for which purpose they had an exhausted glass ball closely shut; so that to fill it with air at any place, it was only necessary to open it, and then to stop it again with care and security.

Thus prepared, the two philosophers took their departure at 10 o'clock in the morning of the day above stated. The barometer standing at 28 inches 3 lines, or 30·13 inches English; Reaumur's thermometer at 13°·2, and the hygrometer at 80°·8, consequently very near to the greatest degree of humidity.

The ascent was extremely pleasant and gradual, and the novelty, beauty, and magnificence of the spectacle which now for the first time burst upon them, engaged all the attention of our philosophers, while the indistinct bus of distant gratulations from innumerable spectators gently met their ear. These first moments being passed, they entered the region of the clouds, which seemed like a thin fog, and gave them a slight sensation of humidity. The balloons now had become quite inflated, and they were obliged to let part of the gas escape by opening the upper valve; at the same time throwing out some ballast to gain a greater elevation, and in a few minutes they had risen completely above the clouds, which they did not enter again till their return. These clouds had in this situation a similar bluish tint to that which they exhibit from the surface of the earth, while their upper surface, full of small eminences and undulations, presented to the aeronauts the appearance of a vast plain covered with snow. At this time their altitude, computed according to Laplace's barometrical formula, was 2000 metres, or about 6500 English feet, and here their observations and experiments first commenced.

On attempting to make their needle oscillate, they discovered that the balloon had a slight rotatory motion, on the magnet, which made a continual variation between the position of the ear and the direction of the needle, and thus prevented them from observing the point where the oscillations terminated. The magnetic property, however, was not destroyed; for on presenting a small piece of iron to the needle, attraction took place. The rotatory motion became sensible when the ropes of the car were brought into a straight line with any terrestrial object, or with the edges of the clouds, the contours of which were sensibly distinguishable the one from the other.

Being thus prevented from making these observations with all the accuracy they could have desired, they proceeded to other experiments.

Electricity was excited by the contact of insulated metals, the same as on the earth. An electric pile was prepared with 20 discs of copper and as many of zinc, from which was obtained, as usual, the pungent taste, a shock, and the decomposition of water. All this, M. Biot observes, might have been foreseen, since it is known the

AERO-NAUTICS.
Apparatus and instruments.

ARRO-
NAUTICS.Electric ex-
periments.

action of this pile does not cease even in a vacuum. Their computed height was about 3724 metres. At this elevation the animals they carried with them seemed to suffer no inconvenience from the rarity of the air; a violet bee, which they now sent off, flew quickly away with its usual humming noise; the barometer at this time was at 20½ inches, and the thermometer 10°-40, answering to 55°-4 of the Fahrenheit scale; yet they experienced no cold, but, on the contrary, felt scorched with the heat of the sun's rays; their pulses were much accelerated; that of Gay-Lussac, from its usual heat of 60 to 80 pulsations per minute, and that of Biot from 79 to 111; they still, however, experienced no sort of uneasiness, nor any difficulty in breathing.

The balloon still continued its rotatory, or rather its oscillating motion, for it was observed, by means of distant objects, as above stated, that they did not always revolve in the same way; for after a certain time the motion became less sensible, and ultimately ceased, when another vibration began in the opposite direction.

Magnetic
experiments
repeated.

The voyagers took advantage of these momentary cessations to make their magnetic experiments; but as this stationary state continued only for a few moments, it was not possible to observe even so few as twenty consecutive vibrations as on the earth. They were, therefore, under the necessity of being satisfied with ten, or even five, taking at the same time great care not to agitate the car; for the slightest motion, even of the hand in writing down their observations, was found sufficient to turn them aside. They made ten series of observations of this kind at different altitudes, from 2897 metres to 3977 metres, which in all amounted to 65 oscillations, and the mean of the whole, and of each set separately, gave very nearly the same result as their observations on the earth's surface. From these observations, M. Biot concludes, *that the magnetic property experiences no appreciable diminution from the surface of the earth to the height of 4000 metres, or 15748 English feet; its action within these limits being constantly manifested by the same effect, and according to the same law.*

With respect to the inclination of the magnetic needle, M. Biot observes, that he was not able to observe it with so much accuracy, and therefore cannot assert positively that it experiences no variation; although he thinks it very probable that it does not, its horizontal force having undergone no variation. At least, if any such did take place, it was very inconceivable, because the magnetic bars, brought into equilibrium before their departure, retained their horizontality during their whole journey, which would not have been the case had the force which tends to incline them experienced any sensible change.

The declination of the needle was also another object of the research of these philosophers, but the weather, and the disposition of the apparatus, did not permit them to come to any decided conclusion on this point; they seem, however, to incline here also to the opinion that it does not vary in any sensible manner.

Experi-
ments of the
atmosphere.

M. Biot and Gay-Lussac had now ascended to the height of 13,385 feet, but had not yet made many of their electric experiments, their attention having been almost entirely engrossed with their observations on the magnet, which was the principal object they had in view. In order now to try the apparatus, a wire was let down 240 feet in length, which being insulated, electricity was extracted from its upper extremity, and applied to the

electrometer; and it was found to be resinous. This experiment was performed twice at the same moment; first by destroying the atmospheric electricity by the influence of the vitreous electricity of the electrophorus, and secondly by destroying the vitreous electricity extracted from the electrophorus, by means of the atmospheric electricity. In this manner it was ascertained that the latter was resinous.

From these experiments it was inferred that the electricity increases as we ascend farther from the surface of the earth, which agrees with the theory and experiments of Volta and Saussure. The observations on the thermometer indicated on the contrary, a decrease of temperature as we ascend upwards, which is also agreeable to results before known; but the difference was much less than might have been expected; for on rising to the height of 2,000 toises, viz. far above the limits of perpetual snow in the latitudes of Paris or London, the temperature did not fall below 50°-9 on Fahrenheit's scale, the thermometer indicating at the same moment at the observatory no more than 63½°.

Another remarkable fact given by these observations is, that the hygrometer always advanced towards dryness as the balloon rose in the atmosphere, and that in descending it gradually returned to humidity. At the time the ascent took place, this instrument indicated 80°-8 at 16°-5 of the centigrade thermometer, and at the elevation of 4000 metres, though the temperature was only 10°-5, it gave no more than 30°. The air is consequently much drier in the upper regions than at the surface of the earth; this at least is the conclusion that M. Biot wishes to deduce from the above results, but we have seen the justness of it questioned. It has been observed, that the indications of the hygroscope depend on the relative attraction for humidity possessed by the substances employed, and the medium in which it is immersed. But air has its disposition to retain moisture, always augmented by rarefaction, and consequently such alteration alone must materially affect the hygroscope. Such are the results of this, which has generally been considered the most scientific ascent that had yet been made; and having accompanied the aeronauts thus far on their voyage, we propose to attend them in their descent, which took place under the following circumstances:

The ballast being very nearly all expended, they resolved to descend by permitting part of the hydrogen gas to escape. When they had descended to within 4000 feet of the earth's surface, the balloon entered the stratum of clouds spoken of above, extending horizontally, but with the surface heaved into gentle swells. When they reached the ground, no people were near to stop the machine, in consequence of which they were dragged in the car to some distance along the fields. From this awkward and even dangerous situation they could not extricate themselves, without discharging all the remaining gas.

It has been reported that M. Biot, though a man of activity, and apparent firmness, was so overpowered by the alarm of their descent, as to lose, for the time, the entire possession of himself, notwithstanding, in his memoir, presented a few days afterwards to the Institute, he proposed to go up again, if such were the wish of that learned body.

He did not, however, ascend a second time, but at the desire of several philosophers in Paris, M. Gay-Lussac's

Gay-
Lussac's re-
condemned

AÉRO-NAUTICS. Lussac made another voyage alone on the 15th of September; the ascent taking place from the same ground, at about forty minutes past nine o'clock in the morning. Experience had instructed this philosopher to reduce his apparatus, and to adapt them better to actual circumstances. As he could only count the vibrations of the magnetic needle during the very short intervals which occurred between the contrary rotations of the balloon, he preferred one of not more than six inches in length, which therefore oscillated quicker. The dipping needle was magnetized and adjusted by the ingenious M. Coulomb. To protect the thermometer from the action of the sun, it was enclosed within two concentric cylinders of pasteboard, covered with gilt paper. The hygrometers, constructed on Richer's principle, with four hairs, were sheltered nearly in the same manner. Two glass flasks, intended to bring down air from the highest regions of the atmosphere, had been exhausted, till the mercurial gauge stood at the 95th part of an inch; and their stop-cocks were so perfectly fixed, that after the lapse of eight days they still preserved the vacuum. These articles, with two barometers, were the principal instruments which M. Gay-Lussac took with him. The barometer at the time of the ascent, stood at 76.525 centimetres, or 30.66 English inches; the hygrometer at 57.5, and the thermometer at 27.50 of the centigrade; or 89° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. Scarcely had M. Gay-Lussac ascended to the height of 3000 feet, when he saw a light vapour dispersed throughout the

whole atmosphere below him, through which distant objects could only be observed confusedly. When he had ascended to the height of 3032 metres, or about 9950 English feet, he began his experiments on the horizontal needle, which was found to make 20 oscillations in 83", while at the earth, 83" would have been necessary to perform the same number. At the height of 12680 feet the inclination of the needle, taking a mean of the amplitude of the oscillations, was sensibly 31°, as at the observatory; but much time and patience was necessary for making this observation, because though carried away by the mass of the atmosphere, a slight wind was continually experienced, which deranged the position of the compass; and after several fruitless attempts to repeat it, the philosopher was obliged to renounce making any further observations of this kind.

The same fate attended M. Gay-Lussac's observations on the dipping needle; for the dryness, favoured by the action of the sun, in a rarefied air, was so great, that the compass became deranged by the bending of the metallic circle, on which the divisions were traced out, so as to render all his deductions uncertain; declining therefore these hopeless parts of his enquiry, he proceeded to his other experiments, in which he was much more successful; and in order to bring them better under an immediate point of view, they are arranged by the author, in his report of his voyage, in a tabular form, which we think also the best way of presenting them to our readers.

AÉRO-NAUTICS.

Table of the Observations of Mr. GAY-LUSSAC, in his ascent on the 15th of September, 1804.

Temperature expressed in degrees of the centigrade thermometer.	Mean of the indications of the two hygrometers.	Mean height of the barometer, reduced to that of a barometer at a constant level.	Corresponding heights in metres above Paris.	The same in toises.	Number of magnetic oscillations.	Duration of the oscillations in seconds.	Oscillations reduced to the common number 10.	Corresponding time.
27° 75	57.5	76.525	Surface.	Surface.	30	126° 5	10	42° 16
12.50	62.0	53.81	3032.01	1555.64	20	83.3	10	41.5
11.00	50.0	51.43	3412.11	1750.66				
8.50	37.3	49.68	3691.32	1893.92				
10.50	33.0	49.05	3816.79	1958.29	10	42.0	10	42.0
—	—	45.28	4511.61	2314.84	39	127.5	10	42.5
12.0	30.9	46.66	4264.65	2188.08	30	125.5	10	41.8
11.0	29.9	46.26	4327.86	2220.51	20	86.0	10	43.0
8.25	27.6	44.04	4725.90	2428.89	20	84.5	10	42.2
6.50	27.5	43.53	4808.74	2467.24	30	128.5	10	42.8
8.75	29.4	45.28	4511.61	2314.84	30	127.5	10	42.5
5.25	30.1	42.49	5001.85	2566.32				
4.25	27.5	41.14	5267.73	2702.74	40	169	10	42.2
2.5	32.7	39.85	5519.16	2831.74				
0.4	30.2	39.01	5674.85	2911.62				
1.0	33.0	41.41	5175.06	2654.68	30	126.5	10	42.1
—3.0	32.4	37.17	6040.70	3099.32				
—1.0	32.1	36.96	6107.19	3133.44	20	84.0	10	42.0
0.0	35.1	39.18	5631.65	2889.45	30	127.5	10	42.5
—3.25	33.9	36.70	6143.31	3151.97	20	82.0	10	41.0
—7.0	34.5	33.39	6884.14	3532.07				
—9.5		32.88	6977.97	3579.9				

AERO-
NAUTICS.

If now we cast our eye over the table of results, it will be seen that the temperature follows an irregular law in regard to the corresponding heights, which, our philosopher supposes, arises from the circumstance of the observations being sometimes made in ascending, and others in descending; and that the thermometer obeyed the actual variations too slowly. But if we consider only the degrees of the thermometer which form a decreasing series, we shall find a more regular law; thus the temperature at the earth being 27.75, and at the height of 3691, 8°·5, if we divide the difference of the heights by that of the temperatures, we shall first obtain 191.7 metres, or 98.3 toises of elevation for each lowering of one degree of temperature. Performing the same operation for the temperatures 5°·25 and 0°·5, as well as for those of 0°·0 and -0°·25, we shall find in both cases 241.6 metres, or 73.6 toises of elevation for each degree of temperature, which seems to indicate, that towards the surface of the earth the heat follows a less decreasing law than in the upper parts of the atmosphere, and at greater heights it follows a decreasing arithmetical progression. The lowest point of temperature observed was -9°·25, corresponding to 14°·9 of Fahrenheit's thermometer; the corresponding height being then equal to 23040 English feet above the earth's surface, or 4.4 miles.

The hygrometer had a very remarkable progress. At the surface of the earth it was only 57½°, while, at the height of 3030 metres, it marked 62°. From this point it continually fell, till the balloon reached the height of 5267 metres, where it indicated 27½°, and thence to the height of 6884 metres it gradually rose to 34½°. If we wish, from these results, to determine the law of the quantity of water dissolved in the air at different elevations, it is evident that attention must be paid to the temperature, and, by adding this consideration, it will be found to follow a rapidly decreasing progression.

With respect to the magnetic operations, all that can be concluded from them is, that it seems highly probable that no sensible difference in the action of the magnetic force is observable at the greatest heights to which we can ascend, and some doubt is certainly thrown, from the results of this and the preceding voyage, on the deductions drawn from that of Messrs. Saichard and Robertson.

Air flasks.

The two air flasks to which we have alluded were opened, one at the height of 21460 feet, and the other at 21790 feet, when the air rushed into them through the narrow aperture with a whistling noise; having properly stopped the orifices again, the balloon soon after attained its greatest height, 4½ English miles, when the barometer indicated only 12.95 inches.

From this stupendous height M. Gay-Lussac still saw clouds at a considerable height above, but none below, although the atmosphere had a dull misty appearance, which destroyed its transparent quality; the limit, therefore, fixed by M. Saichard for the greatest height of the clouds is obviously erroneous.

While occupied with experiments at this enormous elevation, M. Gay-Lussac, though well clothed, began to suffer from excessive cold, and his hands, by continual exposure, grew benumbed. He felt likewise a difficulty in breathing, and his pulse and respiration were much quickened. His throat became so parched that he could scarcely swallow a morsel of bread; but

AERO-
NAUTICS.

he experienced no other direct inconvenience from his situation. He had, indeed, been affected through the whole day with a slight head-ache, brought on by preceding fatigues and want of sleep, but though it continued without abatement, it was not increased by his ascent.

The ballast being now reduced to 33 pounds, and Descart, the balloon completely distended, it began to drop; and M. Gay-Lussac, therefore, only sought to regulate its descent. It subsided very gently, at the rate of about a mile in eight minutes, and in little more than half an hour the anchor touched the ground, and instantly secured the car. The voyager alighted with great ease near the hamlet of St. Gourgon, about 16 miles north-west of Rouen. As soon as he reached Paris, he hastened to the laboratory of the Polytechnic School with his flasks containing the air of the higher regions, and proceeded to analyse it in the presence of Thenard and Gresset. When opened under water, the fluid rushed into the vessels, and apparently half filled their capacity. The transported air was found, by a very delicate analysis, to contain exactly the same proportions as that collected near the surface of the earth, every 1000 parts holding 215 of oxygen. From concurring observations, therefore, we may conclude that the atmosphere is essentially the same in all situations.

We have given the details of the two preceding ascents at considerable length, in consequence of the scientific researches the aeronauts had in view, and which they accomplished, if not entirely in such a manner as to satisfy the eager curiosity of philosophers, at least in a way highly creditable to themselves, when we consider all the difficulties of their situations. The length of detail, however, to which we have extended our remarks on these scientific voyages, renders it necessary to pass slightly over others performed merely to gratify the curiosity of spectators, although many of these even were attended with circumstances highly curious and interesting to the general reader. We shall confine our remarks only to the following:

On the 7th of April, 1806, M. Moisant, an experienced aeronaut, undertook an aerial voyage from Lisle; he ascended at noon, waving a flag decorated with the imperial eagle, amid the shouts of the assembled spectators. The commencement of his career was so rapid, as to carry him, in a very short time, beyond the vision of the crowd. During his ascent he dropped a dog, attached to a parachute, which came safely to the ground. About one o'clock something was observed slowly descending through the atmosphere, which proved, on its fall, to be the flag that M. Moisant had carried with him. Very soon after, a murmur circulated through the crowd, that the body of the unfortunate adventurer was discovered in one of the fosses of the city, lifeless, and covered with blood, which proved but too correct. The balloon reached the ground on the same day, at the distance of twenty-five leagues from Lisle. The car contained nothing except an unloaded pistol, a little bread, and a piece of meat. M. Garnerin ascribes this melancholy disaster to the extreme shallowness of the ear, and the too great distance between the cords which attached it to the balloon; and is of opinion that M. Moisant, in lenning over the car to drop the animal, had lost his balance and was thus precipitated to the earth.

Another interesting voyage was that undertaken by

AERO-NAUTICS.

Garnerin's nocturnal ascension.

M. Garnerin, at eleven o'clock in the evening of the 4th of August, 1807. He ascended from Tivoli in Paris, under the Russian flag, as a token of the peace that subsisted at that time between France and Russia. His balloon was illuminated by twenty lamps, and to obviate all dangers of communication between these and the hydrogen gas, which it might be necessary to discharge in the course of the voyage, the nearest of the lamps was fourteen feet distant from the balloon, and conductors were provided to carry the gas away in an opposite direction. After his ascent, rockets which were let off from Tivoli, seemed to him scarcely to rise above the earth, and Paris, with all its lamps, appeared a plane studded with luminous spots. In forty minutes he found himself at an elevation of 13,200 feet, when, in consequence of the dilatation of the balloon, he was under the necessity of discharging a part of the inflammable air. About 12 o'clock, when 3,600 feet from the earth, he heard the barking of dogs; about two o'clock in the morning he saw several meteors flying around him, but none of them so near as to create apprehension; at half past three he beheld the sun emerging in brilliant majesty above an ocean of clouds, and the gas being thereby expanded, the balloon soon rose 15,000 feet above the earth, where he felt the cold extremely intense. In seven hours and a half from this departure, M. Garnerin descended near Loges, forty-five leagues distant from Paris.

Second nocturnal ascent.

On the 21st of September, 1807, the same intrepid aeronaut undertook a second nocturnal voyage, in the course of which he was exposed to the most imminent danger. M. Garnerin, prognosticating an approaching storm from the state of the atmosphere, refused to be accompanied by a second person, who earnestly requested it. He ascended, therefore, alone from Tivoli, and was carried up, with unexampled rapidity, to an immense height above the clouds; the balloon was there dilated to an alarming degree, and M. Garnerin, having been prevented, from the impatience of the mob before his ascent, from regulating those parts of the apparatus which were meant to conduct the gas away from the lamps on its escape, was totally unable to manage the balloon; he had no alternative left, therefore, but, with one hand, to make an opening two feet in diameter, through which the inflammable air was discharged in great quantities, and with the other to extinguish as many of the lamps as he could possibly reach. The adventurer was now without a regulating valve, and the balloon, subject to every caprice of the whirlwind, was tossed about from current to current. When the storm impelled him downwards, he was obliged to cast out his ballast to restore the ascending tendency, and, at length, every resource being exhausted, no expedient was left him to provide against future exigencies. In this storm condition the balloon rose through thick clouds, but afterwards sunk, and the car having struck against the ground with a violent impulse, rebounded from it to a considerable altitude. The fury of the storm dashed him against the mountains, and after many rude agitations and severe shocks, he was reduced to a state of temporary insensibility. On recovering from this perilous situation, he reached Mount Tonnerre in a storm of thunder. A very short time after his anchor hooked in a tree, and in seven hours and a half after his departure, he landed at the distance of three hundred

miles from Paris, which is at the rate of forty miles per hour, supposing his course to have been straight. This is only about half the velocity with which this gentleman, in one of his excursions in this country, was conveyed from London to Colechester, a distance of sixty miles, which he passed over in three quarters of an hour.

AERO-NAUTICS.

Sadler's excursion from Dublin to Liverpool.

We shall close this account of aerial excursions with that of our intrepid countryman, Sadler, who undertook the perilous task of passing from Dublin in Liverpool, on the 1st of October, 1813. He ascended from Belvidere House, about one o'clock on the above day, with the wind at south-west, and in 35 minutes had sight of the mountains in Wales; he continued in the same direction till three o'clock, when being nearly over the Isle of Man, the wind blowing fresh, he found himself approaching the Welch coast; and at four o'clock had a distinct view of the Skerry light-house, with the prospect of consummating his ardent hopes of a speedy arrival in Liverpool. The wind now shifting, he was taken off, and lost sight of land; when after hovering about a long time, he discovered five vessels beating down Channel; and in hopes of their assistance, he determined to descend with all possible expedition, and precipitated himself into the sea. In this most critical situation, he had the mortification to find that the vessels took no notice of him. Obligated, therefore, to re-ascend, he now threw out a quantity of ballast, and quickly regained his lofty situation to look out for more friendly aid. It was a length of time before he had the satisfaction of discovering any, but now observed a vessel which gave him to understand, by signals, that she intended to assist him. Two others also, at this time, appeared in sight, and one of them, tacking about, hoisted the Manx colours. Night coming on, he was determined to avail himself of their proffered kindness, and accordingly once more descended to the sea. Here the wind, acting upon the balloon as it lay on the water, drew the car with so much velocity that the vessel could not overtake it; and notwithstanding he used his utmost efforts, and finally tied his cloths to the grappling iron, and sunk them to keep him steady, still the balloon was carried away so fast, that he was under the necessity of expelling the gas; upon which the car actually sunk, and he had now nothing but the netting to cling to. His perilous situation and the fear of getting entangled, deterred the men from coming near him; until in danger of being drowned, Mr. Sadler begged they would run their bowsprit through the balloon and expell the remaining gas. Having done this, and thrown out a line which he wound round his arm, he was dragged a considerable way, but was fortunately, at length, got on board nearly exhausted. The representation of the car of this balloon in its ascent, is shown in plate 2.

Having given this sketch of the history and progress of aeronautics, it remains for us to offer some remarks relative to the art of constructing and filling neostatic machines. With respect to the form best suited for a balloon, practice seems to have confirmed the globular or elliptical, although mere theorists have contended for a far different figure.

Supposing the globular form, the following method has been recommended for forming the several gores of which the balloon is to be composed. Referring to fig. 7, plate 1, AERONAUTICS, the breadths of each slip,

AFRO. NAUTICS. at the several distances from the point to the middle, where it is broadest, are directly as the sines of those distances, radius being the sine of half the length of the slip, or of the distance from either point to the middle of the slip. That is, if $aBCD$ represent one of these gores, AB being half the circumference, or AE a quadrant, conceived to be equal to AC or AD ; then will CD be to ab , as radius, or the sine of AC to the sine of Aa . So that if the quadrant AE or AC be divided into any number of equal parts, as, for instance, nine, and the quadrant or 90° be divided by 9, the quotient 10 is the number of degrees in each part; and hence the arcs AC , Aa , Ac , &c. will be respectively 90° , 80° , 70° , &c. and CD being radius, the several breadths ab , cd , ef , &c. will be respectively the sines of 80° , 70° , 60° , &c. which are, in the figure, placed opposite, the radius being 1. Therefore, when it is proposed to cut out slips for a globe of a given diameter, we must compute the circumference, and make AE , or AC , equal to one quarter of that circumference, and CD of any breadth, as 3 feet, or 2 feet, or any other quantity; then multiply each of the decimal numbers set opposite the figure by the breadth of CD , so will the several products be the breadths of ab , cd , ef , &c. required.

This construction, it will be observed, applies only to the spherical balloon; another, very simple in its operation, and answering to any figure whatever, is described by Mr. Evans, in the Philosophical Magazine for November, 1815.

Having by one or other of the above methods formed the gores, and united them in their required form, the next object is to render the whole impervious to the gas with which they are to be filled; for which purpose the following varnish is said to answer best.

Varnish.

In order to render linseed oil drying, boil it with two ounces of sugar of lead and three ounces of litharge for every pint of oil, till they are dissolved, which will be in about half an hour. Then put a pound of bird-lime and half a pint of drying oil into an iron vessel, whose capacity should be about a gallon, and let it boil very gently over a slow charcoal fire, till the bird-lime ceases to crackle, which will be in about three quarters of an hour; then pour upon it about two pints and a half more of the drying oil, and let it boil another hour, stirring it frequently with an iron or wooden spatula. As the varnish, when boiling, and especially when nearly done, swells very much, care should be taken to remove, in those cases, the pot from the fire, replacing it when the varnish subsides, otherwise it will boil over. While the boiling is going on, the operator should occasionally examine whether it has boiled enough, which may be known by observing whether, when rubbed between two knives, and then separated from one another, the varnish forms threads between them: if it do it must then be removed from the fire. When nearly cold, add about an equal quantity of spirit of turpentine. In using the varnish the silk of the balloon must be stretched, and the varnish luke-warm. In twenty-four hours it will be dry. As the elastic resin, known by the name of Indian rubber, has been much extolled for a varnish, the following method of making it, as practised by M. Blanchard, may not prove unacceptable.

Dissolve elastic resin, cut small, in five times its weight of rectified essential oil of turpentine, by keep-

ing them some days together; then boil one ounce of this solution in eight ounces of drying linseed oil for a few minutes; strain the solution and use it warm.

The car, or boat, is best made of wicker work, covered with leather, and pointed; and the proper method of suspending it is by ropes proceeding from the net which goes over the balloon. The net should be formed to the shape of the balloon, and fall down to the middle of it, with various cords proceeding from it to the circumference of a circle, about twenty feet below the balloon; and from this circle other ropes should go to the edge of the boat. The meshes of the net may be small at top, against which part of the balloon the inflammable air exerts the greatest force, and increase in size as they recede from the top.

All things being thus prepared, the manner of filling is as follows:—When the balloon is small, as, for example, three or four feet in diameter, it may be filled by passing the hydrogen gas through water, by means of the apparatus represented (fig. 8, plate II.). A is a bottle containing the ingredients which are to produce the gas; BCD is a tube in the form of a siphon, fastened by one extremity into the neck of the bottle, and passing through a hole in the stopper of another bottle E ; it extends so far as almost to touch the bottom of this bottle, which is nearly full of water. To another hole in the cork of the bottle E , is adapted another tube, to the outward extremity of which a bladder or aperture of the balloon is tied. The inflammable air coming out of the aperture D of the tube, passes through the water of the bottle E , and then enters into the balloon. Two small casks might be employed instead of the bottles A and E .

Another apparatus for producing hydrogen gas, and conveying it into the balloon, is represented (fig. 9), where ABC is a vessel made of clay or of iron, in the form of a Florence flask, and the substance yielding gas is introduced into it, so as to occupy about four-fifths or less of its cavity. If the substance swell much by the action of the fire applied to it, a tube of brass, or first of brass and then a leaden tube, must be luted to the neck C of the vessel. The extremity of the tube is made to pass through the water of a vessel HI , and to terminate under an inverted vessel EF ; to the upper aperture of which the balloon, or a tube going to the balloon, is adapted. When the part AB of the vessel is put into the fire and made red hot, the inflammable air that is generated will come out of the tube CD , and passing through the water in the vessel, it will at last enter into the balloon G . As a considerable quantity of common air remains in the inverted vessel EF , before the operation is begun, it should have a stop-cock K , through which it may be drawn off by suction, and then the water will ascend as high as the stop-cock. The aperture of the vessel EF should be at least one foot below the surface of the water in HI , and the fire should be at a sufficient distance from the vessel HI , that the inflammable air, if any of it should escape, may not take fire and do injury.

The apparatus for filling an inflammable air balloon of a larger kind, is represented fig. 10. AA are two large tubes about three feet in diameter, and nearly two feet deep, inverted in larger vessels. At the bottom of each of the inverted vessels there is a hole, to which is adapted a tin tube E , about seven inches in diameter and seven or eight inches long. To these tubes the

AERO-NAUTICS. B is surrounded by several strong casks, so regulated in number and capacity, as to be less than half full when the materials are equally distributed. In the top of each of these casks are two holes, and to one of the holes is adapted a tin tube, formed so as to pass over the edge of the tube B, and through the water, and to terminate with its aperture under the inverted tub A. The other hole, which serves for supplying the cask with materials, is stopped with a wooden plug. These tin tubes may be about three inches and a half in diameter, and the other holes may be smaller. Two masts, with a rope, &c. are used for this machine, although they are not absolutely necessary; because the balloon, by means of a narrow scaffold, or other contrivance, may be elevated above the level of the tubs AA. When the balloon is to be filled, the net is put over it, and suspended as exhibited in the figure. Having expelled all the common air from the balloon, its silk tubes are fastened round the tin tubes EE, and the materials in the casks being properly proportioned, by putting in first the iron, then the water, and lastly the vitriolic acid, the balloon will soon be inflated by the inflammable air, and support itself without the aid of the rope GII. As the filling advances, the net is adjusted round it; the ropes proceeding from the net are fastened to the hoop MN; the boat IK, is suspended from the hoop MN, and every thing necessary for the voyage is deposited in it. When the balloon is a little more than three quarters full, the silk tubes are separated from the tin tubes, and their extremities being tied, they are placed in the boat. Finally, when the aeronauts are seated in the boat, the lateral ropes are slipped off, and the machine with its appendages ascends into the atmosphere.

Proportion
of materials.

It would be excessively laborious, if not absolutely impossible, to collect hydrogen gas as it exists in its natural state, therefore such artificial means as those described above, are always had recourse to as the most convenient and productive. The materials commonly consist of a solution of iron, or zinc, in sulphuric acid. The iron best adapted for the purpose consists of the turnings produced by the boring of cannons; but when this cannot be obtained, chips of iron should be preferred to filings. It is of importance to attend to the purity of the metal, for rust produces hydrocarbonate, a gas specifically heavier than atmospheric air; grease also is injurious, because it resists the action of the acid. The sulphuric acid must be diluted with five or six times its weight of water; iron yields about 1700 times its own bulk of gas; therefore, four and a half ounces of iron, with the same weight of sulphuric acid, and 22½ of water, will produce a cubic foot of inflammable air; and of zinc six ounces, with the same quantity of acid, and 30 ounces of water, will produce a cubic foot of air. The gas is collected, as stated above, into a number of casks, which should be lined with tin. M. Garnerio, in 1802, used thirty six casks, every twelve of which communicated with a collar, and three tubes from three collars conveyed the gas into one large tube, which joined to the balloon. Professor Robertson and Sacharof, of whose voyage we have given the detail, had twenty-five vessels communicating with a collar, into each of which they put 120 lbs. of iron filings, chiefly from cast iron, with 600 lbs. of water, and 120 lbs. of sulphuric acid poured over it. The filling of the balloon occupied five hours. M.

Blanchard filled a balloon twenty-one feet in diameter from only four casks, each holding 120 gallons. Lunardi, of whom we have also spoken, reduced his apparatus to still greater simplicity, employing only two casks, from which the gas was transmitted into the balloon without passing through the water; and in the short space of half an hour he filled the balloon by which he ascended from Edinburgh and Glasgow. The shape of this machine resembled a pear, being twenty-three feet in diameter and thirty in height. M. Blanchard used 1000 lbs. of iron and 1250 lbs. of sulphuric acid, for the production of the gas to fill a balloon of twenty-one feet. Lunardi, on the occasion just mentioned, employed 2000 lbs. of each, and 12,000 lbs. of water. The latest writer on this subject, computes that this quantity should suffice for a balloon of thirty feet in diameter, which is 14,137 feet in capacity. The balloon of thirty-three feet, in which Lunardi first ascended in England, and one that ascended at Nantz about the same time, were filled from zinc instead of iron. Making allowance for the expansion of the gas during the ascent, the balloon ought never to be filled above three-fourths.

There is also another method of procuring hydrogen gas, by passing water over tubes, or through tubes previously heated to redness, but there is a danger of the metal running to a slag before any considerable quantity of gas is obtained; a balloon, however, thirty-two feet in diameter, has been filled by this process in the space of eight hours.

The above may, we believe, be considered to contain all that has been practically ascertained upon this interesting subject; and it would be useless to enter at much length into the illustration of theories, which only exist in the imagination of their respective authors. One of the greatest defects attending the machines we have been describing consists in the difficulty, perhaps we might say the impossibility, of conducting them in the atmosphere; they are immersed in strong currents of air, with which they are irresistibly borne away, in any direction, at hazard, without the navigator having it at all in his power to restrain or direct their course. When we consider that M. Garnerio was taken from London to Colchester at the rate of eighty miles per hour, any idea of force existing in the aeronaut, or in any wings or sails with which he may be furnished to direct his course, seems perfectly hopeless; yet numerous plans are frequently suggested under a view of effecting such a purpose. We are by no means disposed to check the spirit of scientific pursuit, and freely acknowledge that many things are accomplished by perseverance, which, in the first instance, appeared almost as impossible as that of directing a balloon at the pleasure of the voyager; but still we must confess that our hopes of success in this case are very little removed from despair.

Mr. John Evans has published, at different times, his ideas on this subject, in Tiltlock's Philosophical Magazine; and proposes to attain any desired direction by means of oblique ascents and descents, in the same manner as a ship frequently reaches its destined port, with the wind full a-head, by repeated oblique traverses. See Phil. Mag. No. 211.

Sir George Cayley has also directed much of his attention to this subject, and has many ingenious speculations connected with it, published in Nicholson's

AERO-NAUTICS.

ÆRO. Journal, and in the Philosophical Magazine; and particularly in the former, on the construction and operations of parachutes. In a number of the latter work for February, 1816, we have a paper by this philosopher, in which he suggests the power of steam, not only for filling the balloon, but for working machinery in it to serve for its direction; and concludes by stating, that he thinks it very possible that the lines by Darwin, with reference to the power of steam, may be eventually realized.

ÆRO-NAUTICS.
—
ÆRUSCATOR.

ÆRO-NAUTICS.
—
ÆSYMNIUM.

" Soon shall thy arm, unconquer'd Steam! arise
Drag the slow barge, or drive the rapid car;
Or on wide waving wings expanded bear
The flying chariot through the streams of air.
Fair eyes a twinkling, leaning from above,
Shall wave their fluttering kerchiefs as they move;
Or warrior hands alarm the gaping crowd,
And armies shrink beneath the shadowy cloud."

For our own parts, we must confess that such flights of imagination seem to us to become poetry much better than philosophy.

ÆRUGO (asp. air, or ether, from its blue colour), the rust or oxid of metal, particularly of copper. It is formed naturally, as in the copper mines, or artificially, as in verdigrise, and is produced by the action of viscid acid on the metal. *Æregious* is an adjective that has been formed from this word.

ÆRUGO PÆPÆRATA, prepared verdigrise. In the Pharmacopœia Londinensis this is the basis of the unguentum wruginis.

ÆRUSCATOR, in Antiquity, from the Latin *æru-car*, to beg. A sort of vagabonds, whose character appears to have answered to that of our gypsies. Certain priests of the goddess Cybele were also called *æruclators* of the great mother, because of their employment of begging, or alms-gathering, in public streets. These priests attracted attention by the ringing of little bells. Hence, probably, the custom of some mendicant orders abroad; and of lepers appearing formerly in some parts of our own country, with bell and clapper. It was a term also applied to oppressive tax-gatherers.

Æ, *Æ*, light, fire, ether; in Ancient Metallurgy, brass or copper, probably from the bright colour of those metals. In more modern usage, *Æ* signifies brass, and cuprum is applied to copper. *Æ* **FLAVUM** was a name sometimes given to this compound. Amongst the Romans, *Æ* signified money generally, their first coinage having been brass; and some nations still call their money by the name of that particular metal, in which it is of most frequent currency; as the *ælder* or *silver* of the Scotch. The ancients had various sorts of the *Æ*, such as *Æ* caldarium, or *Æ* olarium, cast brass, or pot brass, which was not malleable. *Æ* candidum was of a pure and white kind, found, it is said, under the veins of silver in the mine, and seems to have been similar to tale; or it was nothing more than a whiter brass. *Æ* uxorium was a sum paid by Roman bachelors for living single to old age.

Æ **CORINTHIUM**. This was accounted the most costly and precious composition of all the brasses of the ancients. Pliney affirms that it was first discovered at the sacking of Corinth, from which it obtained its name. It was said to be a mixture of gold, silver, and the common brass; and was divided into the red, the white, and the common money-colour; but no gold can be obtained, after the most accurate analysis, from some pieces of this compound which have come down to us.

Æ **CYPRICUM**, a copper, from which superior brass was made, found in the island Cyprus.

Æ **HEPATICON**, was of a silvery colour, and is sometimes thought to have been bronze.

Æ **USTUM**, or *as scæris*, was crematum, crocus veris, cinis æris, terms applied to an ancient chemical preparation used in the famous art of staining glass. It appears to have been an oxid of copper mixed with sulphur, and was sometimes applied as a drying and detensive quality in ointments.

ÆSCHYNOMENE, the bastard sensitive plant; class and order Diadelphia, Decandria.

ÆSCULAPIUS, in Ancient Mythology, the god of medicine, and son of Apollo, by Coronis; or, according to others, by Larissa, daughter of Phlegias. Apollo set a crow to watch the nymph Coronis after his union with her; and discovering that she admitted the embraces of Ischyus of Ennomia, he destroyed her with lightning, but preserved the infant, and gave him to Chiron, the centaur, to be educated in the art of medicine. By some authors it is represented, that Coronis left her father to avoid his discovering her pregnancy, and exposed her child near Epidaurus. A goat suckled Æsculapius, and a dog of the flock of Arethanas sheltered the infant from injury. He was found by the master, Arethanas, whilst in search of his lost goat, and the head of the child was then perceived to be illuminated with a radiance of light. Minerva presented to him some of the blood of the Gorgon which she had slain, and with this Æsculapius brought several dead people to life. Pluto was displeased with the successful efforts of the physician, and lest his dominions should want inhabitants, complained to Jupiter. The father of the gods struck Æsculapius with thunder; and Apollo, in revenge, killed the Cyclops who made the thunder-bolts. Goats, bulls, lambs, and pigs were sacrificed to this god of physic; and he was first worshipped at Epidaurus, Pergamos, Athens, Smyrna, Cyrene, and Crete. Rome, being delivered from a plague A. v. c. 462, built a temple to Æsculapius, who, it was said, had concealed himself under the form of a serpent on the banks of the Tyber, and effected their deliverance from the direful disease. At Epidaurus his statue was erected of gold and ivory, with a large beard; one hand contained a staff with a serpent wreathed around it, and his other hand supported a serpent. He is generally accompanied by the symbol of vigilance, a cock.

ÆSCULUS, in Botany, the horse-chestnut; class and order Heptandria, Monogynia.

ÆSTIMATIO CAPITIS, a term of Saxon law for a fine payable on account of offences against persons of rank, the sum being proportioned to the quality of the persons aggrieved.

ÆSYMNIUM, in Antiquity. Pausanias mentions a monument of this name, built by Æsymnus, who, hav-

ÆSYM-
NIUM.
—
ÆTHER.

ing consulted the Delphic oracle respecting the best method of governing the Megareans, was answered, "By holding consultation with the most numerous." Understanding the deceased heroes and sages of former times to be intended by this, he built and consecrated a monument to them, and enclosed it with a senate-house; in which the illustrious dead were thus believed to be present with the deliberations of the living.

ÆTHALIA, or ILVA, in Ancient Geography, from *αἶθος*, smoke, which seems to denote that it formerly contained a volcano; the present well-known island of Elba. See ELBA.

ÆTHER (*æther*, to burn), in Physiology, a subtle, penetrating fluid, which has been supposed, both in ancient and modern times, to be diffused through the universe at the extremity of the earth's atmosphere; to pervade the air itself, and to occupy all the pores and interstices of matter.

The existence of such a fluid is wholly hypothetical, and has given birth to conjectures as indefinite as the space that has been assigned to its circulation. With some of the ancient philosophers, it was the origin of all things, an attenuation of fire, which, according to Hippocrates, was "immortal; knows all things; sees, hears, and determines whatsoever is, or shall hereafter be." From this fluid, existing in perfection only in the highest heavens, and encircling the whole of the material universe, all grosser elements were said to be first derived, and from them the various productions of nature. Here the gods were enthroned, and the stars rolled along in all the music of the spheres. We need not be surprised that such philosophy readily furnished language to poetry, and assimilated itself with all the grosser and more refined notions of the ancient mythologies. It was poetry and mythology in itself.

As a speculation of science, it would long since have been exploded from all connection with the inductive philosophy, but for the sanction that has been given to it by some conjectures of Sir Isaac Newton. Finding, after all his endeavours to procure a vacuum, and after the exclusion of the common air from the receiver of the air-pump, that there still was a medium through which heat would act, and the thermometer be affected by it, as in the open air, he suggested that an elastic vibrating *Æther* might remain in the vessel, as the only solution of the attending phenomena. He also connected it with his doctrine of gravitation, and subjoined it as a question "concerning its cause."—"A question, I say," he adds, in his premonition to the reader, prefixed to the second edition of *Optics*, in 1717, "for I do not hold it as a thing established." His ideas were, that this fluid or "etheral medium," being much rarer in the pores of bodies and in their immediate neighbourhood, than at a distance from them, and in the vicinity and body of the sun exceedingly rare, and denser as we recede from it, it would be repelled by all other bodies, and impel them toward the sun. Dr. Hartley ventured to construct upon this theory of a vibrating *æther*, the celebrated system of vibration, and vibrations of the medullary substance of the nerves and brain; by which he accounts for all our sensations and ideas. He even thinks it a consequence of this theory, that could matter be endowed with the most simple kinds of sensation, it might arrive at all the intelligence of which the human

mind is possessed! The metaphysical difficulties of this system are ably stated by Dr. Reid. "Our sensations arise from vibrations, and our ideas from vibratiles, or miniature vibrations; and he (Dr. Hartley) comprehends, under these two words of *sensations* and *ideas*, all the operations of the mind. But how can we expect any proof of the connection between vibrations and thought, when the existence of such vibrations was never proved. The proof of their connection cannot be stronger than the proof of their existence. For, as the author acknowledges, that we cannot infer the existence of the thoughts from the existence of the vibrations, it is no less evident, that we cannot infer the existence of vibrations from the existence of our thoughts. The existence of both must be known before we can know their connection. As to the existence of our thoughts, we have the evidence of consciousness; a kind of evidence that never was called in question. But as to the existence of vibrations, in the medullary substance of the nerves and brain, no proof has yet been brought."

Upon the scientific objections to this theory, though the great name of NEWTON is concerned, it has been inquired, whether the imperfection of the instruments employed, or other causes, may not induce us to suppose that the air is not wholly exhausted from the receiver of the air-pump, rather than that it leaves behind a fluid distinct from itself; and, with regard to the supposed connection of this fluid with gravitation, it been suggested, that it will answer none of the purposes for which it is produced. As a fluid unequally dense and elastic, according to the hypothesis, its particles are not in contact, and are elastic only by mutual repulsion; that is, by acting on each other at a distance; a repulsion which, only in operating through all the space, between the earth and the sun (to say nothing of its action in remoter parts of the universe), must multiply in every particle of the conformation of this fluid the very difficulties for which its existence is supposed to account. The conjectural shape in which Newton left his few thoughts upon this subject, would have rendered any remark upon the difficulties of establishing it, perhaps, unnecessary at this period of the world, but for the general authority of his name, its connection with Hartley's system, and with the still wilder conjectures of the ancients.

ÆTHER, in Chemistry, a light gaseous fluid, produced by the mixture of alcohol and a concentrated acid. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii.

ÆTHER, in Medicine. See MEDICINE, Div. ii.

ÆTHEREAL OIL, in Distillation, a subtle essential oil, nearly a spirit; thus, the æthereal oil of turpentine, is the liquor rising next after the spirit.

ÆTHUSA, in Botany, Fool's Parsley; a genus of plants, of the order Dignia, class Pentandria.

ÆTITES, or EAGLE-STONE, in Natural History, a flint, or crustated and hollow stone, found in slates of our common pebbles: it rattles on being shaken, and contains a nucleus. Many miraculous were properties attributed to it by the ancients; such as the prevention of abortion, the discovery of thieves, &c. There is also an idle popular story, that the female eagle (*æres*, from whence its name *ætes*) takes up this stone into her nest, while she is sitting, to prevent her eggs being rotten. They are at first soft, and become hard by their exposure to the atmosphere. Near Trevous, in France, they are very numerous.

ÆTHER.
—
ÆTITES.

Æ T N A.

ÆTNA. ÆTNA, a burning mountain of Sicily, situated on the eastern side of the island, and long a subject of curiosity and investigation to philosophic travellers. The district in which it stands is denominated by the inhabitants of the island, Val de Demoué or Demona; from a superstitious notion that it is the resort of drmons, who have chosen the caverns of this celebrated mountain as their residence.

Name. Bochart derives the name of Ætina from the Hebrew word *Athuna*, which signifies a furnace or darkness: in the Itineraries it is written *Æthana*. The heathen mythology represented Ætina as the place where Vulcan superintended the forges of the Cyclops, who were continually engaged in making thunderbolts for Jupiter.

*Ferant exercebant vasto Cyclopes in antro
Ileusque, Stereopusque, et nodus membra Pyramon.*

*On their eternal anvils here he found
The brethren healing, and the blows go round.*

This idea doubtless originated in observing the volcanic character of the mountain, which furnished a fair opportunity for poetic exaggeration and embellishment. The ancients erected a temple here to Vulcan himself, in which a perpetual fire was preserved. Ætina was also considered as the prison to which Jupiter consigned the rebellious giant Enceladus. This mountain is poetically called, by Pindar, the pillar of heaven, an epithet derived from the obscure ideas of the ancients, respecting its real elevation.

*Ætina,
Ætina ætina
Iniqua Ætina—*

Psalm. Od. l. v. 36.

Height.

In fact the precise height of the mountain has not even yet been very satisfactorily determined; although in general it is ascertained to be very inferior to the Alps, much more to the magnificent chains of mountains that appear in the western world. Sir Geo. Shuckburgh observes, in the Philosophical Transactions (vol. lxxv), that Vesuvius placed upon mount Ætina, would not be equal in elevation to mount Blanc. Without regarding the exaggerated statements of other travellers, some of whom affirm it to be six, eight, or even twelve miles in height; it may be proper to furnish the reader with a comparative estimate of some of the most authentic writers.

Kircher states the height above the level of the sea, at 4,000 toises.*

Recupero	2,500.
Mentelle	1,950.
Buffon	2,000 fathoms.
Brylone	12,000 feet.
Faujas de S. Fond	10,036 feet.
Sir G. Shuckburgh	10,954 feet.
Saussure	10,963 feet.

Circumference and size. The circumference has also been estimated very differently by different authors. M. Houel considers it as no more than forty miles at the base. Some state the circumference at sixty, others at a hundred miles, and

Recupero at a hundred and eighty-three. Mentelle makes the diameter thirty miles, and Buffon gives three hundred square leagues for the superficies.

Ætina, when viewed at a distance, has been described as assuming the appearance of an obtuse truncated cone, extended at the base, and terminating in a vertex bifurcated, or having two distinct eminences, considerably separated from each other. At a nearer approach, it possesses a singular aspect, its surface being wildly, but pleasingly diversified, with numbers of small conical projections, or hills, adorned with verdure and trees, and scattered with villages, hamlets, and monasteries. A green belt, consisting of oaks and pines, encircles the middle, while the lofty summit is covered with perpetual snow, and pierces the skies. The population of Ætina has been thought to amount to not less than a hundred thousand, diffused through seventy-seven towns and villages. The toil and difficulty of the ascent have stimulated the ardour of travellers to reach the summit, which is considered as about thirty miles distant from Catania, whence the journey is commonly undertaken.

Ætina is divided into three districts or regions, each impressed with its characteristic differences. They have distinct climates, corresponding with the gradations of ascent, and obviously enough divisible into the torrid, the temperate, and the frigid. The mountain, however, has been divided usually according to the diversities of its fertility, rather than the variations of its temperature; and accordingly we have three regions, namely, II Regione Culta, or the fertile region; II Regione Sylvosa, or the woody region; and II Regione Deserta, or the barren region. Some have added a fourth, which they denominate the Region of Snow; but this is properly included in that which takes the name of desert or barren. We shall conduct the reader through each, availing ourselves of the various information of different travellers, and presenting it in a combined and compressed form.

II Regione Culta, or the fertile region, may be considered as extending fifteen miles from the city of Catania, whence, we have already stated, the traveller usually begins his journey, and from which point the ascent commences. The superficies of this region is estimated by Buffon at upwards of two hundred and twenty square leagues. It is encircled by the rivers Semetus and Alcantara, excepting on the south and south-east, where it is bounded by the sea. This part of the mountain has always been celebrated for its extreme fertility, owing chiefly, as both ancient and modern writers agree, to the decomposition of the lava, and perhaps partly to cultivation. It abounds in pasture grounds, orchards and fruit trees, of luxuriant variety, particularly the vine. Where the soil is shallow, sometimes pieces of lava project, and roughen the path; and in other cases the roots of trees about along the surface in a horizontal direction.

The traveller here beholds around him a number of conical hills, each of which is frequently two, or even hills, three miles in circumference, and three or four hundred

* A French toise is rather more than an English fathom, or six feet.

ÆTNA.

General appearance.

ÆTNA. feet in height. Their volcanic origin is sufficiently obvious from their proximity to the great gulf, and from some of them having a small crater at the summit.

Nicolosi. After advancing about twelve miles, the traveller usually halts at Nicolosi, which is considered the first station; and according to M. Houel, is two thousand four hundred and ninety-six feet above the level of the sea. Formerly it was a convent belonging to the Benedictine friars of Catania; at present a solitary individual resides here to take care of the cultivation of the fields in the immediate neighbourhood. The heat is much less intense here than at Catania, and the progress of vegetation proportionably slower. **Monte Rosso,** or the Red Mountain, is one of the great curiosities of this region. Its name is derived from its general colour, which is reddish, not however without considerable intermixtures of other shades. The year 1609 was the period of its formation, when it rose from the midst of a plain, and discharged a torrent of lava, which flowed to the sea and formed a promontory, destroying many vineyards and pastures in its progress. A deep bed of black sand envelopes the bottom, to the breadth of about two miles. The base of the lava is grey coloured horn-stone, of rather a fine grain; the scum of which the hill is composed, have a similar base, containing short and felspars, having a vitreous appearance, and more friable than the lava. The dimensions of this mountain are variously reported. Spallanzani agrees with Borelli, in considering its circumference at the foot as not exceeding two miles, and its perpendicular elevation 150 paces. It contains a multitude of openings, shaped like a funnel, which the excessive cold prevents being explored to any considerable distance. It forms one of the mouths, through which Ætna has in modern times, discharged its mighty showers of lava and ashes.

St. Niccolò dell' Arena. The next station is that of St. Niccolò dell' Arena, which, like the preceding, is a decayed building, once in possession of the Benedictine friars; but long ago they were compelled to forsake it in consequence of the devastating effects of the lava, and many monuments and inscriptions are found on the spot, recording the history of its different disasters. The eruption of 1609, has, however, been the means of diffusing around considerable fertility; the black sand throws up at that period having been converted readily into vegetable earth, and being in consequence covered with vineyards. At a small distance is another of those volcanic hills, peculiar to Ætna; in shape it is spherical, in height about 300 feet, and a mile in circuit; and on every side richly overspread with verdure. The eruption which occasioned this mountainous production, ruined the ancient region of Hybla, now called in contemptuous commemoration, Mel Passi, and at present chiefly observable on account of a few scattered mounts of vegetable beauty and abundance, rising amidst fields of lava and barrenness.

The woody region. The next advance is to the second region of Ætna, denominated *Regione Sytrosa*, or the woody region; which begins about three miles above the latter place, and extends upwards of eight or ten miles.

According to Sir W. Hamilton, the vegetation of this region decreases as you advance; the trees gradually diminishing in size, till they become comparatively dwarfish and insignificant. He noticed great quantities of juniper and tamar, and was informed that curious plants abounded in all directions. This region is

estimated at from 70 to 80 miles in circumference, with a surface of about 40 or 45 square leagues, forming a girdle round the mountain of vivid green, composed of oaks, beeches, and other trees, in a soil of vegetable earth. The climate has here improved into the most agreeable mildness, the air cool and reviving, and every breeze surcharged with delicious odours. It is in fact a wilderness of sweets, and in many of its retreats realizes the scenes of descriptive poetry:

So pure, so fresh, the woods, the sky, the air,
It seemed a place where angels might repair;
And tune their harps, amidst those tranquil shades,
To melting songs, and moonlight serenades.

Majestic forest trees presenting themselves on every side, diffuse over the whole landscape an air of the utmost magnificence and grandeur; the effect of which is heightened by the inequalities of the surface. The eastern side abounds particularly in chestnut trees, of the largest dimensions, which become an article of trade, and a very profitable one, by furnishing hoops for casks; on which account the inhabitants very carefully attend to their cultivation. One tree above the rest has long been celebrated for its extraordinary size, and has acquired the epithet of *Castagno di Cento Cavalli*, or the chestnut tree of a hundred horse, from its supposed capacity of containing that number; but particularly from the story which fabulous tradition has transmitted, of the queen of Spain having found shelter, with a hundred attendants, under this tree. Carrera expresses his confidence, that there is wood enough in this tree to build a large palace; and the poet Bagolini has been thought to allude particularly to this tree, in the words

Great chestnut tree.

Suppono infer montis nostrisquis ausui,
Mentem ferarum uulpis Æna dedisti,
Castaneam penit, cupis modo contraria cortex,
Tartarus equitibus hanc parvam continet, &c.

Its position is singularly advantageous to the effect of its general appearance, being surrounded by an open pasture, and standing on a rising ground; woods and vineyards bounding the scene. At the surface of the earth it measures 195 feet, and its height and size would have fully corresponded to its dimensions, but for the practice of topping off the branches for fuel. Some travellers have dug about it, with the view of ascertaining whether it were in reality a cluster of several, or one individual tree; and the result of their investigation has been the discovery, that although divided, at or near the surface, into five branches, they are all united in one root. From the main stems a multitude of branches spring, each of prodigious size, and distinguished by this peculiarity, that there is no bark in the inside. A hut is built in the hollow of the trunk, for the accommodation of those who are engaged in collecting and preserving the fruit. Their use of ovens for drying the nuts, has been thought sufficiently to account for the destitution of bark in the inner side of the branches. Other vegetable wonders of a similar description are found in the neighbourhood, and one in particular, with an undivided trunk, measuring 67 feet at the height of 15 feet from the surface of the ground.

Another object of curiosity is the snow grotto, the Snow access to which lies through a forest of pines. It is grotto, situated in a mount or hill, called Fennocchio, amidst rocks and precipices, and consists of a cavity formed by

ÆTNA. the waters carrying away the stratum of pozzolana under the lava. The snow, which is drifted from the superior parts of the mountain, is stopped by a wall erected for the purpose, a little above the grotto in question, whence it is thrown down by two openings, and is protected from the heat of summer by a thick incrustation of the superincumbent lava, which forms a natural ceiling to the cave. It is exported from this receptacle in large bags, into which it is put after being wrapped in leaves. Snow, thus preserved, assumes the appearance of transparent crystal. The knights of Malta hire this, and other grottoes of a similar description, for the use of their island; hence snow becomes an important article of trade, the nature of the climate always occasioning a large demand.

Grotto of goats. La Spelunca del Capriolo, or grotto of goats, so called because of its affording a convenient and frequent refuge to the goats in inclement seasons, is another resort of visitors to this singularly constructed mountain. This grotto is formed in a similar manner with that before mentioned; it is surrounded by magnificent oak trees, whose dry leaves supply the traveller with a comfortable bed, and whose branches afford fuel. It is about 5054 feet above the level of the sea. There are two mountains in the vicinity, whose craters exceed in dimensions that of Vesuvius, now covered with a soil rich and productive, and set with oaks.

In the year 1755, part of the Regione Sylvestra was overflowed and desolated by a torrent of boiling water, which issued from the mouth of the great crater, of about a mile and a half broad, the traces of which, however, the vegetative power of nature has since been gradually erasing.

The barren region. As the Regione Deserta, or barren region, is approached, vegetation becomes progressively thin and diminutive. The scene is no longer woody, and such as to afford an agreeable shelter from the intensity of the meridian sun, but wintry blasts sweep along a wild and desert path. Here and there, indeed, clumps of trees and tufts of herbage are to be seen; but even these become more and more scarce, till they entirely disappear: and the curious traveller must encounter a frigid zone of from eight to ten miles in extent, overspread with a flat expanse of snow and ice, and abounding in dangerous torrents of melted snow. Pools of water are frequently formed, and the difficulties of proceeding towards the summit of the mountain, which rears its portentous looking altitude, pouring out torrents of smoke in the midst of the snowy track, increase at every moment. As the crater approximates, sand and ashes deepen over the surface; but what is still more distressing, sulphureous exhalations issue from the crevices of the mountain, sometimes so abundantly as to endanger the adventurer's progress to the final object of his pursuit and curiosity. Nor is he less annoyed by gusts of thick smoke emitted from the volcanic summit, accompanied with alarming sounds, that seem to rise from the very centre, and which have been compared to the discharge of cannon, whose noise spreads with reverberating echo from cavern to cavern.

In this part of the ascent, which is generally attempted before day-break, the stars appear to be much increased in number, and the light of each materially enhanced in brightness; the milky way, in particular, seems like a pure flame shot across the heavens. The

phenomenon of falling stars is observable, which Mr. Brydson considers as a proof that these bodies move in regions beyond the limits which philosophers have assigned to our atmosphere. He is also of opinion, that the satellites of Jupiter might be discovered, even with the naked eye, at least with a very small glass, for several clusters of stars attract the eye totally invisible from the inferior regions.

At no considerable distance from the foot of the great crater is an ancient erection, called Il Torre del Filosofo, or the philosopher's tower, a name which has induced the opinion of its having been constructed by the philosopher Empedocles, at the time when he was engaged in studying the phenomena of Ætna, into whose burning crater, as some authors have asserted, and as many readers, probably more fond of the marvellous than of truth, have believed, he precipitated himself, in order to throw a splendour over his name by the concealment of his mode of dissolution. The mountain, however, is reported to have thrown up his brazen sandals, and thus exposed his folly. So Horace,

—Dux immortalis hateri
Dum cupit Empedocles adstrare frigida Ætnam
tundit.

By some the philosopher's tower is considered to be the remains of a temple of Vulcan; while others suppose it to have been a watch-tower of the Normans, constructed to watch their enemies, and to give notice to the island, by means of signals, of their movements. M. de Non supposes it to have been erected on occasion of the emperor Adrian's visit to Ætna. Spallanzani examined the materials of this building, and found that they consisted of a cement of lime, which had become a carbonate of lime, and two species of lava, whose base was hornstone, and emitting an argillaceous smell from the fractures. Houel denies the antiquity of this construction, upon the ground of its bearing no kind of resemblance to the Greek or Roman mode of architecture. It is now neither watch-tower nor temple, but a desirable place of shelter and of rest to the traveller, who, having performed some of the previous journey during the night, usually waits on this spot for the earliest dawn, of which he avails himself to hasten to the contemplation of that scene of majesty and magnificence which opens to the eye from the summit. Every writer upon Ætna has attempted the description of this scene, and remarked upon its sublime peculiarities; and each, perhaps, has added some circumstance, before unnoticed, to heighten the picture, and to impress the reader with the conviction, of what is indeed the truth, that the prospect which stretches far away in every direction is one of the most enchanting and magnificent throughout the realms of nature. The writer of this article will adopt the description of Brydson, which happened first to have attracted his attention in earlier life, and still possesses the power of enchanting his imagination.

"In about an hour's climbing we arrived at a place where there was no snow; and where a warm and comfortable vapour issued from the mountain, which induced us to make another halt. Here I found the mercury at 19° 64'. The thermometer was fallen three degrees below the point of congelation; and before we left the summit of Ætna, it fell two degrees more, namely, to 27. From this spot it was only about 300

ÆTNA.
Philosopher's tower.

View from the summit.

yards to the highest summit of the mountain, where we arrived in full time to see the most wonderful and most sublime sight in nature.

"But here description must ever fall short; for no imagination has dared to form an idea of so glorious and so magnificent a scene. Neither is there, on the surface of this globe, any one point that unites so many awful and sublime objects. The immense elevation from the surface of the earth, drawn as it were to a single point, without any neighbouring mountain for the senses and imagination to rest upon and recover from their astonishment in their way down to the world. This point or pinnacle, raised on the brink of a bottomless gulph, as old as the world, often discharging rivers of fire, and throwing out burning rocks, with a noise that shakes the whole island. Add to this the unbounded extent of the prospect, comprehending the greatest diversity and the most beautiful scenery in nature, with the rising sun advancing in the east to illuminate the wondrous scene.

"The whole atmosphere by degrees kindled up, and shewed dimly and faintly the boundless prospect around. Both sea and land looked dark and confused, as if only emerging from their original chaos, and light and darkness seemed still undivided; till the morning by degrees advancing completed the separation. The stars are extinguished and the shades disappear. The forests, which but a few seconds before and bottomless gulphs, from whence no ray was reflected to show their form or colours, appear a new creation rising to sight, catching life and beauty from every increasing beam. The scene still enlarges, and the horizon seems to widen and expand itself on all sides; till the sun, like the great Creator, appears in the east, and with his plastic ray completes the mighty scene. All appears enchantment; and it is with difficulty we can believe we are still on earth. The senses, unaccustomed to the sublimity of such a scene, are bewildered and confounded; and it is not till after some time that they are capable of separating and judging of the objects that compose it. The body of the sun is seen rising from the ocean, immense tracts both of sea and land intervening: the islands of Lipari, Panari, Alicudi, Stromboli, and Volcano, with their smoking summits, appear under your feet; and you look down on the whole of Sicily as on a map; and can trace every river through all its windings from its source to its mouth. The view is absolutely boundless on every side; nor is there any one object within the circle of vision to interrupt it, so that the sight is every where lost in the immensity; and I am persuaded it is only from the imperfection of our organs, that the coasts of Africa, and even of Greece, are not discovered, as they are certainly above the horizon. The circumference of the visible horizon on the top of Ætna cannot be less than 2000 miles. At Malta, which is near 200 miles distant, they perceive all the eruptions from the second region; and that island is often discovered from about one half the elevation of the mountain: so that at the whole elevation the horizon must extend to near double that distance, or 400 miles, which makes 800 miles for the diameter of the circle, and 2400 for the circumference. But this is by much too vast for our senses, not intended to grasp so boundless a scene. . . . But the most beautiful part of the scene is certainly the mountain itself, the island of Sicily, and the numerous

islands lying round it. All these, by a kind of magic in vision, that I am at a loss to account for, seem as if they were brought close round the skirts of Ætna; the distances appearing reduced to nothing. Perhaps this singular effect is produced by the rays of light passing from a rarer medium into a denser, which (from a well known law in optics) to an observer in the rare medium appears to lift up objects that are at the bottom of the dense one, as a piece of money placed in a basin appears lifted up as soon as the basin is filled with water.

"The Regione Deserta, or the frigid zone of Ætna, is the first object that calls your attention. It is marked out by a circle of snow and ice, which extends on all sides to the distance of about eight miles. In the centre of this circle, the great crater of the mountain rears its burning head, and the regions of intense cold and of intense heat seem for ever to be united in the same point. . . . The Regione Deserta is immediately succeeded by the Sylva, or the woody region, which forms a circle or girdle of the most beautiful green, which surrounds the mountain on all sides, and is certainly one of the most delightful spots on earth. This presents a remarkable contrast with the desert region. It is not smooth and even, like the greatest part of the latter; but is finely variegated by an infinite number of those beautiful little mountains that have been formed by the different eruptions of Ætna. All these have now acquired a wonderful degree of fertility, except a very few that are but newly formed, that is within these five or six hundred years; for it certainly requires some thousands to bring them to their greatest degree of perfection. We looked down into the craters of these, and attempted, but in vain, to number them.

"This zone is every where succeeded by the vineyards, orchards, and corn-fields that compose the Regione Culta, or the fertile region. This zone makes a delightful contrast with the other two regions. It is bounded by the sea to the south and south-east, and on all its other sides by the rivers Semetia and Alcantara, which run almost round it. The whole course of these rivers is seen at once, and all their beautiful windings through these fertile vallies, looked upon as the favourite possession of Ceres herself, and the very scene of the rape of her daughter Proserpine.

"Cast your eyes a little further, and you embrace the whole island; all its cities, rivers, and mountains, delineated in the great chart of nature; all the adjacent islands, the whole coast of Italy, as far as your eye can reach; for it is as where bounded, but every where lost in the space. On the sun's first rising, the shadow of the mountain extends across the whole island, and makes a large track visible even in the sea and in the air. By degrees this is shortened, and in a little time is confined only to the neighbourhood of Ætna."

The great crater may be described as a cup, or The Great hollow, at the top of a hill of a conical figure, rising equally on all sides, composed chiefly of ashes and sand which have been emitted from the mouth at different periods when eruptions occurred, which accumulating from time to time, it has at length acquired its present dimensions. It is besides covered with frozen snow, and the gusts of wind are so intensely cold and violent as to render it extremely difficult to preserve one's station. The south wind is most prevalent. The conical hill, to which we have alluded, is

about ten miles in circumference, and a quarter of a mile in height, to which the depth of the crater pretty nearly corresponds. The opinion of travellers is somewhat various respecting the dimensions of the opening, which may be accounted for in two ways: the one, the extreme annoyance of the clouds of smoke, which issue forth so as to prevent very accurate observations; and the other, the real variations of extent to which it is probably liable, from the greater or less degrees of accumulation of ashes and stones of which it is composed, proportionably to the quantities of volcanic matter forced up at different eruptions. Sir William Hamilton calculates it, in 1769, at two miles and a half in circumference; Mr. Brydson, in 1770, at three miles and a half; M. D'Orville, in 1727, at three or four miles. The crater presents the appearance of an inverted cone, shelving down from the aperture, and the inside is encrusted with variously coloured salts and sulphur. The upper edges of the crater are much broken and indented; its general figure is oval; and its greatest diameter, from east to west. Spallanzani, who visited Ætna in 1788, represents the inner sides as terminating in a plain of more than half a mile in circumference, in the centre of which is a circular aperture, of the diameter of five poles; from which issued a large column of smoke, ascending perpendicularly, and of a white colour. He observed within the cavity a liquid matter, apparently in a state of ebullition, without spreading itself over the bottom, which he considered to be melted lava. To ascertain, however, the reality of this appearance, several stones were thrown into it, which seemed to fall flat as into a thick paste or pitch; but those which did not descend into the boiling matter rebounded, with quite a different sound, which led to the conclusion that the bottom must be compact, and possess great solidity. Baron Reisdal, on the contrary, whose visit preceded that of Spallanzani by twenty years, states, that no sound whatever was returned on throwing stones into the crater, but that he heard a noise from the gulph resembling that of the sea when agitated by a tempest. He gives no intimation of the bottom to which the former traveller refers; but the crater was then extended towards the east, with an opening which no longer exists. Sir William Hamilton and Brydson were unable to explore this curious hollow, from the intensity of the heat; but D'Orville and his companion were more adventurous. Having fastened themselves to ropes, which were each held at their extremities by two or three men, to prevent accidents, they descended to the very brink of the awful abyss, but they were prevented from a very close inspection by the sulphureous flames and smoke that issued from the burning aperture. They beheld, however, a mass of matter in the middle, which rose in the shape of a cone to the height of about sixty feet, with a circumference of from six to eight hundred feet at the base, or as far down as they could trace it. Small lambent flames, and offensive vapour and smoke, issued forth in every direction. They were soon, however, induced to hasten back to a less precarious standing, from perceiving on the northern side, opposite to that where they were making their observations, a considerable commotion and a fresh issue of smoke and ashes, accompanied with a portentous noise. Though these were of temporary duration, they were sufficient

to warn them against indulging curiosity at such a risk of personal safety. This was in 1727.

Travellers differ considerably respecting the state of the air on the summit of Ætna; some complaining of a difficulty of respiration, others being insensible to any such change. Undoubted experiments have indeed demonstrated that, in consequence of the great rarefaction of the air in the elevated regions, this effect must ensue; but since this mountain is inferior in height above the level of the sea to the lowest point at which such a sensation has been found to occur in other places, it may be imputed, perhaps, to the different constitutional temperament of men. The barometer, however, indicates some considerable alteration of weight and rarity.

Differences also occur with regard to the appearances from the summit. Strabo represents the top of Ætna as a level plain, with a smoking hill in the centre. Spallanzani's account implies that it is bifurcated, as he saw another eminence from that on which he stood to the northward, about a quarter of a mile distant, with a much smaller crater and an inferior issue of smoke. M. Hovel, in 1782, speaks of three eminences, which are placed as in an isosceles triangle, only two of which are visible at any considerable distance; and in the midst of these is the principal mouth, having a diameter of sixty feet, and lying somewhat to the northward. Fazello describes a little hill which had been produced in 1444, and appeared in the mouth of the crater in his time, of a conical shape, which fell into the crater after a tremendous eruption, and was absorbed. Borelli also relates, that the summit of Ætna rose like a tower, but was engulfed in the crater in the conflagration of 1669. These, and other accounts, tend to prove the changes to which the top of the mountain is perpetually exposed, and which might be naturally expected from its containing such an immense caldron of boiling matter, so often driven about with eruptive violence.

Ætna is extremely productive in vegetable variety. We have already spoken of its large species of trees, particularly the oak and the chestnut. It furnishes also an abundant botanical garden, consisting of plants and flowers, the cinnamon, sarsaparilla, saffron, and others. Diodorus Siculus, Plutarch, and Aristotle celebrate its odoriferous productions; the latter declares the smell of the plants was so strong as to render hunting impracticable.

Its animals are considerably reduced. Wild beasts at one time pervaded the woody regions, but they are much degenerated; the wild boar, the goat, and the roebuck remain, but stags are no longer to be found. The horses of Ætna were once esteemed the best in Sicily, but they cannot now boast of such a pre-eminence: the other cattle are, however, still valued highly. Spallanzani mentions that he found no other animals in the more elevated regions than a few lion-ants (*Myrmelion formicarius*), which made their pit-falls in the dust of the lava; in the upper part of the middle region he met with partridges, jays, thrushes, kites, ravens, and crows.

There exists considerable disagreement upon the subject of the scarcity of water in Ætna, and it is not easy to reconcile these contradictions. Some assert that this mountain has always been extremely deficient

ÆTNA.
State of the
air.

Vegetable
productions.

Animals.

ÆTNA. in springs, and that the peasants are seen roving in all directions in quest of water. Spallanzani affirms, that at the time of his visit, the parched inhabitants had not received a single drop from the skies in nine months, and that their cisterns were all empty. He endeavours to account for this scarcity of water, which he thinks common in all volcanic countries, by observing that the rain falls on scorific which it sinks and is absorbed because there are no argillaceous or stony strata to retain it, such as is frequent in other mountains. The large furrows in the lava are, therefore, merely temporary excavations produced by the violence of descending torrents which have no springs, and therefore quickly disappear. Brydone, on the contrary, affirms that he found several intermittent springs which flow in the day, and stop during the night. These he attributes to the melting of the snow and its subsequent refrigeration. On the north of the snowy region, we are informed of several lakes of a small size, which are never known to freeze. M. Houel says, that streams of water issue from the sides of the mountain at all heights, which do not cease even in summer, and the amount of which, if collected into a river, would, he believes, occupy a channel thirty-six feet broad, and six deep. These cannot, he is of opinion, originate in any other than permanent sources, as the condensation of the aqueous vapour arising out of the bottom of the crater, as well as from the numerous fissures and crevices in the sides of the mountain. Different authors also state that there exist several poisonous springs, which emit an offensive vapour; some also which afford a fine salt, and others a water capable of dyeing particular colours. The river Acis, celebrated by the ancient poets, is said to originate in a cold spring at the foot of Ætna, pursuing its course to the sea with the utmost rapidity. It was famous for the sweetness and salubrity of its waters, which the Sicilian shepherds deemed sacred.

Minerals.

A catalogue of all the mineral productions of Mount Ætna, has been published by M. Dolomieu, the lavas have generally a basis of hornblende, but some are compact felspar, or petrosilex; the ejected stones are granitic, or calcareous; he says that Ætna is surrounded with columns of basalt, which he terms prismatic lava. After a careful examination of the shore, Spallanzani represents it as volcanic for nearly twenty-three miles, one-third beginning at Catania, and proceeding to Castello Di Jael, consists of prisms more or less characterized; the other two-thirds, though equally composed of lavas with the former, and usually falling into the sea perpendicularly, assume no such figure; but present here and there irregular fissures and angular pieces, such as are generally observable in all lavas which separate more or less on their congelation.

Eruptions.

An opinion has been entertained, to which a considerable degree of probability attaches, that Mount Ætna is rapidly exhausting its volcanic powers, as the eruptions of modern times are by no means so frequent as in former ages; nor are they so tremendous in their extent and effects. It is reasonable to suppose that the volcanic matter is diminished in quantity by each successive eruption, and that the cavity which contains it by being enlarged and deepened, the vapours have greater room for diffusion, and by being less concen-

trated diminish in force. The earliest indication of an approaching eruption is the increase of the white smoke which perpetually issues from the crater. At intervals puffs of black smoke shoot through the centre of this cloudy column, and after attaining a considerable elevation disperse in the atmosphere. These increase in number, and augment in size, till the whole column is entirely black. Every puff is attended with a loud explosion, and the black smoke is succeeded by a red and flame-looking stream. During the night this appearance is more distinct and striking, in the day-time the resemblance is that of a lofty black pillar. The smoke at length becomes highly electrical, and forked lightning darts athwart the lurid darkness in every direction, with occasional thunder. Showers of ashes accompany these phenomena, and red hot stones, which are projected to a great distance. The light ashes being attracted by the smoke ascend with it into the atmosphere, and spread over the surrounding country to its extreme annoyance and injury. Sometimes the smoke has been driven by the winds to the distance of a hundred miles, setting fire to buildings that stood in elevated situations, withering vegetation, and destroying both flocks and shepherds. Brydone says he was assured by Recupero, that he had known stones of an immense size thrown up to the height of 7000 feet, which he estimated from observing the period of their descent from the point of greatest elevation. It has been ascertained that the stones and rocky fragments from Ætna have much exceeded the one of greatest dimensions projected from Vesuvius, which was forty-five feet in circumference, and was thrown to the distance of one-fourth of a mile. M. Houel speaks of a piece of lava lying on the top of Ætna of more than a cubic fathom in bulk, and whose weight consequently is not less than sixteen tons.

At the expiration of three or four months, the lava which consists of melted mineral matter, generally hursts through some place in the side of a mountain, and sometimes, though rarely, boils over the top of the crater. As soon as this occurs, the internal agitation subsides, and the lava flows down regularly like a stream of fire in the night; but in the day-time its progress is discernible by a hovering cloud of white smoke. If the aperture through which the fiery matter discharges itself, should prove too small, the general commotion is increased instead of being diminished, till a freer vent is afforded by a new or an enlarged opening.

The ancient poets have exercised their descriptive powers in representing the eruptions of Ætna. Thus Virgil:

— Horribilis furta tonit Ætnæ vulnè,
Interdumque arum prorupit ad Æthera nubem
Turbine fronsalem puro et candente ferrilla;
Ardetque globos lacrimarum, et sidera lumbi:
Interdum scopulis, arboribus viscera montis
Erigit eructans, liquefacta saxa sub auris
Cum gemitu glomerat, fustisque crevissit inno.

Æneid, lib. iii. v. 571.

By thus a pearly cloud she rolls so high,
By turns her cinders from her craters fly,
And fakes of mounting flames that lick the sky.
Oh from her bowels mazy rocks are thrown,
And, shiver'd by the force, come piecemeal down.
Oh liquid fakes of burning sulphur flow,
Fed from the fiery springs that boil below.

Brydone's Ætna.

ÆTNA

The above citation from the Roman poet may be compared with the following passage from Raitano, a Sicilian muse; and, as Brydome assures us, held in equal estimation by the Sicilians. It is evidently taken from Virgil.

Nel mezzo verso Federe avvelenata
 Ætna la fronte sua cinta di corrotti,
 E con ispirante volve rovine.
 Rimbuomba, e con urli di flagelli,
 Sovveni negri nubi al ciel destata
 Fumanti di atro tarchio, e di antrac,
 Ergi globbi di fiamme, e tu lambisce
 Le stelle ornai con infocate striscie;
 Scoglio, e di divote viscere di morte
 Eruttando tal volta avolsi coltate;
 E con grandi vapori, e con omi
 Liquidati mercoli, e in fondo bolle."

The following lines from Ovid are sufficiently enthralling and amusing:

Nec, que sulfuris ardet furnacibus, Ætna
 Ignes semper erit: neque enim fidi ignes semper,
 Nam vive est animal bellus, et viris, huiusque
 Spiramenta locis flammam exhalantibus multis;
 Spiranti matre vias, quotque moretur,
 Sic florere potest, illa aperire carceras;
 Sive leve min ventis collabentem in aëria
 Saccasque cum saxa et habentem semina flumina
 Materiam jectat, ex concipit cibus ignem;
 Antra reliquerunt sedatis frigida ventis;
 Sive bitumens repant interfusa venas;
 Lulere exiguæ arecent sulphura fumis;
 Namque ubi terra cibos alimentaque pinguis flumina
 Non dabit, abundant per longum viribus ævum,
 Naturaque suum nutrimentum decrit edaci;
 Non feret illa funera: desertaque deserti ignes.

Metam. lib. xv. v. 340.

Nor Ætna vomiting sulphureous fire
 Will ever bech; for sulphur will expire,
 (The veins exhausted of the liquid store)
 Time was the east no flames; in time will east no more,
 For whether earth's an animal, and air
 Inhales; her lungs with coolness in repair
 And what she vacua renits; she still requires
 Inlets for air and outlets for her fires;
 When tortured with convulsive fits she shakes,
 That nation checks the vent, till other vent she makes:
 Or when the winds in hollow caverns are clost,
 And subtle spirits find that way oppos'd,
 They too up flint in air; the flint that hide
 The seeds of fire, thus too'd in air, collide
 Kindling the sulphur, till the fire's spent
 The cave is cool'd and the force winds relent.
 Or whether sulphur catching fire, feeds on
 Its uncouth parts, till all the matter gone,
 The flames to more succour, for earth supplies
 The fat that feeds them; and when earth decries
 That food, by length of time consumed, the fire
 Fumish'd for want of fuel, most expires.

Garth's Trans.

The same subject is treated by Valerius Flaccus, Hesiod, Silius, Italicus, Lucan, Lucretius, and by Cornelius Severus, in a whole poem, in which the catastrophes accompanying the eruptions are fully detailed. The silence of Homer has been deemed a sufficient evidence that the first of Ætna were unknown in his time. A fine description occurs in the seventy-lythian ode of Pindar. It was composed in the seventy-eight olympiad, to

— — — — —
 Τὸν γὰρ παῖς
 Τὸν δὲ τῆς ἑξῆς ἀναγὰς ἔχου
 Ζαφίλιν γ' αἰὲρ μέγας
 Τῆς δὲ λαχέρας αὖτ'
 ὁ δὲ ἀνὰ στήθεσιν
 ἔκπυον ἄλκον, καὶ τὴν
 ἑλκὸς ἔχου ὡς
 2. B. K. 1. C.

Τὴν ἑξῆς παῖς παῖς
 τὸν δὲ τῆς ἑξῆς ἀναγὰς
 ἔκπυον ἄλκον, καὶ τὴν
 ἑλκὸς ἔχου ὡς
 2. B. K. 1. C.

Fig. 1. v. 36, &c.

Now under sulph'rous Cuna's sea-bound coast
 And vast Sicilia lies his sloughy breast;
 By every Ætna, source of endless fire!
 The pillar'd prop of heaven, for ever press'd;
 Farth from those ultimas æternæ issuing rise
 Pure liquid fountains of temperate fire,
 And red in roddy mists the smoking skies,
 While every in smoke the edifying flames aspire;
 Or gleaming through the night with hideous roar
 Far o'er the redd'ning main huge rocky fragments pour.

West's Trans.

Same of our modern British poets have also inspired their productions by happy allusions to the phenomena of Ætna and Vesuvius.

Thus in thy world material, mighty mind!
 Not that alone which adorns and shines,
 The rough and gloomy, challenges our praise.
 The winter is as useful as the spring;
 The thunder on the sun; a stagnant mass
 Of vapors breeds a pestilential air;
 Nor more propitious the Levantine breeze
 To nature's health, than purifying storms.
 The dread volcano ministers to good;
 Its another's flames might undermine the world.

Loud Ætnas fulminate in love to man!

Young. Night ix.

Another of our devotional poets has heightened the effect of his striking description of the descent of the God of Israel upon Mount Sinai, by a similar allusion.

Nor shall the burning hills of old
 With Sinai be compar'd,
 Ætna shall be calm'd no more;
 Ætna, the torch of Sicily;
 Not half so high
 Her lightnings fly;
 Not half so loud her thunders roar
 Cross the Sicilian sea to fright the Italian shore.
 Behold the sacred hill: ———

Watts's Lyrics.

Diodorus Siculus has recorded an account of the first eruption to which we can attach any authenticity. He has neglected to mention the precise date when it occurred, but informs us that the Sicani, who at that time inhabited Sicily, were compelled by it to abandon the eastern side of the island, which was at a subsequent period inhabited by the Sicilians, from Italy, and to settle on the southern side.

Thucydides mentions three different eruptions, which happened between the year a. c. 733, the third of the eleventh Olympiad, and n. c. 425, the third of the eighty-eighth Olympiad; but he does not specify the exact dates of their respective occurrence.

The first of the three, which is the second eruption, is said by Eusebius to have taken place n. c. 565, in the time of Phalaris.

The second eruption mentioned by Thucydides, which is the third in the order of authentic memorials, is assigned to the year n. c. 476, the second year of the seventy-fifth Olympiad, when Phorbas was archon at Athens, and when Mardonius, the general of Xerxes, was defeated by the Athenians at Plataea. The volcanic eruption, and the victory referred to, are both specified in an ancient inscription on the Oxford marble, which however mentions the first, and not the second

ÆTNA

ÆTNA. year of the Olympiad, when Xantippos was the Athenian archon. Strabo, Silenus Italicus, Valerius Maximus, Ælinus, and other ancient authors, record a very singular act of heroism during this eruption, and which is exhibited on an ancient medal. Two Sicilian youths, Amphimomus and Anapsis, rushed into the midst of the flames, and rescued their aged parents, at the imminent hazard of their own lives: a deed of filial piety and genuine heroism, which the Catanians rewarded by the consecration of a temple to their memory.

The third eruption mentioned by Thucydides, or the fourth in the series of authentic history, occurred in the year before Christ 425, in the eighty-eighth Olympiad, and desolated part of the Catanian territory. The reference to this event is to be found at the close of our historian's third book on the Peloponnesian war, in the following words: "About the spring of the year, a torrent of fire overflowed from Mount Ætna, in the same manner as formerly, which destroyed part of the lands of the Catanians, who are situated at the foot of that mountain, which is the largest in all Sicily. It is said that fifty years intervened between this flow and the last which preceded; and that, in the whole, the fire has thus issued thrice since Sicily was inhabited by the Grecians."

The fifth eruption occurred in the consulship of Sergius Fulvius Fuscus and Quintus Calpurnius Piso, nearly 133 years before the Christian era. It was of some importance; but Julius Obsequius and Oronius, by whom it is recorded, have not transmitted any details respecting it.

In the consulship of Lucius Ætullius Lepides, and Lucius Aurelius Orestes, about a. c. 125, Ætna poured forth such a torrent of fire that the adjoining sea is represented as absolutely hot, and immense numbers of fishes were destroyed. One historian declares, that the inhabitants of the isles of Lipari ate so many of those fishes as to occasion a distemper, which proved generally fatal.

Oronius states, that four years after the preceding eruption, the city of Catania was desolated by another equally tremendous; the roofs of the houses were demolished by the burning ashes, and so dreadful was the desolation, that the Romans exempted the inhabitants from all taxes for the space of ten years, to afford them an opportunity for repairing the damages they had sustained.

Livy mentions an eruption of Ætna, just previous to the death of Cæsar, in the 43d year before Christ. It was not very considerable in itself, but acquired importance from being afterwards considered as an omen of Cæsar's death.

An eruption happened in the year 40 of the Christian era, on the same night in which the emperor fled from Messina, where he was at the time. This is mentioned by Suetonius in the life of Caligula.

According to Carrera, there was an eruption of Mount Ætna, A. D. 253.

The same author records another in the year 420.

Jeffroy of Viterbo, in his Chronicle, mentions an eruption in 812, in the reign of Charlemagne.

The next was of a more tremendous nature, and of more disastrous consequences. It occurred on the 4th of February, in the year 1169. About day-break, there was an earthquake in Sicily, which was felt on the opposite side of the Strait, as far as Reggio. The ridge

of the mountains on the side nearest to Toursino, was obviously desolated; Catmin was reduced to ruins, and upwards of 15000 of its inhabitants perished. The roof of the church of St. Agatha fell in, and the bishop was killed; several castles were destroyed; new rivers burst forth, and ancient ones disappeared. The clear spring of Arcthusa, whose waters were so celebrated, became muddy and brackish; and the fountain of Ajo, after ceasing for two hours, gushed out more copiously than before; its waters assuming a blood colour, which they retained for an hour. A remarkable phenomenon took place at Messina, where the sea retired to a considerable distance within its ordinary limits, but returning, it soon after advanced to the city walls, and rushed into the streets. Multitudes who had sought the shore, were swallowed up by the waves; the vines, corn, and trees of every description were burnt up, and the fields rendered unfit for cultivation, by being covered with stones.

In 1181, an eruption broke forth on the eastern side, on which occasion streams of lava ran down the mountain, and encircled the church of St. Stephen, though without doing it any damage.

On the 23d of June, 1329, another of these catastrophes occurred, of which Nicholas Specchioli has recorded some particulars. About the hour of vespers, Ætna was agitated by commotions, accompanied with terrific sounds, so much so that the utmost alarm spread throughout the whole island of Sicily. A blaze of fire, enveloped in smoke, suddenly issuing from the southern summit, spread snow over the rocks of Mozzona; as the evening advanced, the flames seemed to touch the clouds, spreading themselves with furious impetuosity, reduced every building to ruins that obstructed their course, many rocks on the shore of Mascali dashed into the sea, springs and streams of water were annihilated. On the southern side of the church of St. John, called *Il Poparinella*, fire issued with great violence from an opening or fissure made in the ground; the sun was eclipsed from morning to evening with clouds of smoke and ashes. Our historian, on approaching the new opened crater, perceived the earth totter under his feet, and saw red-hot stones issue four times successively in a very short space, with a thundering noise.

A few days were sufficient to convert the neighbourhood into a scene of desolation, from showers of fire, ashes, and stones, which continued to descend; and every species of animals, with multitudes of the feathered creation, perished in great numbers; the fishes also died in the rivers and the adjacent sea. It is even stated, that many persons died of fear, at which no one will be much astonished who reads the terrible account of Nicholas Specchioli. He declares, that neither Babylon nor Sodom suffered so tremendous a visitation. The north winds, which blew at the time, carried the ashes as far as Malta. Successive calamities followed each other, till the 15th of July.

In 1333, only four years afterwards, another eruption took place, which poured forth large volleys of stones.

On the 25th of August, 1381, the territory of Catania was again desolated, the olive yards in the neighbourhood of the city being burnt up by another Ætnean visitation.

Sixty-three years afterwards, a similar torrent of destruction issued forth, and ran towards Catania, the

shocks were so violent, that huge masses of rock were torn from its summit, and hurled into the abyss below, and for eighteen months the mountain was almost incessantly agitated.

On the 25th of September, 1446, an hour after sunset, an eruption issued from the place called La Pietra di Mazari, which however was of short continuance.

In September the following year, another occurred, which was likewise of short duration, but accompanied with a considerable conflagration.

A period of nearly a century elapsed, during which, no explosion taking place, the inhabitants of the vicinity began to think themselves secure from further molestations, and ventured into every part of the mountain. But this long season of tranquillity was succeeded by a new and terrible visitation in April, 1536.

On the 25th of that month a strong westerly wind arose, and a thick cloud appeared at the summit of the mountain, of a red colour, a large quantity of fire issued from the abyss, and proceeded with great rapidity along the eastern side of the mountain, breaking down the rocks, and destroying every living thing in its course. From the same crater another and more dreadful fiery stream ran in the same manner towards the west, over Bronte, Adrana, and Castelli. The church of St. Leon was demolished by the shocks accompanying the earthquake, and its ruins then consumed by the sulphureous torrent. Chasms were opened in the sides of the mountain, whence fire and burning stones darted into the air with a noise like that of the discharge of artillery. This eruption was attended by one most melancholy disaster, namely, the death of Francis Negro de Piarra, a celebrated physician of Lentini, who being desirous of obtaining a nearer view of the eruptions, to make some observations which might conduce to the interests of science, was burnt to ashes by a volley of the ignited stones.

In the months of April and May the year following (1537), Ætna again appeared in a state of commotion, and was rent in several places, from which torrents of fire issued forth with destructive fury. The gardens, vineyards, and monastery of St. Nicholas D'Arena were destroyed, as well as Mont Pellieri and Fallica, with their vineyards and the greatest proportion of the inhabitants. The river Simeto overflowing the adjacent plains, swept away the country people and their cattle; the whole vicinity of Paternò, the castles, and more than 500 houses, suffered by this calamitous inundation. Violent gusts of wind tore up the trees in every direction. As soon as the violence of the eruption abated, the summit of the mountain sunk in, with a noise so terrific that the people in the island believed that the last day was arrived, and prepared for their final exit, by repairing to the rite prescribed in the Catholic church. These disturbances continued through the whole year, and in July and August especially, all Sicily was in mourning. Filotes affirms, that many of the Sicilians were struck deaf by the noise. The castle of Carleone, though more than 25 leagues distant from the volcano, is said to have been demolished.

Thirty years after the preceding, the country adjacent to Ætna was again covered with ashes and the volcanic productions of a new eruption. In 1579, desolation again overspread the country from a similar cause, which was renewed with increased violence twenty-five years afterwards, in the month of June, 1603. Other

instances of destructive ebullition occurred in 1607, 1609, 1614, and many following years; indeed, Carrera declares that the mountain continued to emit flames, with some variations and transient intermissions for thirty-three years. Torrents of lava flowed for three entire months, in perpetual streams, in 1607, destroying part of the forest of del Pino, and of the wood Sciambrita, with numerous vineyards. The year 1650 was also remarkable for an eruption, which laid waste the northern side of the mountain.

Carrera, before referred to, relates that he was personally witness to a dreadful eruption which commenced on the 10th of December, 1664, and continued to blaze incessantly, though with some occasional abatements of violence, till the end of the month of May, 1678.

But the most formidable conflagration was that of 1669, which has been minutely described in the Philosophical Transactions. (N^o. 51, Abridg. vol. ii.) For eighteen days previous to the eventful crisis, the sky was covered with dark clouds, and the atmosphere agitated by thunder and lightning. Many of the houses were overturned by earthquakes in the village of Nicolosi, and the rest abandoned by their inhabitants. The crater on the summit exhibited, for a long time, extraordinary signs of commotion: and the islands of Stromboli and Vulcano indicated the approaching catastrophe. On the 8th of March, the atmosphere darkened over the village of La Pedara, and its vicinity. On the 11th, a chasm of some miles in length, and five or six feet wide, was opened on the eastern side of the mountain, about twenty miles distant from the old mouth, and ten miles from Catania. On the following night a new chasm was formed on the very spot where Monte Russo now stands. Several other chasms also appeared in different places at a considerable distance, four of them towards the southward side; and from all of them issued immense quantities of smoke, accompanied with tremendous thunder and alarming earthquakes. From the principal chasm flakes of a dark earth-coloured spongy matter proceeded, and a stream of lava, which flowed towards the lake La Hardia, six miles from Montpellieri, devastating fields and villages in its progress. On the following day it proceeded to the territory called Mal Passo, and in twenty hours depopulated and wasted it. After this it advanced in a new direction upon Montpellieri, committing similar ravages. In some places this tremendous stream of burning lava acquired the breadth of two miles, and extended to Mazzalucia. A new and immense opening appeared on the 23d of the month, which produced a hill of stones, sand and ashes, with two summits two miles in circumference, and a hundred and fifty paces in height. This new mountain continued to pour forth ashes for three months, covering the adjoining country to the distance of fifteen miles. Some of these ashes are said to have been borne along by the winds as far as Messina and Calabria, and other places. Early in the morning of the 25th of March, the whole mountain of Ætna was agitated by an earthquake; the highest crater fell into the focus of the volcano, and on the spot where it previously appeared, nothing was to be seen but a wide and deep gulph, upwards of a mile in extent, from which large masses of stones and ashes were continually discharged; and among these

ÆTNA.

ÆTNA

this celebrated block of lava on Mount Frumento. The torrent of lava now flowed towards Catania with renewed force and noise, accompanying earthquakes, and other alarming symptoms; the walls were overflowed, and the gardens belonging to the Benedictine convent utterly desolated. From this spot it divided into several streams, and passed into the ocean, to the distance, according to the earl of Winchelsea's account transmitted to the English Court, of six hundred yards, and to the extent of a mile in breadth. In the same communication it is stated, that the stream of lava destroyed, in forty days, the habitations of twenty-seven thousand persons; and of twenty thousand inhabitants of Catania, three thousand only survived. In its progress it filled up a lake four fathoms deep and four miles in circuit; and not only so, but raised the cavity into a mountain. The earl further mentions, that at night he ascended two towers in different places, and could plainly see, at the distance of ten miles, the fire beginning to run from the mountain, in a direct line; the flame rose as high and large as one of the loftiest steeples in the British dominions, throwing up great stones into the air. He could discern this fiery river descending down the mountain, having stones of a paler red swimming in it, some of them of the size of an ordinary table. The fire moved in several other places, and all the country was covered with it; flames ascending from different places, and smoking like a violent furnace of melted iron, uttering a loud noise, especially when large masses fell into the sea. The English merchants state, in the Philosophical Transactions, that the lava proceeded slowly on till it came to the sea, when a most extraordinary conflict ensued between the two adverse elements. The noise was more dreadful than the loudest thunder, being heard through the whole country to an immense distance; the water seemed to diminish and retire before the lava, while clouds of vapour darkened the sun. The fish on the coast were destroyed, the colour of the sea itself changed, and the transparency of its waters lost for a considerable period. They represent the fire as spreading three miles in breadth and seventeen in length. In attempting to approach it, they durst not venture nearer than about a furlong, apprehensive of an immense pillar of ashes, in their view, twice the magnitude of St. Paul's church in London, and far higher. A continued noise issued from the mouth of the opening or cleft, like the beating of the waves of the sea against a rock, or like distant thunder, which at times could be heard sixty, and even a hundred miles; to which distance ashes were also carried. The mouth whence this tremendous inundation proceeded was only about ten feet in diameter. According to the testimony of Borelli, burning rocks, sixty palms in length, were thrown a mile, and stones of inferior dimensions, three miles; the sun did not make its appearance for many weeks, and the day assumed the darkness of the night. Four months elapsed before this terrible scene was altered. Borelli expresses his deep regret at the destruction of many valuable remains of antiquity; among the rest, an amphitheatre, the Circus Maximus, the Naumachia, and some temples.

A curious circumstance occurred during this eruption, which, Brydone says, may be depended upon as of undoubted authenticity. A vineyard belonging to a convent of Jesuits lay directly in the way of the lava.

This vineyard was formed on an ancient lava, probably a thin one, with a number of caverns and crevices under it. The liquid lava entering into these caverns, soon filled them up, and by degrees bore up the vineyard; and the Jesuits, who every moment expected to see it buried, beheld with amazement the whole field beginning to move off. It was carried on the surface of the lava to a considerable distance; and, though the greatest part was destroyed, some of it remains to this day.

A new burning gulf was opened on the top of the mountain in December, 1682, which diffused its lava over the hill Mazarra.

In the evening of the 24th of May, 1685, an eruption took place which consumed woods, vineyards, and corn to the extent of four leagues, till its course was arrested in a large valley near the castle of Mascali; but unhappily several people, impelled by curiosity, having ascended a hill in the neighbourhood near the wood of Catania, were buried alive by its sinking inwards.

In 1755 the eruptions of Ætna were renewed after a long interval, when a vast quantity of boiling water issued forth from the great crater, preceded by smoke, flames, subterraneous commotions, and other usual signs of an approaching catastrophe. The torrent at length descended in cataracts from rock to rock till it reached the plains, which it overspread with desolation for many miles, and finally discharged itself into the sea. Although the water was not emitted for more than half an hour, its effects were extremely calamitous, and two new chasms were subsequently opened from which lava issued. The water proceeded from the bowels of the mountain, and in its progress from the summit gained considerably from the melted snow. It destroyed forest-trees of large size, tearing them up by the roots as it rushed along. The main torrent divided into four streams, which, re-uniting afterwards, formed islands and rivers nine hundred feet in width. In the descent the channel sometimes dilated, and at others contracted; in some places it was found to be fifteen hundred feet wide. Lava and pieces of rock were driven about by the violence of the current, and valleys filled up by the sand which was conveyed. A few days afterwards an explosion happened of stones and black sand: the former of which were carried as far as the hills of Mascali, and the latter to Mesina, and even Reggio on the opposite coast. Two days only elapsed when the mountain opened again, discharging a torrent of lava for six days, which was observed to proceed towards the plain at the rate of a mile per day. Happily the lava usually moves with slowness and deliberation.

In 1763 an eruption happened, which lasted, with some intermissions, for three months, and was attended with very interesting and novel circumstances. The flame which issued from the crater assumed a pyramidal form, and ascended to a prodigious height in the atmosphere, and resembling an artificial firework of great beauty, and accompanied by explosions which shook the very ground where spectators ventured to assemble. Sometimes the clouds of smoke were of a silver colour, and at other times, when they caught the sun's rays, they exhibited a purple hue. The lava afforded a very brilliant light as it ran down the sides of the mountain, and continued in a heated state, ex-

ÆTNA

1682.

1686.

1755.

1763.

haling smoke, for two years. It was remarked, that for five years afterwards snow did not re-appear on the summit.

1766. In 1768 a new crater was opened at the grotto of Paterno, from which lava issued in quantities sufficient to form a hill, which, four years afterwards, gave decisive indications, by smoke and noise, of its volcanic powers. During all this period the lava did not become cool, nor the fire extinct.

1780. Several new craters were formed in the year 1780; one of them about two miles below the opening of 1766; and from February to May, continual convulsions occurred, and quantities of pumice stones and sand were discharged. The most considerable crater was formed, on the 23d of the last mentioned month, on Mount Fumeto, on the summit of Ætna: a stream of lava was ejected on this occasion which spread at the rate of a mile in a day through the valley of Landuzza. The lava issuing from two other openings diffused itself to the distance of seven miles in six days. From another crater, produced on the 25th, red hot stones were projected to a great distance, and a stream of fire ran over a tract of country two miles in extent, in a very short space of time.

1787. Giœni has given an accurate account of another eruption, which happened in the month of July, 1787, which was preceded for sixteen or seventeen days by the ordinary indications. On the seventeenth, after several slight shocks of earthquake, lava began to flow from the back part of one of the two hills which form the double head of Ætna. On the following day after some hours of tranquillity, the subterraneous commotions increased, the smoke thickened, till at length there fell a shower of fine brilliant black sand; on the eastern side, a quantity of stones were thrown out, and flashes of fire accompanied with a flood of scorine and lava were observed at the foot of the mountain. About sun-set conical flames issued from the volcano in different directions, alternately rising and falling; and at three o'clock in the morning, the mountain had the appearance of being cleft, while the upper part seemed one burning mass. Two of the flames were of vast extent, and the intermediate space was occupied by another, composed of several minor flames, ascending from a base of a mile and a half in diameter, to the height of two miles. A phenomenon hitherto unobserved in former conflagrations was here exhibited. The cone was covered with a very thick smoke, which was pervaded with brilliant flashes of lightning, and sounds were frequently heard resembling the explosion of large cannon. A jet of flaming volcanic substances was thrown from the cone, as from a fountain, to the distance of six or seven miles, and so thick a smoke issued from the base of the cone, as to obscure considerable portions of the flame when the lava was discharged. This beautiful scene lasted three quarters of an hour; it began again, and with greater force, the next night, but was then of much shorter duration: flames, smoke, and ignited stones in showers, were projected during the intervals. After the eruption, the summit of the mountain, on the western side, was overspread with hardened lava, scorine, stones, and smoke; sulphuric vapours, showers of sand, and intense heat continued their annoying operations. The lava on the west separated into two branches; the one of which proceeded towards Libeccio, the other, in the

direction of the Broate and the plain of Lago. It had evidently been in a state of fusion; and the odour of the liver of sulphur was emitted from one of the spiracula. The breadth of the lava was from nearly fourteen to twenty-one feet, its depth thirteen feet and three quarters, and its extent two miles.

In October of the same year, another eruption occurred, which has been described by Spallanzani. The stream of lava, on this occasion, from the great crater, was three miles long, with differing breadth, in some places a quarter of a mile, in others, one third, or even more; varying also in depth from six to eighteen feet. Its course was westerly, and its effervescence violent.

The most recent eruption took place in the month of March, 1809. A very animated, interesting, and minute account was transmitted at the time, in a letter from a British officer in Sicily, to his friends in Scotland; which our readers no doubt will deem worthy of insertion. It is dated Messina, April 24, 1809, and proceeds thus:

"On the morning of the 27th of March (1809), about 7 o'clock, advices of an eruption of Ætna, were conveyed hither (Messina) by a very swift courier, a cloud of black ashes from the mountain top, which is fifty miles distant, in a strait line. These ashes borne on a hard gale of wind, showered into the town in such quantities, that several cart loads might have been collected from the streets and house-tops. They resembled gunpowder; so much so indeed, that an Irish soldier in the citadel called out, "blood and turf! the wind has forced open the magazine doors, and there's all the powder blowing about the barracks!"

"Soon after daylight, an awful howling and horizontal-shaking of the mountain excited a general alarm among the inhabitants of its vast regions. Uncertain where the calamity might fall, many deserted their houses. This shock was immediately succeeded by a furious eruption of ashes from the great crater, which formed immense clouds, and covered an amazing extent of country. So violent was the discharge, that, in spite of the gale, a vast quantity overspread the country, many miles to windward of the spot whence they issued.

"On the evening of the same day, an eruption of lava took place at a short distance below, whose terrible stream flowed down the mountains about three miles, and then divided into two branches. This volcano soon ceased burning, and another broke out next day, with greater fury than the former, about five miles lower down, at a place called Monte Negro. This one displayed three vast columns of flame and smoke, and its lava extended, in a few days, across the woody region, to the distance of three or four leagues. Hitherto we have heard of no guide bold enough to conduct the curious traveller as far as either of these eruptions, because of the vast and deceitful heaps of snow and ashes scattered about the two upper regions of the mountain; nor has any person, I believe, been yet so rash as to ascend higher than one which broke out two hours after the first alarm, about twelve miles below Monte Negro, and eight west of Lingua Grossa, a town on the north east side, near the foot of Ætna. This eruption has formed a row of craters, within a space of about two miles, forming with the others, an irregular line, running in a north east direction from the top of the mountain.

"From the dark bosom of a wood of tall firs and huge

ÆTNA. oaks, spread over steep craggy hills and close valleys, conceivably twelve craters or mouths, two unceasingly, and the rest at intervals, with a noise like a tremendous chorus of several thousand cannons, muskets, and sky rockets; discharging flame, and showers of burning rocks of various forms and all magnitudes, from several yards in diameter down to the smallest pebble, which, according to their weight and bulk, ascend from 200 to 1000 feet. The two fore-mentioned craters (or rather double crater), the lowest of the row down the mountain, formed the principal object of this awful and magnificent scene—they were the only craters which did not seem to labour. Their joint emissions had encompassed them with a black oblong hill of ashes and lava stones; 30 yards above the top of which their mingling flames furiously ascended, in one immense blaze, which seemed 100 yards in breadth. Amidst this blaze, vast showers of rocks, rising and falling, were continually passing each other. About the middle of the whole line of craters was situated one, which laboured the most, and made the loudest, the heaviest, the highest, and the most dangerous discharges; from the rocks of which our party twice narrowly escaped one or two of very considerable size, falling within a pace of us:—I think the lava flowed only from a few of the chief craters, particularly the double one. During the emissions of rock and flame, the boiling matter was seen in slow undulating waves issuing through the sides, close to the bottom of the black hills of ashes. The double crater appeared completely isolated by the lava of the others. Just below it, all the lavas uniting, formed one grand stream of various breadths, from half a mile to 50 yards, which, leaving the fir wood, pursued its destructive course down a rocky part of the mountain, interspersed with oaks; until, about five miles below the double crater, it entered some vineyards, after dividing into two branches, the principal one of which advancing a mile further directly threatened the house of baron Carri. Within 200 yards of this house, it entered a hollow way, which it was hoped would turn its course; but, going on, according to the direction of the impelling fluid behind, its loose rocks rolling off the main body soon filled up the small ravine, and formed a causeway for itself to pass. The other branch took the direction of Lingua Grossa, and arrived very near the baron Camore's house, whose inhabitants, as well as those of the town, were trembling for their property, when the eruption ceased.

"The stream sometimes branched off and joined again, forming islands as it flowed along. Sometimes its banks were formed by the sides of ravines; but where the country was open it formed its own, which from the porous nature of the lava, imbibed the cool air and soon hardened into black and lofty banks of many feet in thickness. It gradually thickened in advancing, until about four miles from the crater, when it began to assume the appearance of a vast rugged mound of black rocks, or stones and cinders, moving almost imperceptibly along. By daylight, the general appearance of this amazing stream, or moving mound, was black, and might be compared to a long tract of ploughed ground, moving and smoking along, raised on banks from fifteen to forty feet high. The end of it, however, presented a bold front of vivid fire, about fifteen or sixteen feet high, and eighty paces in extent. While it moved forward in a body, the loose stones and cinders, present-

ing less resistance to the stream behind, impelled in a continual succession from the top, rolled cracking down its rough sloping sides and front, advancing before the main body, and burning the grass, the woods, and grape vines, like light troops skirmishing on the front and flanks of an army marching in solid column.

"I never saw a painting which gave any thing like a correct idea of lava, yet it appears no difficult task. I could discern nothing of the fluid part of the stream; yet, until somewhat cooled, by flowing several miles, it must be liquid immediately underneath the thin light crusted surface. Just after issuing from the crater, I should think it flowed at the rate of four miles an hour; half way down the stream (whose whole extent, when the eruption ceased, was about six miles), a mile and a-half an hour, and so on, gradually decreasing in velocity to the most advanced part, where its progress was a few hundred yards a day.

"The night view of the eruption and stream of lava was truly grand and terrific. The rocks emitted from the craters displayed a white heat, and the flames an intense red. When the adjacent hills and valleys were covered by a shower of rocks, they appeared, for a time, beautifully spangled with stars, whose silver brightness, as well as that of the burning trees, formed a no less admirable contrast to the flames of the crater than did the evening songs of the birds to the bellowing of the mountain. The lava was a fancied infernal fire, streaked black and red, presenting a horrid contrast to the dark surrounding scenery. Here, down the rocky slopes, it rolled a cataract of fire; there, it displayed floating mounts crowned with imagined fortresses. Trees were seen, as if growing from the fire, whose parched branches and burning trunks exhibited the idea of desolation in all its horrors.

"The country about Lingua Grossa, Pie Monte, and other places on that side of the mountain, now lies covered with ashes, three or four inches in depth. Though some lands have suffered by lava, many have been manured by ashes, and the whole island is freed from the dread of earthquakes for some time to come. Thus we find

"All partial evil universal good."

"Except the inhabitants likely to suffer, little concern or curiosity was expressed by the Sicilians. Even the baron Carri, whose house was so much in danger, with superstitious obstinacy rejected, for a long while, every proposal of the British officers for removing his property. "No, no," he always replied, "Let it be as God wills it." At length, however, self-interest prevailed, and solitary walls alone remained. But when the lava had arrived within 200 yards of this deserted habitation the eruption ceased, to the great joy of the natives, who attributed this mercy to the merits and intercession of their patron saints, whose images were daily brought from Castiglione (a distance of three miles) in procession, during the progress of this calamity, and placed, while mass was performed, amidst the tears of a wretched multitude, a few yards in front of the slow advancing fire. This procession was composed of the miserable and ragged natives, of both sexes and all ages, crying and sobbing, beating their breasts, tearing their hair, and flogging their backs in penance, while their priests were calling on all their saints to assist them. On their way to the lava, they stopped at the baron's house, from the balcony of which,

ÆTNA. the chief priest, with the most violent gestures of grief, delivered a short sermon, in which he told them the eruption was a judgment upon their sins, and recommended them to mend their lives, and pray to all the saints to intercede for them. Every pause of this discourse was filled with a general burst of tears, beating of breasts, tearing of hair, and flogging of backs. I was never more affected by any scene of public distress. "What mortal can dare to think he breathes a single moment without divine assistance? How feeble, how insignificant does he feel who stands within 200 yards of these furious volcanoes. What must be the pangs of his heart, who beholds his earthly property, his native fields, in a few hours irrecoverably overwhelmed. Transitory, compared with this, are all the other scourges of the earth. The fertility swept away by floods and tempests, by war and pestilence, is shortly succeeded by smiling plenty. The fields of Austerlitz and Jeun already revive from their late desolation. Even Spain may, perhaps, smile ere long; but many successive generations, with hopeless sighs, must view the black and barren rocks which have buried the native lands of their unhappy forefathers."

Causes of the volcanic fire. The causes of the volcanic fire, whose effects are so tremendous, have often occupied the attention of philosophers, the variety of whose opinions render it extremely desirable that this subject should be still more minutely and laboriously investigated. Some attribute volcanoes entirely to the action of electricity; but while this agent may be admitted to possess a wonderful power, to pervade with extensive diffusion the realms of nature, and evidently to produce some of the appearances which accompany volcanic eruptions, it does not furnish a sufficient solution of the great problem respecting the origin and operations of these phenomena. Some have applied to this curious inquiry the experiment of the fermentation of sulphur and iron, which, when mixed in large quantities, and moistened with water, will take fire; hence pyrites, which consist of this mixture, may occasion the explosions in question. It has been observed, almost all the volcanoes of which we have any knowledge, are found in the immediate vicinity of the sea, which fact throws an air of considerable probability over this theory; for the water finding access to the central base of the mountain, occasioning a fermentation with the beds of pyrites already existing there, might produce the volcanic eruption. Still it is difficult to conceive how masses of pyrites can remain for many centuries under the surface, being frequently inflamed, and then returning to a quiescent state, till re-acted upon and re-inflamed, and thus perpetually renewed for the same kind of operation. We cannot imagine a sufficient quantity in such a situation, nor such a result without the access of air. Others, however, imagine that it results from a central fire, to which Ætna, Vesuvius, and other mountains, are so many vents or chimneys. Dr. Woodward, and Dr. Hutton in particular, advocate this opinion; but it has been justly objected, that this theory would involve inexplicable difficulties: it would suppose the existence of a fire, which if sufficient to produce the effect, must soon dissolve the globe itself; since, if all the burning mountains upon its surface were incessantly pouring forth rivers of lava, they would be wholly inadequate to give vent to so immense a furnace: besides, that the supposition would

require constant and simultaneous eruptions, which does not accord with fact.

M. Houel, in his *Voyage Pittoresque*, proposes a theory of the volcanic fire, which at least merits a particular detail. He observes, that we can form no idea of fire subsisting alone, without any pabulum, and unconnected with any other principle. It is only seen in conjunction with some other body which nourishes it. The matter in fusion, which issues from the focus, is but the incombustible part of that which nourishes the fire, into the bottom of which it penetrates in search of pabulum. But the bottom of the volcano is the only part on which it acts, because the fire can only operate in proportion to the facility with which it can dissolve and evaporate; and its action extends no further than to keep the substances it has melted in a state of ebullition. The fusible matter which is ejected from the mouth of the volcano, hardens by degrees as it cools in the external air, and produces that species of stone which is commonly denominated lava. Even in a lava, state of fluidity, and when in the burning focus, lava, on account of its gravity and density, must possess some considerable degree of solidity; in consequence of which it resists and irritates the fire into a state of ebullition. A quantity of matter, in such circumstances, must resemble generally any other thick substance or concreted mass in a boiling state, and small explosions are liable to be produced, from time to time, upon every part of the surface of this heated matter, by which means small particles or pieces are scattered around in every direction. A similar process is carried on, though on a much larger scale, in the focus of a volcano, and the explosions there, though precisely of the same nature, produce proportionably greater effects, repelling with the utmost violence whatever lies in the way or offers any resistance. When it is considered how much the volcanic focus is sunk below the base of the mountain, that the mountain itself is ten thousand feet high, and that the power exerted must be sufficient to raise these masses twelve thousand feet perpendicular, the boldest imagination is confounded. What a force must it require to raise such a rock as that of sixteen tons weight on the top of Ætna, and which must have described a parabola of a league in diameter, after its projection from the mouth of the crater!

One of the most accurate of scientific travellers in Humboldt's modern times (M. Humboldt) remarks, that "the mineralogists who think that the end of the geology of volcanoes is the classification of lavas, the examination of the crystals they contain, and their description, according to their external characters, are generally very well satisfied, when they come back from the mouth of a burning volcano. They return loaded with numerous collections, which are the principal objects of their researches. This is not the feeling of those who, without confounding descriptive mineralogy* with geognosy, endeavour to raise themselves to ideas generally interesting, and seek, in the study of nature, for answers to the following questions:

"Is the conical mountain of a volcano entirely formed of liquified matter, heaped together by successive eruptions; or does it contain in its centre a nucleus of primitive rocks covered with lavas, which are these same rocks altered by fire? What are the affinities

* *Ortognosy.*

ÆTNA. which unite the productions of modern volcanoes with the basaltes, the phonolites, and those porphyries with basis of felspar, which are without quartz, and which cover the Cordilleras of Peru and Mexico, as well as the small groups of the Monts d'Or, of Contol, and of Mezen in France? Has the central nucleus of volcanoes been heated in its primitive position, and raised up, in a softened state, by the force of the elastic vapours, before these fluids communicated, by means of a crater, with the external air? What is the substance, which, for thousands of years, keeps up this combustion, which is sometimes so slow, and at other times so active? Does this unknown cause act at an immense depth, or does this chemical action take place in secondary rocks lying on granite?

"The further we are from finding a solution of these problems in the numerous works hitherto published on *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*, the greater is the desire of the traveller to see with his own eyes. He hopes to be more fortunate than those who have preceded him; he wishes to form a precise idea of the geological relations the volcano and the neighbouring mountains bear to each other; but, how often is he disappointed, when, on the limits of the primitive soil, enormous banks of tufa and puzzolans render every observation on the position and stratification impossible! We reach the inside of the crater with less difficulty than we at first expected, we examine the cone from its summit to its basis; we are struck with the difference in the produce of each eruption, and with the analogy which still exists between the lavas of the same volcanoes; but notwithstanding the care with which we interrogate nature, and the number of partial observations which are presented at every step, we return from the summit of a burning volcano less satisfied, than when we were preparing to go thither. It is after we have studied them on the spot, that the volcanic phenomena appear still more isolated, more variable, more obscure, than we figure them when consulting the narratives of travellers." *Personal Narrative*, vol. i. p. 197, &c. *Tr.*

The same eminent writer has made several interesting observations with regard to the connection of volcanoes with earthquakes. Though this subject will require a fuller elucidation under some other articles of a more general nature, we take the liberty of inserting another extract in this place from the *Personal Narrative*.

"In New Andalusia, as well as in Chili and Peru, the shocks (of earthquakes) follow the course of the shore, and extend but little inland. This circumstance, as we shall soon find, indicates an intimate connection between the causes that produce earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. If the earth was most agitated on the coasts, because they are the lowest part of the land, why should not the oscillations be equally strong and frequent on those vast savannahs or meadows, which are scarcely eight or ten toises above the level of the ocean?

"The earthquakes of Cumana are connected with those of the West India islands, and it has even been suspected that they have some connection with the volcanic phenomena of the Cordilleras of the Andes. On the 4th of November, 1797, the soil of the province of Quito underwent such a destructive commotion, that, notwithstanding the extreme feebleness of the population of that country, near 40,000 natives perished buried under the ruins of their houses, swal-

lowed up in the crevices, or drowned in lakes that were suddenly formed. At the same period, the inhabitants of the eastern Antilles were alarmed by shocks, which continued during eight months, when the volcano of Guadalupe threw out pumice-stones, ashes, and gusts of sulphureous vapours.

"This eruption of the 27th of September, during which very long continued subterraneous noises were heard, was followed on the 14th of December, by the great earthquake of Cumana. Another volcano of the West India islands, that of St. Vincent's, has lately given a fresh instance of these extraordinary connections. This volcano had not emitted flames since 1718, when they burst forth anew in 1812. The total ruin of the city of Caracas, preceded this explosion, thirty-five days; and violent oscillations of the ground were felt, both in the islands, and on the coasts of Terra Firma.

"It has long been remarked, that the effects of great earthquakes extend much farther than the phenomena arising from burning volcanoes. In studying the physical revolutions of Italy, carefully examining the series of the eruptions of *Vesuvius* and *Ætna*, we can scarcely recognise, notwithstanding the proximity of these mountains, any traces of a simultaneous action. It is, on the contrary, doubtless, that at the period of the last and preceding destruction of Lisbon, the sea was violently agitated even as far as the New World; for instance, at the island of Barbadoes, more than twelve hundred leagues distant from the coasts of Portugal.

"Several facts tend to prove, that the causes which produce earthquakes have a near connection with those that act in volcanic eruptions. We learnt at Pasto, that the column of black and thick smoke, which in 1797, issued for several months from the volcano near this shore, disappeared at the very hour, when, sixty leagues to the south, the towns of Riobamba, Hambato, and Tacunga, were overturned by an enormous shock. When, in the interior of a burning crater, we are seated near those hillocks formed by ejections of scorice and ashes, we feel the motion of the ground several seconds before each partial eruption takes place. We observed this phenomenon at *Vesuvius* in 1805, while the mountain threw out scorice at a white heat; we were witnesses of it in 1802, on the brink of the immense crater of Pichincha, from which nevertheless at that time clouds of sulphureous acid vapours only issued." *Personal Narrative*, vol. ii.

As involving some questions of considerable importance, we have deferred to the closing part of this article, the subject of the formation and structure of *Ætna*. Like every thing else belonging to the history of this remarkable production of nature, it has given birth to many and diversified speculations, into which the most legitimate curiosity will be naturally eager to enter. The magnitude of this mountain has induced M. Buffon to consider it as one of the primitive order, which subsisted both as a mountain and a volcano, at the creation of the world. He believes that its eruptions ceased for a long period after the waters subsided from the surface of the earth, on account of a deficiency of fluid to occasion an effervescence with the minerals it contained. According to this writer, the volcanic eruptions of the mountain were not renewed till the bursting open of the Straits of Gibraltar, and the Bos-

ÆTNA

Formation of *Ætna*.

phorus, when the ocean mixed with the Mediterranean sea; and the territory lying between Sicily and Italy being overflowed, the inundation reached the base of Ætna, and a new conflagration was occasioned, which has been renewed to the present period at successive intervals.

From the immense quantity of sea shells which have been found on the sides of the mountain, and at a very considerable elevation, some writers have inferred, that previous to its becoming a volcano, Ætna must have existed as a mountain. M. D'Alton states, as quoted by Kirwan in the *Irish Transactions* (vol. vi.), that on the north-east flanks of the mountain, he found heaps of shells nearly two thousand feet above the level of the sea, and that at the height of two thousand four hundred feet there are regular strata of grey clay full of marine shells. In several places, he says, that calcareous strata are found under the lava. These facts suggest to him the conclusion, that Ætna existed as a mountain before it was uncovered by the sea, and that the eruptions must have occurred after the deposition of the calcareous strata and shells.

The most common opinion of philosophers respecting the formation of Ætna is, that it is the result of successive eruptions, each of which has added to its extent, and probably to its elevation. This conjecture seems considerably confirmed by observing that new mountains or hills are produced by every great eruption, and that a very considerable part of Ætna consists of these conical hills, which are the evident result of volcanic commotions. It is, therefore, not one volcano, but a compilation of many, which have sprung up from time to time, during the lapse of so many centuries, and by continual accumulation, have risen into the present magnificent appearance. It cannot materially affect this hypothesis to know that Ætna does not now, so far as can be ascertained, increase in altitude; some even contend that it sensibly diminishes; because it cannot be discerned at so great a distance as formerly. But whatever may be the fact, it is not difficult to believe that there is a certain point at which the accumulation must necessarily terminate: the internal fires can only operate to a certain degree of force, and consequently, the height of the mountain must terminate at the point of their projecting capacity; besides, that in proportion as vacuities or cavernous recesses are extended within by the operation of the ever-boiling furnace, the liability to frequent fallings in and depressions of the summit will be increased. M. Houel affirms, that this mountain consists entirely of marine depositions in the lower regions, and in the superior parts, of the matter thrown up and dropped upon the surface at the different eruptions. He concurs in the opinions of those who think that the inferior regions were once covered with the waters of the ocean, to at least one half of its present elevation, and that the currents would not only drive together vast masses of shells, with other marine productions and volcanic substances thrown up by the volcano, so as to form hills and mountains, but carry separate portions of these masses to a much greater distance than we can suppose them to have reached by the mere eruptive force of the mountain. He represents the base as consisting of alternate layers of lava and marine substances, deposited successively, and reaching to a great depth, at present unascertained. These alternate layers must

descend to the original stratum of lava which issued from the summit. The last layer deposited by the sea, is a range of calcareous protuberances or eminences, seated on a foundation of lava. Another stratum is immediately beneath, consisting of sea pebbles, smoothed and rounded by perpetual collision and washing. The next layer is a yellowish rock, formed of indurated sand; over which flows the river Simeta, whose bottom is more elevated than the base of the mountain, which is level with the sea.

Some geologists have availed themselves of the facts which have been brought to light respecting the formation of Ætna, to attempt a contradiction of the Mosaic testimony respecting the time of creation, and consequently to disprove the authenticity of Scripture. Recupero discovered a stratum of lava which he considers as having proceeded from the mountain in the time of the second Punic war, which he states was not, even in the time of his investigation, covered with a sufficient depth of soil to produce either corn or vineyards. Hence he argues, that it requires about two thousand years at least to cover a stratum of lava with fertility. In the vicinity of Jaci, in digging a pit, he found no fewer than seven distinct layers of lava, nearly all of which were overgrown with a soil of rich vegetable mould; consequently, he believed, that it required seven times the period during which one coating of earth was formed to produce the rest: and hence that *fourteen thousand years* must have elapsed since the eruption which deposited the lowest bed of lava in the pit at Jaci. In support of the same opinion, count Borch gives an account of his examination of layers of vegetable earth between the different beds of lava, and declares that Ætna must be at least eight thousand years old. He examined in December, 1776, lava produced by an eruption in 1157, on which he found a coating of earth twelve inches in thickness; another specimen was increased to the depth of eight inches, which had been emitted in 1329; and a third, of the date of 1669, was covered only to the depth of one inch with earth; the most recent, that of 1766, being totally bare. In these cases the process seemed perfectly regular and proportionate to the different ages of the lava: but the abbé Spallanzani very justly observes upon this statement, that the lava which flowed in 1329 was found by count Borch four hundred and forty-seven years afterwards, to be covered with eight inches of earth, yet the lava of the Arso, in Ischia, which was emitted in 1392, was perfectly hard and sterile in 1788; and what is still more striking, lava in the vicinity of Catania, which had been used for the purpose of building for two thousand years, is still so hard as to remain unconquerably barren, even where its cultivation had been diligently attempted.

With regard to the statement of Recupero, several considerations occur to obviate the force of the objection which appears to arise out of it against the Mosaic records. That the lava to which he assigns the period of about two thousand years, actually issued from the Ætnean crater, at that period, is merely conjectural; and rests solely upon the ipse dixit of the author. Are we to admit, without any evidence to substantiate the assertion, that this lava was produced in the second Punic war; or, if some probable attestation could be furnished, is it of a nature to justify the erection of a theory, so peculiar and so important in its practical

ÆTNA.

tendencies? It is, moreover, ascertainable, that lavas of different degrees of consistency, and placed under different circumstances of exposure to the action of the elements, and at different points of elevation, require proportionally various periods of time, in which to become fertile and productive of vegetation. Nay, even lavas of similar compactness, and in similar situations, have been found to vary exceedingly in this respect. Giöni states, that in the year 1787, he found lavas covered with vegetable mould, which had been produced little more than twenty years; while others remained totally unproductive, of a much earlier date. But the conclusions attempted to

be established from the successive layers in the pit of Jaci, is still further discredited, and indeed, totally nullified by the discoveries at Herculaneum. An examination of the ruins of that celebrated city, shows that six different eruptions have occurred since the original one which overwhelmed it with destruction, and which occurred in the year of our Lord 79. Each of the strata of lava is covered with rich mould; so that a similar process has occurred at Herculaneum in little more than *seventeen hundred years*, with that which Recupero represents from his observations at Jaci to require at least a period of *fourteen thousand*!!

ÆTNA.

AFAR.

ÆTNA SALT, Sal Etnæ, the sal ammoniac found in the crevices of Ætna and other volcanoes, and on the surface of the lava. It is of various colours and forms, and sometimes is gathered in cakes; sometimes in powder. It is a concrete of nitre, sulphur, and vitriol.

ÆTOLIA, in Ancient Geography and History, a province of Greece, bounded on the east by Locris, on the west by Acarnania, from which it is separated by the river Achelous; on the north by the country of the Perihæbi and Athamantes, and part of Epirus; and on the south by the Corinthian Gulph; its coast extending from the mouth of the Achelous to the small town of Antirrhium.

The original inhabitants of the country were expelled by a band of Eleans, conducted by Ætolus, who gave it his name, and called the two principal cities by the names of his two sons, Calydon and Pleuron. These cities, Strabo says, were once the chief ornaments of Greece; but in his time were fallen into obscurity. Ætolia was usually considered as divided into two portions, the one called the Antient, the other Epictetus, or the Acquired. This last tract of country was rugged and barren, but the former was fertile. Strabo mentions several considerable mountains in this province, the most noted of which was the Corax. Besides the Achelous, Ætolia was watered by the river Evenus, which, flowing from the north, passed nearly through the heart of the country, and fell into the Corinthian Gulph.

The people were of warlike habits, which, aided by the natural difficulties of their territory, rendered them formidable enemies; but they were so addicted to lawless plunder, that they were inveighed against by the rest of Greece, as a horde of robbers, who were ever ready to make war on those near them for the sake of the spoil. They sometimes have the epithet *ποροπύργος*, applied to them by the poets, from the circumstance of their wearing only one shoe in battle. They were remarkably attached to liberty, and though inhabiting a small province as to extent, greatly influenced the affairs of Greece in general; for when Philip of Macedon attempted to subjugate the Grecian states, they were among the most obstinate opposers of his ambitious views; to defeat which, they entered into an alliance with the Romans, who the more readily aided them in their resistance, as they hereby involved Philip in a war too near home to allow him to co-operate with the Carthaginians, to which he was much inclined. In the terms of this league, the Roman general, aware of their national character for plundering their neighbours, stipulated

that the lands and buildings of the conquered cities should be their share of the booty, and that the rest should fall to their ally. When the united forces, therefore, took Antieria from the Acarnanians, it was duly surrendered to the Ætolians.

With a view to exclude Philip from the concerns of Greece, a mediation was soon after attempted by the neighbouring states, but the restless dispositions of this people rendered their pacific endeavours useless; and the war was continued, till taking umbrage at the conduct of the Romans in making a truce with Philip without having consulted them, they turned their arms against their former ally, but were at length so beaten by the consul Fulvius, that they were forced to purchase a peace on the most humbling terms; among which were the payment of a heavy contribution, and the loss of all the cities which the Romans had taken during the war. Though thus crushed, this turbulent people afterwards joined in the Macedonian war, and at length fell with Macedon under the Roman yoke. As Æmilius Paulus treated with extreme severity all who had favoured Perseus, they suffered cruel usage on that account, five hundred and fifty of the chief persons of the country being put to death.

Ætolia subsequently partook of the fate of the rest of Greece, and became a Roman province; and continued so till Constantine the Great divided the provinces, when this country formed a part of what was called New Epirus. From this period it was successively the prey of various contending princes, till the Mahometans finally possessed themselves of it, under whose dominion it now remains, and is called Despotat, or Little Greece.

The Ætolian government was republican, and the General Assembly, called Panætolium, was held on occasion required. Livy says, that at one period of the war with Rome, their cavalry was superior to that of any other state of Greece, though their infantry was otherwise.

AFAR', or F.A.R. AS. Fapan: to go fare, to go. Gone, placed, stationed, moved to a distance.

And far to tell's too plain
These side philosophy say,
That Oris, which I spoke of as,
Is that, which we, for liberie a force
Beholde, and forment it call,
In which the steres stonden all

Gover. Cyn. A. bk. vii.

And the poppular stood afar: and wolde not raise his yghen to
housen, but anout his deerte and seyde: God be myfful to me
synner. Wiclyf. Luk. ch. viii.

AFFAIR. And y^e pulchre standing a fere off, woule not lyke up hys eyes to heauen, but stoode vpon hys breast sayings: God be mercifull to me a synner. *Bible, 1579. Ik.*

AFFABLE. It hath so pleased God to provide for all living creatures, where-with he hath fill'd the world, that such inconueniencies which we esteeme after off, are found by trial and the witness of men's travels, to be so qualified, in there is no portion of the earth made in vain, or as a fruitless lump to fashion out the rest.

Bulwer's History of the World.

Did her perfection call me on to gaze,
Then like, then love, and now would they amaze?
Or was the gracious after off, but near,
A terror? or is all this but my fear?

Ben. Jonson. Eleg. xxvii.

We are careless of that which is near us, and follow that which is offere off.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Do not want an understanding to foresee things to come? In their projects for this world, how quick-sighted and provident are they, to discover all probable inconueniencies after off, and lay the scene to avoid them?

Bates. On the Immortality of the Soul.

For soon a whirlwind rose around,
And from afar he heard a screaming sound,
As of a dance distress'd, who cry'd for aid,
And fill'd with loud laments the secret shade.

Dryden. Theod. and Hecub.

Ah, who can tell how hard it is to climb
The steep where fame's proud temple shines afar?
Ah, who can tell how many a soul's sublime
Has felt the influence of malignant star,
And wad's with fortune an eternal war!

Beattie's Minerva.

I see a town after off; its visible singularity is not more than an inch square, and therefore my perception of it is neither lively nor distinct; and yet I am certainly believe that town to exist, as if I were in the centre of it.

Id. Essay on Truth.

AFFABLE, adj. } Ad: *fari*; to speak to. Ob-
AFFABILITY, } *via* *affare* *expositus* *quibusdam*
AFFABLY, } *affari* *volentibus*. *Junius.*
That may be spoken to, accosted, or addressed; and therefore gentle, courteous, conciliating.

He was prudent, comely, princely, affable, lenient, and amiable, he loved justice and punished the malefactors.

The Expansion of Daniel, by George Jeays, fo. 181. c. 8.

Besides this, he [Henry 7th] was sober, moderate, honest, affable, courteous, courteous, so much shunning pride and arrogance, that he was ever sharp and quick to them which were noted or spotted with y^e crime.

Hall, p. 504.

This Constantius was a man of great affability, clemency, and gentleness, and therein all very liberal, endeavouring alwayes to enrich his subjects, little regarding his any treasure, thinking that to be his that the Commons had.

Grafton, vol. I. p. 68.

Say, goddess, what caused when Raphael,

The affable arch-angel, had forewarn'd

Adam, by dire example, to beware

Apotrophy, by what befel in heaven

To those apostates.

Milton. Par. Lost, b. vii.

I am a gentleman of Verona, Sir,

That bearing of her beauty, and her wit,

Her affability and beautiful country,

Her wondrous qualities and mild behaviour,

Am bold to show myself a forward guest

Within your house.

Shakespeare. Taming of the Shrew.

If we look upon his [Trajan's] politicke managing of the government, he may seeme (in comparison of others) a right worthy, memorable, and lovely prince, of much affability and familiarity even with his inferiours.

Speed's Hist. of Gr. Britain.

Now. She sighs and says, forsooth, and cries, heighho;

She'll take ill words a' th' steward, and the servants,

Yet answer affably and modestly;

Things, Sir, not usual with her.

Beaumont and Fletcher. Martial Maid, act. III.

This bed him [Charles] to a grave, reserved department, in VOL. XVII.

which he forgot the civilities and the affability that the nation customarily loved, to which they had been long accustomed.

Barnet's Own Times.

AFFABLE.

Distinguished as he [Euphrates, the philosopher] is by the severity of his manners, he is so less so by his polite and affable address.

Melmoth's Piny, letter a.

AFFAIT.

AFFA, an ounce weight of gold used on the coast of Guinea, Africa; the half ounce is called Eggeba.

AFFAIR, *n.* *Fr. Affaire*; (tout ce qui est à faire. Menage). It. *Affare*; (qui a été fait d'officere. Id.)

That which is to do; to be done; a matter or thing; managed, conducted, transacted, settled. By Gavin Douglas, and others, it is written in plural, *affaires*, *effairs*.

The Scotch writers also use *affair* or *effair*, *effere*, as a verb; and perhaps *affere'd* in Macbeth, act iv. has no other origin: though it seems used with allusion to the legal application of *affere* and *affere*.

Among monks might ich be. ac meny tyme ich spare
For y^e help meny folk ferken. *myne effere* to aspepe.

Vision of Piers Ploughman, p. 93.

No man that warreth, entangleth hym self with the *affaires* of this life, because he wolde please him that halke chosen hym to be a soldier.

Golden Bible. 4 Tim. ch. ii. v. 4.

And certainly I am ashamed that among wise men so high *affaires* should be so soon and suddenly concluded and determined.

Golden Fable, l. 3.

O doughty men, good he, worthy in warre,
The greatest parte of our warlike and *effere*
Bene edit now, as that in tyme cumming
All fere and drude and passit of any thing.

Douglas, bk. xi. p. 339.

But than percase, gif they behold or se
Some man, of grete suetie and *effere*,
They arise, and all still standand, gifte him eris.

Id. bk. l. p. 17.

CAS. I have eyes upon him, and his *affaires* come to me on the wind: wher is he now?

Shakespeare. Ant. and Cleop. fol. ed.

Let us not inquire into the *affaires* of others that concern us not, but be busied within ourselves and our own spheres.

Taylor's Holy Living and Dying.

I looked upon my lord of Stratford, as a gentleman, whose great abilities might make a prince rather afraid, then suborned to employ him in the greatest *affaires* of state.

Edmon Basilike.

They teach her to recede, or to debate,

With toys of love, to mix *affaires* of state.

Frier. Selow.

Could chance

Find place in his dominion, or dispose

One lawless particle to thwart his plan,

Then God might be surprised, and unforeseen

Consequence might startle him, and disturb

The smooth and equal course of his *affaires*.

Croper. Task.

AFFAIT, *v.* Used by R. of Gloucester as we use *Defeat*. Used by Gover, in a consequent application.

To tame, to make subservient to.

po be lyng ben addre *affait* so, but byt he kepte knowere
got he yonge *assayt* by scotes, ar he ben kide. *[Dym note.*
R. Gloucester, p. 177.

My father ye shall well beleue

The yonge whelp, which is *affait*

Hath not his master better able to

To conche.

Gower. Con. A. bk. i.

And erbe of them his tyme awaileth,

And erbe of them his tyme *affait*eth,

All to deerie an innocont,

Whiche will not be of her *assait*.

Id. bk. ii.

AFFAM-
MISH.

AFFECT.

AFFAMISH, v. } See FAMISH.
AFFAMISHMENT, } To starve with hunger.

But of only image of that beverly ray,
Whereof some glance dash to mine eye remayne,
Of which including the ides playe,
Through contemplation of my purest part,
With light thereof I doe myself sustayne,
And thereon feed my love-offensive hart.

Spenser. Sonnet lxxvii.

What can be more unjust, than for a man to endeavour to raise himself, by the offending of others? Neither can it serve his turn to say, by way of excuse, that the multitude of buyers may be the cause of a dearth.

Hall's Cases of Conscience.

AFFEAR, v. r. See To FEAR. Afeard, now considered a vulgarism, was anciently so common as Afraid is at present, and was variously written: A fride, afered, ahead, asferd. It has no etymological connection with Afraid.

He stoncs stonchly þer to grete, no more to move he,
Enease þer ryet & wyre hec, þat wonder it is to see;
And after liggh hec ebon, þat a man may be of a ferd,
þat eke won drede may how heo were first a fered.

R. Gloucester, p. 7.

To Joppyn when he cam, þe Soudan was not þere,
þe ðon þe Soudan was, Richard ferre afere.

R. Bruner, p. 157.

With skailled howes blake, and pilled bed:
Of his singe clothes were sore efred.

Chaucer. Prologue. The Summoner, vol. i. p. 86.

Þere as by aventure this Talsen
Was in a bush, that no man might him see,
For sore efred of his deth was he.

Id. The Knights Tale, vol. i. p. 61.

This wif was not efred no afreide,
But holdely she aside, and that anon;
Mary I deke that falsk moke Da Joun,

I kepe not of his tokenes never a del.

Id. The Shipman's Tale, vol. ii. p. 45.

A fride, where was thyne herte the,
When thou thy worthie blode sie?
Were thou afere of his cie?
For of his hande there no drede.

Gower. Cos. A. li. ix.

Though ye come by fore kynges, and clerkes of þe lawe
Beþ nat a ferd of þat fide, for ich schal geve you tange
Conyunge and clergie. To conclude hem alle.

Villon of Fere Fishman, p. 198.

Chin as woolly as the pench,
And his lip should kissing teach,
Till he cherish'd too much beard,
And made love or an afere'd.

Ben Jonson. Her Man described.

AFFECT, v.

AFFECT, a.

AFFECTATION,

AFFECTED,

AFFECTEDLY,

AFFECTION,

AFFECTIONATE,

AFFECTIONATELY,

AFFECTED,

AFFECTIVE,

AFFECTER,

AFFECTUOUS,

AFFECTUOUSLY.

(and formerly *affection* and *affectioned* were) particularly applied to the assumption and ostentatious display of deceitful appearances; and consequently used as hypocrisy or false pretence; self conceit; self sufficiency.

Ad: *ficio: factum*; to make or to towards.

To act or operate upon, so as to make to or towards; to influence, or tend to; either literally or metaphorically. To act towards,—the attainment of; to aim at; to pretend to; to assume; to arrogate.

The verb, to *affect*; the derivatives, *affection*, *affected*, *affectedly*, are (and

To act towards,—the excitement of any sensation, *AFFECT*. passion, or emotion; and consequently to move, raise, or excite any sensation, passion, or emotion.

The noun, *affection* (and so formerly *affection*); the derivatives, *affected*, *affectionate*, *affectionately*, are particularly applied to the kind, tender, benevolent feelings. And consequently used as love, good-will or benevolence; friendly regard, zealous attachment.

Affectionous and affectionate were formerly used, as we now use both *affection* and *affectionate*.

To put self-conceit upon bodies of reason
pat wedding for to us, for great affection.

R. Bruner, p. 162.

It signifies crys, unto all men desiring to understand prophesies cast to smile some that will seeke hit that so minded towards God as was daniel affected towards crys & his angel when this vision should be declared.

The Exposition of Daniel, by Geo. Jago, fo. 154, col. 1.

The text saith that Antiochus shall counsel with the forsworners and trayturous transgressors of the lawe which were y^e bishops with their afflicte *affection* and provoking antioch to rubbe and defyle the temple with images and lawlesse rites.

Id. fo. 200, c. 2.

Thus can he smite his bow
When they from chinkes awe throw
Filly to known without were
Freed of affect, and freed of chere.

Chaucer. R. of R. fo. 141, col. 4.

An eye, whose judgment none effe could blind,
Frendes in miserie, and foes to reconcile;
Whose peering looks did represent a minde
With veritas fraught, repoynd, voyd of guile.

Surrey.

Fall lusty was the wether and herbage,
For which the fowles againe the same shene,
What for the season and the yonge grene,
Fell loude songen his affection:

Hen spured has gotten best predictions
Again the sword of winter heat and cold.

Chaucer. The Squire's Tale, vol. i. p. 421.

Men scholen be louyng hemself, coyncease, high of beryng,
proude, blasphemous; not obedient to feid and modir, unkynde,
carid, withouten affection. (Acras.)

Wiclif. 2 Tyms. ch. lii.

Be wery with the that are wery. Wepe also with them y^e wepe.
Be of lyke affeccion one towards another.

Id. 1339. Rom. xii.

But though a man cannot haue any wille at all in that thing wherof he hath utterly nothing known nor heard till of, yet his imagination in his mynde, nor any thing thought upon; yet when the mynde with diuers reasons and argumētis is once moved of a matter, the wille as it happeneth of other occasions at the time to be well or ill affected, so may geue it wille in to the consent and agreement of the tone yde or of the lother, yea & that sometyme on that yde for affection, ypo which yde be seeth lesse parte of his wille and reason.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 534, col. 1.

Thus being affectioned towards you, our good wille was to haue deat unto you, not the gospel of God only, but also our owne soules, because ye were dere unto vs.

Greene Bible, 1 Themat. ch. ii. v. 8.

And as we may not rest our naturality, & not cleane for to do it, so those fathers were, that are so extremely affectioned, to leave their children to begin as old men.

Golden Booke, G. li.

The duke of Exeter, named Anthony, a man of great policy and wysedome, foreseeing y^e great shedyng of Cristen manys blood, with many other inconueniencies lykely to haue ensued of this variance atweene theise iij dukis, made such affectionate labour, y^e with great dyfficultie he perswaded them agayn for that tyme.

Fulcan, p. 561.

Wherefore the kynge was shame more impatient, and blamed y^e retygion of his wyle in moost impudent manner, the which sayges the queene toke paciently, and put all her confidence in God, to whom both she and seynt Remigius prayed so affectionately that the childe was restorid unto perfect health.

Id. p. 71.

AFFECT. Incorporeal is [light] cannot be, because it sometime *affecteth* the sight of the eye with effluence. *Boyle's History of the World.*

Whereof she now more glad, than sorry was,
All over come with infinite effect
For his exceeding courtesy that peen't
Her stammer'd heart with infinite effect,
Before she felt her selfe she did perceive.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. vi. c. i.

To most true,
That moving meditation most effects
The passive secrecy of desert-foes.
Far from the cheerful haunts of men and herds. *Milton. Comus.*

Carry ourselves in an honest and simple truth, free from a curious hypocrisy, and affectation of seeming other than we are. *Hall's Practical Works.*

Then gan the Palmer thus, most wretched man,
That to afflictions does the bridle lend;
In their beginning they are weak and wan,
But soon, through adversity grow to fearful end;
Whiles they are weak, betimes with them contend.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. ii. c. iv.

To show thee
How infinite my love is, even my mother
Shall be thy prisoner, the day you're without hazard;
For I behold your danger like a lover,
A just affector of thy faith.

Bonavent and Fletcher. Blandens, act iii.

Fear is an affection of the soul, that is as much diversified as any one affection whatsoever; which diversification of the affection ariseth from the diversification of those objects, by which this affection is moved. *Hall's Contemplations.*

The bosom of Nice, as it is alleged by some in Greece, plainly forbiddeth us to be lately affectioned, or bent towards the bosom, and wine, which are better before us.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of England.

Wesith is that, which generally men of all things are wont to affect and covet with most ardent desire. *Barrow's Sermons.*

He [Morice] was very learned, but full of pedantry and affectation. *Burnet's Own Times.*

Many that were well affected to the church, but that made conscience of subscribing to a book that they had not seen, left their benefices on that very account. *Id.*

He loves you too, with such an holy fire,
As will not, cannot, but with life expire;
Our vow'd affection, both have often tried,
Nor any love but yours, could ours divide.

Dryden. Pals. and Arcit.

He [Pearson, bishop of Chester] was a judicious and grave preacher, more instructive than affective; and a man of a spotless life, and of an excellent temper. *Burnet's Own Times.*

It is one thing to make an idea clear, and another to make it offering to the imagination. *Id.*

Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

O, friendly to the best parents of man,
Friendly to thought, to virtue, and to peace,
Domestic life in rural pleasures past!
Few know thy value, and few taste thy sweets;
Though many boast thy favours, and affect
To understand, and choose thee for their own.

Cowper's Task.

It is not meant, that we should be affectedly forward in talking of our religious; but, whenever we are called to do so, conductedly own it, and stand by it. *Secher's Sermons.*

When a wise man, even without fighting, perceives not the least affection shown him, then he resolves to die together with his enemy. *Sir Wm. Jones's Hippias.*

The man who listens not to the words of affectionate friends, will give joy in the moment of distress to his enemies. *Id.*

Those expectations of mine seem now so well grounded, that my disappointment, and consequently my anger, will be so much the greater if they fail, but, as things stand now, I am most affectionately and tenderly yours. *Chastelard. Letter etc.*

AFFECTED EQUATIONS, in Algebra, synonyms with affected equations. Also a term applied to those quantities to which particular characters are affixed,

as +, -, √, and which are then said to be affected **AFFECT.** by the sign. *AFFIE.*

AFFECTION, in Physic, is a term given to express the disease of any particular part of the body; as an affection of the eyes, the nerves, the liver, &c.

AFFECTION, in Metaphysics, strictly signifies any settled tendency of the mind toward an object; and has been distinguished from *passion*, as not requiring the presence of its object (real or imaginary), and from *disposition*, which may exist in the mind before affection has been excited. The term is generally, however, restricted to the benevolent affections. Dr. Cogran also distinguishes affection from *emotion*, by the permanency which is supposed to characterize the former, and its comparative independence of the external signs with which our emotions are connected. Dr. Reid applies the term affections to all those principles of human action which have persons for their immediate object: See **METAPHYSICS**, Div. I.—*COGRAN on the Passions*, and *REID'S ESSAYS on the Powers of the Human Mind*, 3 vols.

AFFERERS, or **AFFERORS**, a kind of referees, appointed by courts leet and courts baron, to determine the fine of those who are to be thus punished according to the will of such courts. **AFFERERS** are sworn for the purpose.

AFFETTUOSO, or *con Affeto*, in Music, is an Italian phrase, now constantly used by our musicians to denote that certain bars in the piece of music are to be played in a soft and slow movement; and sometimes the denotation is applied to the whole piece. Its literal English is, tenderly, or with tenderness.

AFFIANCE, in Law, was, according to Lysdleton, a term applied to the giving of faith between a man and a woman, in express promise of marriage. It does not appear that any particular ceremony was necessary to affiancing, though it was sometimes done by agreement in writing.

AFFIDAVIT, in Law, is a particular form of oath in writing, which can be administered only by those persons who are authorized. The bankrupt statute of Scotland compels the claimants to make affidavits of their respective debts; but they are not generally admitted as evidence in the Scotch courts of law.

AFFIE, v. or } Fr. *Affier. D'adidare*: comme
AFFY, } *qui differt fidem dare.* To give faith.
AFFYAXEE, } To give, place, or repose faith,
trust or credit. To trust, credit, or rely upon: the more common word now is, to confide.

To bind or pledge to the faithful performance of:—particularly applied to the marriage contract: to betroth.

Richard answered per stile, & said, "It is folly,
" To scheme counsel & skills, pat not it to affie,
" & phil per owen write per dede do certifie.

R. Branne, p. 155.

Wherefor he ran light, if pei to haf wild down,
pe comene at his myght to mayntene with inne,
& ynt he so mid pe barous had effiance,
His kaster pei him gode, with alle pe paraventure.

Id. p. 67.

— She is Fortune verely
In whom no man should affy,
Nor is her yetts hane fawce
She is so full of variances.

Chaucer. R. of R. fo. 341, col. 4.

No shal I never, for to gon to helia,
Bewray a word of thing that ye me tell,
Naught for no coineage, ne alliance,
But veraily for love and affiance.

Id. The Shipman's Tale, vol. ii. p. 35.

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AFFIRE. She passionately knelt at his feet, & swore, that by God's power she [Joan of Arc] was taught that he was his very sovereign prince & none other. Wherefore y^e kynge and all his ladies had in hyr y^e more reverence, that by hyr the lands should be releas'd, which at that daye was in passage myney.

Johyn, p. 641.

All bounteous offers freely they embrace,
And, to conclude, all recompense post,
The prince affires fair Falpy at the last.

Deuoyan. Barons' Wars.

MAZ. As there comes light from Heaven, and words for breath,
As there is sense in truth, and truth in virtue,
I am affir'd this man's wife, as strongly
As words could make up yours.

Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, act v.

At last such grace I found, and means I wrought,
That I that lady to my spouse had won;
Accord of friends, consent of parents sought,
Affiance made, my happiness begun.
There wanted nought but few rites to be done,
That marriage make.

Sprucer. Færie Queene, b. ii. c. iv.

If it be so presumptuous a matter to put affiance in the merits of
Christe, what is it then, to put affiance in our own merits.

Jeuel's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of England.

Trust and reliance on God is our duty and privilege. Every being has
a necessary dependence on him for his subsistence; but man of
all the visible creatures is only capable of affiance in him.

Rata. On the Existence of God.

AFFIRE, v. or } See FILE.
AFFIRE, } To rub, to smoothen by rubbing,
to polish or refine.

For well he wiste, when that song was songe,
He must preche, and wel ayle his tonge,
To wisne silver, as he right wel coude:
Therefore he sang the merier and lauder.

Chaucer. Prologue. The Pardoner, vol. i. p. 29.

For can he bair his tonge ofied
With softe speche, and with leysure,
Forthwith his false pitons lokinge
He wold make a woman weene
To gone upon the softe greene,
Whan that she faileth in the myr.

Gower. Con. A. bk. i.

AFFINED, part. } Ad: *finis*. The stymon of the
AFFINITY. } Latin—*Finis*, seems doubtful.
(See VOISSUS Ety. L. L.) Its application is to that
which bounds, terminates, ends; that which surrounds
or incloses within bounds.

The kindred of man and wife, are called *Affines*, because
two families are united by the marriage; and the
one has approached *ad finem*—alterius cognationis.

It is applied more generally to those who are brought
together, or united, or associated, for the same purpose.

To that which is brought near or adduced; from any
supposed similarity or resemblance.

For I am sure that Fryth and al his friends, with al the friends
that are of theyre affynite, shal neither be able to queneche and put
out that faith.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 905. c. 2.

Osway assembled his knyghtes, & made towards hym: and for
affinite of marriage that was betweene theyre children, Osway offered to
hym many great offes to thestat to have had peace with hym.

Falpyan, p. 118.

JACO. Now she, be judge yourselfe,

Whether I, in any just cause, am affir'd
To lose the Moore? *Shakespeare. Othello, act i.*

The king [K. Henry VI.] into a fatal match is led
With Rayner's daughter king of Sicily,
Whom with unchaste stars he married;
For by the name of this affinity
Was lost all that his father conquered.

Daniel. Civil Wars, b. v.

Some have thought its [Camelion] name not suitable unto its

nature; the nomination in Greek is a little lion, not so much for the
resemblance of shape, as affinity of condition.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

AFFIRM.

When I consider the affinity betwixt sleep and death, whose
image it is, I cannot but think it unlikely that this should be de-
signed for our happiness, since not to lose almost half of it were an
infelicity.

Boyle's Occasional Reflections, § 2. Med. vi.

Every one who has been long in Italy knows very well, that the
cadenzers in the recitative bear a remote affinity to the tone of their
voices in ordinary conversation.

Spectator, No. 29.

It is probable that the eagle and the circeus was a proverbial
image among the people of the East, expressing things inseparably
connected by natural affinity and sympathies. *Hardy's Sermons.*

AFFINITY, in Civil Law, expresses no actual relationship of blood, but merely that kind of legal kin which is contracted by means of a marriage. Hence it is distinguished from consanguinity. As it is a creature of the law, so has the law pronounced it in some cases to cease, when its cause (the marriage) has been defeated. A widow may be admitted in evidence for her former husband's brother, but cannot be so whilst she is a wife. The law of Moses forbade marriage in certain cases of affinity (Lev. xviii. &c.), and from those laws our own civilians and others in Europe pretty generally derived their prohibitions. The table of forbidden degrees of affinity is, by the ecclesiastical law of England, commanded to be hung up in all churches.

AFFINITY, in Chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii. **AFFIRM**, v.

AFFIRM, v. Ad: *firmo*: to give support, or security.
AFFIRMABLE, } To strengthen, to assure,
AFFIRMANCE, } and, as we now say, to confirm: to ratify; to establish.
AFFIRMATION, }
AFFIRMATIVE, n. } To speak or pronounce
AFFIRMATIVE, adj. } firmly, resolutely; to declare or assert confidently.
AFFIRMER, }

pe pape set pat terme, for his hysnyng was
pe ppe set sodd affirme, for dede of hysnyng was.

R. Erasmus, p. 316.

And with that word, for till hold firme, and stable,

His godlie aith and promys sworn was be,
By Seys the stude, Plato his brotheris ac,
Es that ilk piky bail, with brayn blik:
And lathlie prouff, to kepe all that he spek,
And till afferme his aith, at his liking
The breunair al maid trymble, for she sing.

Douglas, bk. x. p. 317.

And take this for a general rule, that every counsel that is *affirmed*
so strongly, that it may not be changed for no condition that may
betide, I say that thille counsel is wicked.

Chaucer. Tale of Meibere, vol. ii. p. 83.

Daughter, vint this bewaune

Among the goddesses it is affirmed,

And by eterne word written and confirmed,

Thou shalt be wedded unto on of tho.

That han for thee so much care and wo:

But este which of hem I sayest not.

Id. The Douglas Tale, vol. i. p. 83.

To appress the multitude, the kynge take the child in his arms,
and so bare hym into the place of the assemble of the people, and
there shewed unto theym, wth affirmance of great othes, that his en-
treat was only for the wele of the child and for defence of his
countrie.

Falpyan, p. 187.

He brighth to the mother after his twoe yeres sunning therewith,
neither in sight of any substantial learning, nor yet anye proude of
reason or naturall wylde but only a rache ostentatious tricke braine,
furnished with a bare bold assertion & affirmation of false poy-
soned heresies.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 442, c. 2.

And for a more vehement affirmance he doobledh his owne wordes
sayenge (he that here both not receyved forgiveness of his synnes)
he shall not be there (he shall not receyve be there: he meyneth that
he shall never come to heare) which were laith not his religion.

As answer unto my lord of Rochester, by John Frygh, K. 2.

AFFIRM. Yet is it not even so, no feible as his own, where he argueth in the negative, as I lay the sample for *thaffirmative*.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1151, c. 1.

Believing it the word of God, he must of necessity believe it true: and if he believe it true, he must believe it contains all necessary direction to eternal happiness, because it affirms it self to do so. Chalmers's *Religion of Protestants a Safe Way to Salvation*.

Franciscus Sanctius, in a laudable Comment upon Alcibiades Emblemes, affirms, and that from experience, a nightingale hath no tongue. Which if any man for a while shall believe upon his experience, he may at his leisure revise it by his own.

Rome's Vulgar Errors.

The common opinion of the Oestride, strophilacanthus or spar-row camel conceives that it digests iron, and this is confirmed by the affirmations of many.

Class. They [my friends] praise me, and make an use of me, now my foes tell me plainly, I am an ass: that by my foes, Sir, I profit in the knowledge of myself, and by my friends I am misled: so that conclusions to be as know, if your loose negatives make your two affirmatives, why then the worse for my friends, and the better for my foes. *Shakespeare. Twelfth Night*, act. 1.

It is as gross a paradox to hold there are no antipodes, and that the negative is now as absurd as the affirmative seemed at first. *Hucell's Letters*.

The reason of man hath not such restraint; concluding not only affirmatively but negatively; not only affirming there is no magnitude beyond the last heavens, but also denying there is any vacuity within them. *Id.*

The Syonards are not very scrupulous in affirming any thing that serves their ends. *Barnet's Own Times*.

All our affirmations are only incongruities, which is the affirming, not one abstract idea to be another, but one abstract idea to be joined to another. *Locke's Essay on Human Understanding*.

The rule, as it is prescribed in the gospel, is affirmative and preceptive: "Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so." But this affirmative precept implies the negative, that no such celebrated rule of righteousness and justice: "That which ye would not that men should do to you, do ye not to them."

Hale's Contemplations.

I do not mean to affirm generally that reason is not a judge in matters of religion; but I do maintain, that there are certain points concerning the nature of the Deity, and the schemes of Providence, upon which reason is dumb and revelation is explicit.

Horsley's Sermons.

The magna charta of king John was connected with another positive charter from Henry I. and both the one and the other were nothing more than a re-affirmance of the still more ancient standing law of the kingdom. *Burke. On the French Revolution*.

An affirmative proposition is when the idea of the predicate is supposed to agree to the idea of the subject, and is joined to it by the word is, or are, which is the copula; as, All men are sinners.

Watson's Logic.

If one writer shall affirm that virtue added to faith is sufficient to save a Christian, and another shall as resolutely deny this proposition, they seem to differ widely in words, and yet perhaps they may both really agree in sentiment: If by the word virtue, the affirmor intends our whole duty to God and man; and the denier by the word virtue means only courage, or at most our duty toward our neighbour, without including in the idea of it the duty which we owe to God. *Id.*

AFFIRMATION, in Law, an indulgence granted to the Society of Friends, or Quakers, in England, to substitute their word on particular occasions for an oath, which first ran in the following form:—"I, A. B. do declare, in the presence of Almighty God, the witness of the truth of what I say." But by stat. 8, Geo. I. cap. vi. the affirmation of Quakers is legal in the following words:—"I do solemnly, sincerely, and truly declare and affirm." &c. without saying in the presence of Almighty God; and, by the same statute, false and corrupt affirming incurs the penalties of wilful perjury. This privilege has, however, some important

exceptions. It does not extend to evidence in any criminal court, nor at any time to evidence against the government; nor can they serve on juries, nor be admitted to any place in the state, without taking the ordinary oath. The same term is also applied to the confirmation, by a superior court, of any degree of an inferior one. Hence we say, the House of Lords has affirmed such a decree of the Chancery Court.

AFFIRMATIVE, in Grammar, is applied to certain particles expressive of consent or approbation, such as Yes. It is also transferred in common language to persons giving an affirmation, or voting on the affirmative side of a question, as well as to the issue of a debate. Thus we say, 'the affirmatives have it;' the question was carried in the affirmative.

AFFIX', v. } **Ad: figo, firmo.** To fasten to.
AFFIX', n. } To join or unite closely; inseparably.
AFFIX'ION, n. } parably: to attach to, to connect with.

Before that tyrant set of men, that dede is,

Affix'ion made many dolours bedis,

With visage blackny, blade bearn, and bla,

The laithie odours of filth stilland theris.

Douglas, bk. viii. p. 117

For there be men, whiche other wise

Right only for the courtier,

Of this they seen a woman ridde,

Theris and theri all her lowe offe,

Nought for the beautie of hir face,

No yet for vertu no hir grace,

Whiche she hath eiris, bi enough,

But for the p-vice and for the plough,

And other thingis, whiche theris length.

Geoffr. Com. d. bk. v.

Hir modest eyes, abashed to behold,

So many gazers as on her do stare,

Upon the lowly ground affixed are.

Spenser. Faerie Queene.

In which tract of 70 years time, the vulgar sort of Jews neglecting their own mother tongue (the Hebrew), began to speak the Chaldee; but not having the right accent of it, and fashioning that new learned language to their own innovation of points, affixes, and conjunctions, out of that intermixture of Hebrew and Chaldee, resulted a third language, call'd to this day the Syriac.

Barnet's Letters.

Six several times we do find that Christ shed his blood; in his circumcision, in his agony, in his crowning, in his scourging, in his affixion, in his transiion.

Ep. Hale.

We see two sorts of white butterflies fastening their eggs to cabbage-leaves, because they are fit aliment for the caterpillars that come of them; whereas, should they affix them to the leaves of a plant improper for their food, such caterpillars must needs be lost.

Bay's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

In my possession is a remarkable picture, which so many circumstances affix to the history of this prince [Henry VI.] that I cannot hesitate to believe it designed for him, though I imagine it was painted after his death.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting in England.

The handles of our modern vessels, whether of clay, or of metal, are awkwardly affixed to the vessel, instead of making a part of it. *Gilpin's Tour in the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.*

AFFIX, in Grammar, is an addition to a word, which alters or modifies its meaning. The oriental languages abound in them.

AFFLATUS (from *ad*, and *flare* to blow), in Ancient Mythology, signified the inspiration of the priestess of the Delphic oracle, supposed to be by the god Apollo. She received this afflatus by being placed on a stool over the sacred cave of the god, and the incoherent words she uttered in that moment were held prophetic. It is now considered

**AFFLA-
TUS.**

AFFLU-
TUS.
—
AFFLUENT.

highly probable that this effect was produced by a gas which issued from the earth, of a deleterious quality (there are still many such exhalations), the inhaling of which produced sudden phrenzy, and sometimes permanent disease; for we find it mentioned by Plutarch and Lucan, as sometimes causing death. Heathen superstition might well supply the miraculous part of the story.

AFFLICT'Y. } Ad: *Wigo*. To dash against.
AFFLICT'ION, } To strike against with vio-
AFFLICTIVE, } lence; to shatter; and conse-
AFFLICTIVELY. } quently to pain; to distress;
to cause sorrow or calamity.

Abjey & priory, & other religious,
For vs able prey & ere in per affliction.

R. Bruner, p. 302.

Perkyn Warbeck then being in Flanders, had taken great care and sorrow for that his craftie countenance was espied and openly known, and also that King Henry had offered and promised diverse of his confederates and allies, and thereby [he was] in despite of all the ayde and succour that was to hym promised and appointed.

Hall, p. 47 l.

For as Salomon sayth. The hope that is deferred and delayed, paineth and afflicteth the soule.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1080. c. 2.

For as the afflictions of Christ are plentiful in vs, even so is our consolation plentiful by Christ.

Bible, 1539, 2 Cor. chap. i.

Yet in the midst of this affliction, and to make an end of these, God of his infinite goodness, looking on this country, with his eyes of pity, and aspect of mercy, hath sent me in the truth, to restore again this decayed kyngdome, to his ancient fame and olds renowne.

Holl, p. 247.

Shed thy fair beames into my feeble eyne,
And raise my thoughts, too humble, and too vile,
To think of that glorious type of thine,
The argument of mine afflicted stile:
The which to leav, vouchsafe I dearest dread awhile.

Spenser. *Lutra to Fair Queene*.

What! when we find smale, pursued and struck
With heaven's afflicting thunder, and brought
The deep to shiver us? This hell then seem'd
A refuge from those wounds.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, b. ii.

If any were afflicted also comforted them, so that they felt not the insupportable of a prison who were in that place.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

Glo. I do remember now: henceforth I'll leave
Affliction, all it do cry out it selfe
Enough, enough, and dye.

Shakespeare. *Lear*, act. iv.

If he be compassionate towards the afflictions of others, it shews that his heart is like the noble tree that is wounded itself when it gives the balm.

Bacon's *Essay on Goodness and Goodness of Nature*.

An afflicted man is very apt to fancy that any kind of sickness that for the present troubles him, is far less supportable than any other.

Baile's *Occasional Reflections*, § 2, Med. 3.

To thine O King th' afflicted to redress,
And fame has fill'd the word with thy success:
We wretched women, sue for that name,
Which of thy goodness is refus'd to some.

Dryden. *Polem. & Art.*

For restless Prosperity for ever breeds
In paths unseen, o'er our devoted heads;
And on the spacious land, and liquid main,
Spreads slow disease, and darts afflictive pain;
Variety of deaths confirm her endless reign.
Fair Fancy wept, and echoing sighs confess'd
A fast despite in every tender breast.
Not with more grief the afflicted sinners appear,
When wintry winds deform the piteous year.

Prior.

Coffin.

AFFLUENCE, n.
AFFLUENT,
AFFLUX,
AFFLUXION.

ing with the fulness of a flood.

As they lived in great affluence and ease, we may presume, that they enjoyed such pleasures, as that condition afforded, free and uninterrupted.

Bacon's *Criticism on Pastoral Writing*.

External or worldly prosperity, consists in an accommodated condition of men in this world, as health of body, comfort of friends and relations, affluence, or at least competency of wealth, power, honour, applause, good report, and the like.

Hale's *Contemplations*.

[Pleasure] is an inflammation, either simple, consisting only of an hot and sanguineous effusion; or else derivable from other humors according to the prebundance of melancholy, yellow, or choleric.

Though an unweildy affluence may afford some easy pleasure to the imagination, yet that small pleasure is far from being able to counteract the miseries that attend an overgrown fortune.

Baile's *Occasional Reflections*, § iv. Dis. 21.

Our writers of rising merit are generally neglected, while the few of an established reputation are overlaid by luxurious effluence.

Goldsmith. *On the Present State of Pallas Learning*.

Yon towers are every day growing in size and splendour; many of the higher ranks among you live in no small degree of opulence; their interiors, in ease and plenty. What the usual fruits of such affluence as this are, is but too well known.

Forster's *Letter to the Inhabitants of Manchester*.

This country is so highly indebted to Sir Edward Hawke, that no expense should be spared to secure to him an honorable and affluent retreat.

Janina. *Letter i*.

AFFOBA, in Botany, a plant known on the coast of Guinen, in Africa. It is similar to our kidney-bean, and is hairy, with small leaves. The natives use this plant, reduced to powder, and with a mixture of oil, for the cure of certain cutaneous affections. Genus Phacelia.

AFFORD, v. No satisfactory etymology has been given of this word. Affair is by the ancient Scotch authors written Affair or Effair, Effere. They also use it as a verb: the past participle of which is Efficed, Afficed, Affaired.

Afford, then, is probably a verb, founded upon this past participle; and means, to make for, contribute towards, yield, produce.

Particularly applied in matters of loss and gain. Afford, is used by Dr. Sheldon as a past tense or past participle.

[There is] no such offering of Christ in the Scripture, where you will find it once afford for all.

Sheldon to Chillingworth, in the *Life of Chillingworth*. Works, p. vii.

PAR. I would the cunning of my garments would serve the torque, or the breaking of my Spanish sword.

La E. We cannot afford it you no.

Shakespeare. *All's Well that Ends Well*, act. iv.

KING. Why spend'st thou so?

HIS. What lesser liberty can kings afford.

Than harmless silence? Then afford it me.

Speech *Tragedy*, 3d edit. act. v.

No, no, Hieronimo, thou must rejoice

Thine eyes to observation, and thy tongue

To milder speeches than thy spirit affords.

Id. act. iv.

To pass by the mighty elephant, which the earth breeds and nourish, and decreed to the least of creatures, how doth the earth afford to a doctinal example in the little plaine, who in the summer provides and lays up her winter provision, and teaches man to do the like!

H. often's *Dogter*.

Whether the flux and reflux of the sea be caused by any magnetism from the moon; whether the lake be really made out, or

AFFORD, rather metaphorically verified in the sympathies of plants and animals, might afford a large dispute. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

AFFRAY.

Great Dryden next, whose *terrible* was *affray*
The sweetest numbers, and the finest words.
Whether in comic sounds, or tragic airs
She farms her voice, she moves our smiles or tears.

Addition.

Stem sapient upon his brow might sit,
But smiles still playing round it, made it sweet:
So finely mix'd! but nature almost I afford
One least perfection more, he'd been ador'd.

Ottway. Wandering Contr.

The quiet lanes of Surrey; which leading to no great mart, or general rendezvous, afford calmer retreats on every side, than can easily be found in the neighbourhood of so great a town.

Colin's Tear to the Ladies of Cumberland, &c.

AFFORESTING, in Old Law, is the converting populous and cultivated countries into forests for game. The most notorious example of this kind in our history, is that given by William the Conqueror, who thus appropriated immense parts of this island. The term in opposition to this is *Deforesting*.

AFFRAY, v. Of the origin of the French, *Frappé*, to strike, Menage acknowledges his ignorance. The AS, *Le-ppaygan*, is explained by Lye to mean *Accusare*. *Frage* is used by R. Branne, p. 323.

Faint, Sir, I let you meet, that from the house

I taken was from nurses tender care,

I have been trained up in warlike armour,

To town-peace and shield, and to *affray*

The warlike rider to his most mishap.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, b. iii. c. ii.

He ran 't encounter him in equal race,

They knew 't meet, both ready to *affray*.

When suddenly that winter gale arose

His threatened spite, as if worse new mishap

Had him betide, or hidden danger did entrap.

Id. b. ii. c. i.

AFFRAY, v. Etymologists have not settled the origin of this word. The old English word, to *fray*; to rub, to ruffle; supplies a meaning which appears sufficiently to account for all the usages of the verb and noun, *Affray*, and of the adjective *Affraid* also.

To put out of order, to disorder, to confuse, or confound, to disturb, to harass. And consequently to alarm, to terrify, to raise apprehensions of danger.

pe stones were of Byres, pe *noyse* dreddfull & grette,

It *affraid* pe *Saxons*, so leuen pe fire out schete.

pe *noyse* was vnrde, it holed alle day,

Yre more tile euerdide, per of had many *affray*.

R. Branne, p. 174.

Me met then in my bed all naked,

And liked further, for I was woked

With small fowles a great hepe,

That had *affraid* me out of my slepe,

Through noise, and sweetnes of her song.

The Dream of Chaucer, fol. 241. c. 1.

I was out of my wommen *affraid*,

Whereof I sigh my wittes straine,

And gun to olpe her home agayne.

Gower. Cm. d. b. viii.

And me quiam laide in wappin nor daris cast

No preia of Grekis routs could make agast,

Ik souch of wynd, and every quikner now,

And alkin stonys *affray*, and castil grow

Both for my birde and my lull maid.

Douglas, bk. ii. p. 63.

And me, whom late the dart which comes there,

No prevaile of Argive routes could make unade,

Eke whisping wind both power now to *fray*,

And every sound to move my doubtful mind;

So much I dread my burden and my fear.

Surrey, Id.

God so *affray* me w^t so terrible a dream, that all things began to be to me suspect, fearful, uneasy and ready to fall from me.

The Expulsion of David, by George Jey, fo. 50. c. 2.

In heart I have had so great pain

So great agony and such *affray*

That I ne wote what I shall say.

Chaucer. The Romance of the Rose, f. 130. c. 4.

Thys wourthy knyght the comen wele Romane

In grette *affray* perurbit to rest agane

And quiet all restore.

Douglas, b. vi. p. 196.

This wif was not *afraid* ne *affraid*,

But boldly she saide, and that anon;

Mary I drede that false monk Don John,

I kepe not of his solaces never a del.

Chaucer. The Shipman's Tale, v. li. p. 45.

Be not your herte *afraid*, ne drede it; ye blesen in God,

and blesue ye in nat. In the hous of my fadir, ben many dwel-

ling.

Wielz. Jon. ch. xiv.

As when a griffin seized of his prey,

A dragon fierce encountereth in his flight,

Through wildest air making his idle way,

That would his sightfull ravine send away:

With hideous howl both together might

And scure so sore, that they the heavens *affray*.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, b. i. c. v.

Naught could she say,

But suddaine cuncting hold, did her dismay

With quaking hands, and other signs of feare;

Who fell of partly light, and cold *affray*

Can shut the door.

Id. b. i. a. li.

Drest. If Caesar hide himself, shall they not whipper

Loe Caesar is *afraid*?

Shakespeare. Julius Caesar, act. ii.

Some suspect treason still; others are afraid of their dearest and

most friends, and dare not be alone in the dark, for fear of hab-

goblins and devils.

Barton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

— A golden arm'd

Out of thy head I spring. Amazeant sea'd

All the host of heaven; back they recoil'd *afraid*

All at once and called me *sin*, and for a sign

Torturous held me.

Milton. Par. L. b. ii.

Who would trust another in matters of highest consequence, and

be *afraid* to rely on him in things of less moment.

Chillingworth's Religion of Protestants a Safe way to Salvation.

A knowing man will do that, which a tender conscience man dares

not do, by reason of his ignorance; the other knows there is no

harm, as a child is *afraid* to go into the dark, when a man is not,

because he knows there is no danger.

Selden's Table Talk.

Dance aish faint praise, ascent with civil leer;

And without meeting, teach the rest to meet;

Willing to wound, and yet *afraid* to strike,

u stint a fault, and hesitate dialle.

Pope. Pers. to Satires.

Affray (from *affraier*, to terrify) are the fighting of two or more

persons in some public place, to the terror of his Majesty's subjects;

but, if the fighting be in private, it is no *affray*, but an assault.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

Here make thy court, mould out our rural scene,

And shepherd-girls shall own thee for their queen.

With thee be chastity, of all *afraid*,

Disarming all, a wise suspicious maid.

Celcius. Orient. Ec.

Their [the Emperors'] example was universally imitated by their

principal subjects, who were not *afraid* of declaring to the world,

that they had spirit to conceive, and wealth to accomplish, the

mostest undertakings.

Gibbon's Rome.

AFFRAY, in Law, by stat. 2 Edw. III. is de-

fined to be the offence of persons appearing in public

with unusual or terrific weapons. At present the fight-

AFGHANISTAN.

AFGHANISTAN.

Situation and boundaries.

Mountains.

AFGHANISTAN, a kingdom of Asia, forming a considerable portion of Caubul, is bounded on the north by Hindoo Coosh and the Paropamisan range of mountains, by which it is separated from Bulkh and Budukshan; on the east by the river Indus; on the south by the hills which form the northern boundary of Seeristan; on the west by the desert which stretches into Persia. So much of the Afghan country as lies to the west of the parallel of Mookloor in lon. $68^{\circ} 30'$ is included in the extensive province of Khorassan, the remaining part of that province, bounded by the Oxus, the Salt Desert and the Caspian Sea, belongs to Persia.

MOUNTAINS.—It has been already stated that the Hindoo Coosh is part of the northern boundary of Afghanistan. This is a mountainous and snowy ridge which pursues its course westerly from the Indus to lon. 71° , after which its direction is at present not ascertained. The elevation of Hindoo Coosh is very great, since no diminution of snow was observed by the honourable Mount Stuart Elphinstone on any part of the range in the month of June, when the thermometer in the plain of Peshawar was 113° ; who observes that if Lieutenant Macartney's admeasurement be correct, who estimated one of the summits at 20,493 feet, the peaks of Hindoo Coosh are higher than those of the Andes. The inferior ranges are generally well wooded, having many European fruits and flowers growing in wild luxuriance; the tops of the highest are bare. Three branches stretch from the great ridge at right angles, to the lower ranges, one of which is covered with pine forests inhabited by the Otmankhail tribe. The Paropamisan chain extends three hundred and fifty miles from east to west, and two hundred from north to south, the whole of which space consists of an intricate maze of mountains hitherto unexplored. The whole is, generally speaking, barren and wild, especially on the eastern side. The range of Solimann commences at the White Mountain, or Suffaid Koh, so called from its being always covered with snow; from which the range runs south south-east, passing through the Jihjee country, and then turns southerly, forming the mountainous country of the Jadrans which extends to lat. 31° N. Two minor ranges accompany that of Solimann, in a parallel direction on its eastern side from the southern borders of Afghanistan as far as lat. $32^{\circ} 20'$ every where pierced with valleys and intersected with rivers. The first of these ranges is lower than the principal ridge, the second still lower and entirely bare, except in the hollows which contain some thickets of brush-wood. The Solimann range is composed of a hard black stone, the next range of red stone, and the third of a friable grey sand stone. Besides these, are several minor hills running east and west of the great chain.

Rivers.

RIVERS.—Compared to the extent of the country, the rivers are of very inferior consideration, being fordable throughout their whole course for most part of the year. The Indus is the only exception to this remark, which is to be reckoned among the first rivers in

the world. It has been traced for 1,350 miles, but its entire length from the head to the sea has never been ascertained. At the point above Drus, a town in Little Tibet, to which only it is traced with certainty, it is met by a smaller branch which has been pursued from Rodauk, a distance of 250 miles. From its passing near the capital of Little Tibet it has acquired the name of the river of Lalauk, at which place it is joined by another stream from the north-west supposed to issue from the lake Surickol. The desolate nature of the country through which it flows previously to its entering Afghanistan has totally prevented its sources being accurately discovered. At Mullau, after passing through the range of Hindoo Coosh, it receives the Abhaseen, a small river from the north-west, which rises in the mountains at the distance of one hundred and twenty miles, and after pursuing its course for fifty miles, issues into an open country and spreads over the plain, enclosing a multitude of islands. Forty miles onward, near the fort of Attok, it receives the rapid river of Caubul, and soon afterwards rushes through a narrow opening into the branches of the Solimann range. The Indus is contracted at Attok to the breadth of only three hundred yards; it is still narrower where it enters the hills, and at Neelaub, fifteen miles below, it is said to be only a stone's throw across, but very deep and rapid; thence it winds among bare hills, to Carraugh where it passes through the salt range in a clear and tranquil stream, from which point to the sea it is no longer enclosed by hills or hindered by obstructions. Near Ouch it receives the large river of Punjund, and then runs south-west into Sind, where it disembogues itself through many mouths into the gulph of Arabia. Of the rivers which join from the east, the chief are the Ammu or Oxna, the Kokcha or Budukshan river, the Aksurrai, the Hissar, the Turfshan, the Murghab, the Siud, and others; of those which join from the west there are the Abha Seen, the Kauskhshur, the Caubul, and the Gomul. The largest river which flows through the west of Afghanistan is the Helmund or Etymander, which rises on the eastern edge of the Paropamisan range, twenty or thirty miles west of Caubul; after running among mountains for upwards of two hundred miles, it enters into the cultivated plains of the Dooraunes, then issues a desert which extends to its termination in the lake of Seeristan. Its whole length is four hundred miles, and its banks are every where fertile and well cultivated. The Urghundaub, the Khashrood, the Furrah-rood, the Lora and others, are of inferior magnitude or importance.

CLIMATE.—Afghanistan presents some peculiarities of climate, particularly with regard to the monsoon or the rainy season. It is generally felt with much less violence than in India, and is exhausted near the sea, so that at Candahar there is no trace of it, and yet in the north-east of Afghanistan, although at a much greater distance from the sea than Candahar, not only does the monsoon prevail, but what is remarkable it comes from the east. The south-west monsoon, as it

AFGHANISTAN.

AFGHAN-
NISTAN. is termed in India, commences on the Malabar coast in May, but is later and more moderate in Mysore; further north it commences in June. The countries under the hills of Cashmere, and those under Hindoo Coosh have all their share of the rains, which diminish as we proceed west. At the close of July or beginning of August, the monsoon appears in clouds and showers at Peshawar, and in the countries of Buzgush and Khutuk, but is less felt in the valley of the Cabul river. The winter rains and snow which extend over all the countries west of the Indus as far as the Hellespont, are of great importance to agriculture. The spring rain falls at different times, during a period, in some places, of a fortnight; in others, a month; it extends over Afghanistan, Turkeistan, and other countries.

The climate of Afghanistan varies exceedingly in different places; which is, doubtless, chiefly owing to the different degrees of elevation of different tracts, the direction of the most prevalent winds, and other local circumstances. The low parts are hot, the middle temperate, and the elevated cold; but the average heat of the year does not reach that of India, nor the cold that of England. Mr. Elphinstone arrived in the plain of Peshawar, which is surrounded on all sides, except the east, with hills, on the 23d of February, 1809, when the weather was cold at night but agreeable in the day, but at no time sultry. The ground was covered with hoar frost in the morning till the 5th of March, but by the middle of the month the sun was unpleasantly hot by eight in the morning. Its intensity gradually increased, but was alleviated by occasional showers till the first week of May, when the wind became heated. Some of the early trees were budding in February, and the grass springing up. By the first week in March, peach and plum trees began to blossom, and other kinds of vegetation rapidly followed, and before the end of March the trees were in full foliage; early in April the barley was in ear, and was cut the first week in May. The heat was frequently intense, even in the night, from that time till the beginning of June, and attained its height by the 23d of that month. Alternate changes were to be expected till the middle of July, when, he was informed, a cool wind would set in from the east, and be succeeded by cool and cloudy weather. The last half of September was always cold, and reckoned a winter month. But the cold in winter is not very great, and snow has been only once seen according to the recollection of the oldest inhabitants. Some of the Indian plants remain in leaf all the year. In 1809, when the summer was reckoned a cool one, the greatest height of the thermometer in the shade was estimated at 120°, and its greatest depression during the year at 25°. Bunnoo appears to be as hot as Peshawar, and the Esaukail perhaps more so; Khost and Dour are probably cooler. The Murvut country varies, but is generally hot; the same may be said of Largee. The winter of Daman being colder than that of Hindostan, is more agreeable; frost is common in the morning, and the thermometer often below the freezing point at day-break; but the summer is intensely hot. The nights are nearly as warm as the days, and the inhabitants wet their clothes before they go to sleep. The countries in the range of Soliman are generally cold. The heat of Sind is equal to that of Daman. In proceeding east from Candahar, whose climate is hot, the

cold of winter increases at every stage, and the heat of AFGHAN-
NISTAN. summer proportionally diminishes. In the high tract to the south of the valley of the Tarnak, where Kelaut is situated, the cold seems to be as great as in any part of Afghanistan; at Kelace Abdoorchem the snow lies for three or four months, and the streams are frozen over during that period, so as to bear a man on horseback.

The prevailing winds throughout the whole of the Winds. Afghanistan are from the west. It is commonly said, that easterly winds are hot and bring clouds; westerly cold, and shed the contents of them. The pestilential simoon is known in some parts of the country, generally in the hotter parts. It lasts only a few minutes at a time, and occasions death when a person is caught in it, unless he takes warning by a particular smell which precedes it, and seeks some secure retreat.

On the whole, the climate is dry, and little subject to rain, clouds, and fog, and may be pronounced favourable to the human constitution, though it may be considered as doubtful whether the diseases of Afghanistan are not more fatal than those of India. They are, however, few in number. Fevers and agues are common in autumn. The small-pox is remarkably prevalent, and carries off multitudes, though inoculation has long been practised by the Mollahs and Syeds in the most remote parts of the kingdom. Ophthalmia is also frequent.

ANIMALS.—It is doubtful whether there are any Animals. lions in Afghanistan, although they are so frequent in the neighbouring country of Persia. Tigers are found in the woody regions. Wolves are common, and particularly formidable in the winter, when they form into troops, and are very destructive to the cattle, sometimes even attacking men. Hyenas make great havoc among the sheep. Bears are common in the woody mountains, but seldom quit their haunts, except when tempted by sugar-cane plantations. There are two species, the black bear of India, and another of a dirty white, or yellowish colour. Deer of various kinds abound in the mountains; the antelope is found but rarely in the plains. The deer which the Persians call Pauzen is the most remarkable species, on account of the size of its horns, and the strong, though not unpleasant smell of its body. A few other wild animals also exist, and monkeys are met with in the northern-eastern parts.

Of domestic animals, excellent horses are bred in some districts; those of Herat are considered as particularly fine. The ponies of Baumiun, called *gashoor*, are in high esteem; but, in general, the horses of the Afghan dominions are not very good, with the exception of those produced in the province of Balkh. Mules and asses are employed, but the camel is the animal in most frequent use for carriage. The dromedary is found in the dry and sandy plains. Buffaloes are not uncommon, and oxen are made use of to plough all over the Cabul dominions. Sheep the great stock of the pastoral tribes, are remarkable for their fat. Goats abound in the mountains, and some have singularly long and curiously twisted horns. The Afghans have also excellent greyhounds and pointers, bearing a striking resemblance to our own. The long-haired species of cats, called *boorak*, are exported in great numbers.

AFGHAUNISTAUN.

Birds.

Of birds, besides the ordinary species of inferior consideration, as pigeons, doves, crows, sparrows, a few cuckoos and magpies (which latter abound in the cold districts), there are two or three species of eagles, of which the gentle falcon is reckoned the best. The shanbeen is taught to soar over the falconer's head and strike the quarry as it rises. The chirk is taught to strike the antelope, to fasten on its head, and retard it till the greyhounds approach. Herons, cranes, storks, wild ducks, geese, swans, &c. are common.

Reptiles.

Reptiles are not in general remarkable. The snakes are innocuous; the scorpions of Peshawar large and venomous, but their bite is seldom fatal.

Fish.

Little is known of the fish. There are turtles and tortoises.

Locusts.

Femines have been sometimes produced by immense flights of locusts, which, however, appear but occasionally. Mosquitoes are less troublesome than in India, except in Secstaun. Bees are common.

Vegetables.

Many of our European trees are common in Afghaunistan, and most of our finest fruits grow wild. Pines are perpetually to be met with, one species of which, called the jidgooseb, is remarkable for cones larger than artichokes, and containing seeds resembling pistachio nuts. Oaks, cedars, and cypresses are also numerous in the mountains, also the wallnut and wild olive. On the plains, the commonest wild trees are the mulberry, the tamarisk, and the willow, the plane and the poplar. Wild grapes are also frequent. English flowers, of almost every kind, are to be seen.

Minerals.

Gold is to be found in the streams that flow from the Hindoo Coosh range of mountains. Silver exists in small quantities, in the country of the Caufirs. There are mines of lead and antimony mixed in the country of the Afreedees and Hazarehs; and of lead alone, in Upper Bungush and other provinces. Iron is to be met with in the country of the Vizeerrees and other parts, and indications of copper. Sulphur is found in Bulk and Seewestaun. Saltpetre is made every where from the soil. Alum is got from the clay of Callabaugh, and orpiment is found in Bulk and the country of the Hazarehs.

GOVERNMENT.

GOVERNMENT.—The Afghaun nation consists of an assemblage of commonwealths or tribes, having each a government of its own, formed into one state by the supreme authority of a common sovereign. Their descent is traced to Kyse Abdoorsherd, from whose four sons spring their principal distinctions. The tribes continue in a considerable degree unmixed, but each is branched out into numerous sub-divisions. The term Ooloo is applied to a whole tribe, of whom the chief is called Kham. He is chosen from the oldest family; in some tribes the election is vested in the people, but generally it rests with the king, who can remove a kham at pleasure, and substitute one of his relations. This gives occasion to many disputes, and to much intrigue, and has not infrequently produced civil wars. The head of a subordinate division is elected by the oldest family belonging to it, excepting in the lowest sub-division, where the supremacy naturally devolves upon the most aged and venerable individual. The internal government of the tribes is conducted by the khams and assemblies, called Jeergas, consisting of the heads of divisions. Each ooloo and division again holds its own subordinate jeergas. Occasionally the kham acts without consulting the jeerga. This, how-

ever, is rather the model of the government, than a real description of it as it is found in operation, for the different clans often act independently, though they acknowledge their superiors. Sometimes the whole constitution is overturned; the kham establishes an arbitrary jurisdiction; or, more frequently the chiefs, and even each family, rejects its dependance, which is sometimes partially remedied by the selection of some temporary magistrate. "Throughout all the tribes," Mr. Elphinstone remarks, "the clanish attachment of the Afghans, unlike that of the Highlanders, is rather to the community than to the chief; and though, in their notion of their kham, the idea of a magistrate set up for the public good, is certainly mixed with that of a patriarchal and natural superior, yet the former impression will always be found to be the strongest. Accordingly, the power of life and death, so commonly exercised by chiefs in the Highlands, when clanship was in its vigour, is scarcely ever possessed by an Afghaun kham; and it is but rarely that the personal interest of the kham, would lead a tribe to take any step inconsistent with its own honour or advantage. The tribes are frequently in a state of actual war with each other, or of suspended hostility; the Eosofyes are never at peace. They require the service of a foot soldier for every plough, or of a horseman for every two; a fine is imposed for non-attendance. The chiefs retain the same stations of command in war as in peace. The fighting men receive no pay; but in some of the tribes, if a horse is killed the owner receives the price from a fund formed by fines, and by a tax on the tribe. Almost every sub-division provides for the maintenance of moolahs or Mohammedan priests, and for the reception of guests. The general law of the kingdom is that of Mahomet, which in the oolooes is adopted in civil actions, but the code applied to the internal administration of criminal justice, is the Posh-toonwalle, or usage of the Afghans, a rude and necessarily uncertain system, which opens the door for the admission of disputes and retentions of every description. If mediation and persuasion do not avail to settle differences, the injured person is left to pursue his own revenge; in a few tribes, the parties are compelled either to submit to arbitration or to quit the ooloo. Criminal trials are conducted before a jeerga composed of khams, mulliks or elders, assisted by moolahs and grave persons of inferior rank. Petty offences are settled by the jeerga of the village or sub-division where they occur. A jeerga is assembled by the local chief, or other respectable person, and when the assembly is met they take their seats on the ground, the principal man, after a short prayer, repeating a Pushtoo verse, which imports that "events are with God, but deliberation is allowed to man." A penalty is affixed to every offence, except among the Berdoorancees, where the jeerga determines it. It always includes a public submission and apology; and in serious cases, a certain number of young women are consigned over in marriage to the person aggrieved and his relations. After making some show of delivering up the criminal to the accuser, the parties are directed to salute each other with the usual address of Salaam a'likum, "peace be unto thee," and to partake of each other's hospitality. The jeergas are useful institutions, and usually conduct themselves with tolerable hospitality; and instead of being scenes of noisy and tumultuous

AFGHAUNISTAUN.

AFGHAUNISTAN. debate, as might be supposed, they are commonly remarkable for order and attraction, by a display of natural eloquence.

Among the Afghans, where parts of two subdivisions live in the same village, though each has a head of its own, they hold their *jeergas* in common, and act as one. A division which quits its *oosoo* may be adopted into another, it being part of the Afghani rules of hospitality, to treat them in such cases with marked attention, and to assign them lands for settlement, and their chief has a place at the principal *jeerga*.

The king is the natural head of the tribe of Doorancee, which is the most powerful and most civilized in the nation. His authority extends to a superintendence over the whole kingdom, and to levying troops for the common defence. All the foreign provinces of the state, and the *Taujiks*, who inhabit many of the plains, are under his sway: in consequence of which he is enabled to collect a revenue and maintain an army independently of the tribes. Hence results some distinction of interests between the king and the nation, and a difference of opinion respecting the extent of his powers. One or two tribes are independent of his government.

Education and language.

EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE.—In childhood the Afghans are committed to the instructions of a moolah, or priest, where they are taught passages of the Koran, and in some places the whole of it in Arabic. The opulent keep moolahs in their houses. In every village and camp there is a schoolmaster, who is maintained by an allotment of land and by contributions from his scholars. In towns there are regular schools. Establishments are formed at Peshawar and other places, for the completion of the education of those who are to be brought up as moolahs in logic, law, and theology; and the promotion of learning is accounted a good work in the sight of God.

The Afghani language is called *Pushtoo*. The words connected with religion, government, and science, are mostly introduced from the Arabic, through the Persian. The Afghans use the Persian alphabet, and generally write in the *Nushk* character. Their own peculiar sounds are expressed by adding particular marks to the nearest Persian letter. The *Pushtoo* is a manly language, though rough; their chief authors are of modern date, not more than one hundred and fifty years: their literature has been derived from the Persians. Rehmann is their most popular poet; though Mr. Elphinstone considers *Khoshhaal* as far superior. He was a *khann*, of the tribe of *Khuttak*, and his life was spent in struggles against the great mogul; this has given a martial air and spirit to his compositions. They have also historians and writers on theology and law. Their way of studying the sciences is perfectly methodical; so that if one learned person meets another, with whom he is unacquainted, he will inquire of him what sciences he has studied, and what books he has read; to which the other will reply, "up to so and so," which will be at once understood, as all books are read in a fixed order. Some of the Afghani kings have given great encouragement to letters. Ahmed Shah used to hold an assembly of the learned once a week, which practice was retained by Timour Shah, and is still continued. Both these monarchs composed Persian poems.

Agriculture. AGRICULTURE. — Afghaniistan comprises five

classes of cultivators; namely, proprietors, who cultivate their own land; tenants, who rent lands either in money, or for a fixed proportion of the produce; *buzgurs*, or farmers, resembling the metayers of France; hired labourers and villains, who cultivate their lords' lands without wages. Land in general is very equally divided in this country. In most places there are two harvests in the year; one, sown in the end of autumn, is reaped in summer, consisting of wheat, barley, addus, and mukhod, with peas and beans; the other sown in spring and reaped in autumn, consisting of rice, arzan, Indian corn, &c. In the coldest districts there is only one harvest, sown in spring and reaped in autumn. In the country of the *Khimrootes* their only harvest is sown at the end of one autumn and gathered at the commencement of another. Another kind of cultivation is considered important, comprehending melons of different kinds, cucumbers, pumpkins, and gourds. Wheat is the great grain of the country, and the most common food of its inhabitants; barley is used to horses. Turnips are cultivated, and used to feed cattle. The *palma Christi*, or castor-oil plant, is every where common, and is called *badanger*. The *assafetida* plant is wild in the western hills. Tobacco is produced in many parts. Lacquer is among the most important articles of the husbandry of the west. The lands are usually watered by irrigation, by means of embankments and channels, and a sort of conduit, called *cauriz*. Wells and ponds are seldom used, except for drinking. The plough is usually drawn by oxen; in some places by horses; and in a few by camels and asses. The transportation of the grain and of manure is by asses, bullocks, or camels.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—It is a remarkable feature Trade and commerce in the towns of this country, that the majority of the population does not consist of Afghans. No Afghani ever keeps a shop or exercises any handicraft trade: the *Taujiks* chiefly follow these occupations, especially in the west; and in the east, the Hindoos, a people of Indian origin. They are divided into bankers, merchants, artisans, and labourers. The banking business falls principally into the hands of the Hindoos, owing to the prohibition contained in the Koran against Musulmans taking interest. There are no merchants of very large fortune, though commerce is by no means held in disrepute, and though its chief agents are considered as belonging to the upper classes of society. The merchants are generally sober in their habits, and, from their intercourse abroad, enlightened men, in comparison with others. No man of any rank would scruple to sell a horse, a sword, or other article, which he did not require, though regular trade would be deemed degrading to the gent.

They are divided into thirty-two trades, each of which has its *culkhoda*, or chief, who manages all transactions between the trade and the government. They are not taxed, but are liable to grievous exactions, particularly to the furnishing shops for the camp market. When the king marches from any city, an order is issued to the *culkhodas* to furnish a shop of each trade to accompany the court to the next considerable town; in this case the artificers are not paid by the work, being regarded as the king's servants, only a sum of money is given, when they are dismissed, in lieu of payment, which, after passing through the hands of the courtiers and the head of the trade, is a very

AFGHAN. inadequate compensation to the artificer. This opinion is fully borne out on the cities of Herat, Candahar, Caubul, and Peshawar.

The transportation of merchandise with practicable roads or navigable rivers, is, of course, by means of canals. The merchants often accompany their own merchandise to its place of destination, and sell it to the haunts of the wandering tribes, the trade is conducted by animals belonging to the merchants and carriers of the cities, which are formed into caravans; and thus the foreign trade is carried on. The chief foreign trade is with India, Persia, and Turkistan; a cloth called *ustoo*, made of shawl wool, is imported from Tibet, and the ports of Sind maintain some intercourse with Arabia. The exports to India are *horses* and *ponies*, *furs*, *shawls*, *Mooltan chintz*, *madder*, *assa-fetida*, *tobacco*, *almonds*, *pistachio nuts*, *walnuts*, *hazel nuts*, and *fruits*. The imports from India are *coarse cotton cloths*, *muslins*, and other fine manufactures, *silken cloth* and *brocade*, *indigo*, *ivory*, *chalk*, *bamboos*, *wax*, *tin*, *sandal wood*, and almost all the sugar used in the country. Spices constitute a large importation trade. The exports to Turkistan are chiefly articles previously imported from India, and the principal imports are *horses*, *gold*, and *silver*. To Persia, the exports are *shawls*, *indigo*, *Herat carpets*, *Mooltan chintz*, *brocades*, *muslins*, &c., and the imports *raw silk* of *Gheetan* and *Rehit*, *silken stuffs* manufactured at *Yezd* and *Keshan*, *cottons* of various colours, *Indian chintz*, &c. *Coin* and *bullion* also are among the imports.

A great deal of internal trade is carried forward. From the western provinces to those in the east are conveyed *woolens*, *furs*, *madder*, *elecc*, *coroot*, and some manufactures; from the east to the west are carried the *longees*, *silk* and *chintz* of *Mooltan*, the *mixed silk* and *cotton cloths* of *Bahawalpoor*, *indigo*, and *cotton*. *Iron* is exported from the mountainous neighbourhoods of *Hindoo Coosh* and the range of *Solimaun*; *salt* from another range; *alum* and *sulphur* from *Calla Burgh*; *horns* of *Bulkh*; and *cocoa nuts* and *dates* from *Belochestan*.

Manners.

MANNERS.—The most obvious division of the Afghann nation is into the inhabitants of houses and of tents: the latter are chiefly found in the west, and compose probably half the population; but the former greatly preponderate in the nation. The commonest house is built of unburned brick, one story high, and roofed with a terrace supported by beams, or with low cupolas of the same material as the walls. A coarse woollen carpet and some pieces of felt to sit upon, constitute the chief furniture. They usually sit cross-legged, but, when any ceremony is meant to be observed, the position assumed is by the person's kneeling, and then sinking back on his heels, so that his legs are tucked under him, and concealed by the skirts of his tunic. Their chief employment when seated is conversation; smoking is not much practised, but they are a good deal addicted to taking snuff, and their boxes are sometimes carved with exquisite workmanship. A visitor salutes the party when he enters by saying *Assalaam Alaikoom*, "peace be unto you," to which they answer, *O Alaik Assalaam*, "and unto thee he peace;" then the master of the house takes the stranger's hands, and addresses him, *Shu Ranglee*,

&c., "you are welcome, may you often come," &c. to which the reply is, *Shaupuchee*, "may you prosper;" after which a seat is presented to the visitor. These ceremonies are always performed even by the poorest Afghans. After dinner they sit and smoke, tell tales, and sing songs. They have several musical instruments, as the flute, the fiddle, and the hautboy. Their songs are commonly made by professed shauvers, or minstrels, persons somewhat between poets and ballad-singers.

The chase is the favourite amusement, which is performed by large parties assembling on horseback or on foot, and sweeping the country to a great extent, often killing one or two hundred head of game in a day. It is common also for a few to go out with their greyhounds and guns to course hares, foxes, deer, or to shoot game. In some places hares are taken with ferrets. Races are not unfrequent, especially at weddings, when the bridegroom gives a camel to be run for. The superior orders tilt with their lances, and all ranks practise firing at marks with guns, or bows and arrows. They have a great passion for what is termed *Sad*, or the enjoyment of prospects. Every Friday the shops are shut, and as soon as a man comes from the bath, dressed in his best clothes, he joins one of the parties made for the day to some neighbouring hill or garden; a little subscription procures provision and sweetmeats, and each person, for a trifling sum at entrance, eats whatever fruit he pleases. The day is spent in walking about, smoking, playing at different games, and listening to hired musicians. Parties sometimes go from the principal cities to great distances.

Dancing is one of the principal domestic amusements. Their games are often childish; others are the common ones of Europe. One favourite game, called *khosye*, or *ehuddet*, is by a man taking his left foot in his right hand, and hopping about on one leg, endeavouring to overstep his adversary, who advances towards him in a similar manner.

Their dress is various. The dress of the great is after the Persian model. In the more civilized parts, that which is generally worn resembles that of Persia, and on the eastern borders it is like that of India. The western habit seems to be the original one of the country, consisting in a pair of dark, loose, cotton trousers, a large frock shirt, with enormous sleeves, and reaching a little below the knee, a low cap of black silk or satin, crowned with gold brocade, or some bright cloth, a pair of half boots buttoned up to the calf; and over this, during most of the year, a large loose cloak of well-tanned sheep-skin, with the wool inside, or of soft and pliant grey felt, reaching to the ankles. The women wear a shirt resembling that of the men, but longer, and of finer materials. They also wear tight trousers, and have a cap of bright silk, embroidered with gold thread, reaching only to the forehead and the ears, and a large sheet thrown over their heads, with which they conceal their faces on a stranger's approach. They have many ornaments, ear-rings, rings on the fingers, and pendants in the nose. This respects the married women; the unmarried wear white trousers, and have their hair loose. The Afghan women, compared to those of India, are large, fair, and handsome; the men are boney and muscular, hardy and active. They travel chiefly on horseback, and at a slow pace. Women often travel in *cudjarras*, a sort of hamper, a few of

AFGHAN: the king's go on elephants, others in a litter; the king himself generally in a kind of litter, called a *naik-e*, borne on men's shoulders. The nobles are entitled to a *jampani*, or short palanquin. "I know of no people in Asia," says Mr. Elphinstone, "who have fewer vices, or are less voluptuous or debauched; but this is most remarkable in the west; the people in towns are acquiring a taste for dissipation, and those in the north-east of the country are far from being pure. The Afghans themselves complain of the corruption of manners, and of the decline of sincerity and grand faith, and say that their nation is assimilating to the Persians. Their sentiments and conduct towards that nation, greatly resemble those which we discovered some years ago towards the French. Their national antipathy and a strong sense of their own superiority, do not prevent their imitating Persian manners, while they declaim against the practice, as depraving their own. They are fully sensible of the advantage which Persia has over them at present, from the comparative union and vigour of her councils, and they regard the increase of her power with some degree of apprehension, which is diminished by their inattention to the future, and by their confidence in themselves. To sum up the character of the Afghans in a few words, their vices are revenge, envy, avarice, rapacity and obstinacy; on the other hand they are fond of liberty, faithful to their friends, kind to their dependants, hospitable, brave, hardy, frugal, laborious and prudent; they are less disposed than the nations in their neighbourhood to falsehood, intrigue and deceit."

The common people rise a little before twilight in the morning and repair to the mosque to pray, then take a light breakfast, and lunch at eleven upon bread, vegetables, curds and flesh. The great meal of all ranks is taken after the last prayers, and is called *shamsee*. They always bathe on Friday, and commonly twice a week. These baths contain three rooms of different temperatures; in the hottest, the bather is scrubbed by the men of the bath till his skin is perfectly clean, and the whole operations, including shaving, burning the hair off the body, and dyeing the beard, costs one hundred dinars, or three pence halfpenny.

The great do not get up till sun-rise, when they pray and read the Koran for an hour, then breakfast and repair to court, sit in apartments allotted to their respective orders, and transact their official business. Afterwards they lunch and nap; and upon awaking, perform their devotions, receive visitors, and perform the business which could not be done at the palace; then amuse themselves to a late hour, when they dine and have private parties.

Marriage.

The Afghans purchase their wives, and consider them as property, and may divorce them without assigning any reason. The brother of a deceased husband marries his widow; but if the woman have children, it is thought most proper in her, for she has her option, to remain single. The common age of marriage is twenty for the man, and fifteen or sixteen for the woman. Those who cannot purchase a wife often remain in a state of celibacy till forty. The rich marry early: the same may be generally said of people in towns. They often take *Tanjik*, and even Persian wives; but it is reckoned discreditable to give a daughter in marriage to any other nation. The whole arrangement of the previous circumstances of acquaintance and intercourse is managed by the re-

spective relations of the two parties, after a man has intimated his wishes. Deputations wait on the father and mother of the girl, with presents, and settle the point of affiancing; the marriage not being celebrated till long afterwards. In the country these ceremonies are often dispensed with, and love is allowed to make a more direct application, and to maintain a more regular intercourse. Polygamy is allowed, but poverty often prevents its being practised. Two wives and two concubines are deemed a large establishment in the middle classes; the means of the opulent admit of much greater extravagance. Ladies of the upper classes read, but it is considered as immodest to write, as a woman might avail herself of this talent to correspond with a lover.

Hospitality is one of the most distinguishing characteristics of the Afghan character, so much so that they reproach an inhospitable person with having no *pooshtoonwulle*, i. e. nothing of the customs of the Afghans. The greatest affront that can be offered to any person is to carry off his guest, or entice him away. One of their most remarkable customs is called *nanawate*, meaning "I have come in." Whoever has a favour to solicit goes to the house of the man of whom he seeks it, and refuses to sit on his carpet, or partake of his hospitality till he grants it; and if he refuse, his honour incurs a stain. A man overmatched by his enemies will sometimes go *nanawate* to another's habitation, who must take up his quarrel. A still stronger appeal is made when a woman sends her veil and implors assistance for herself or her family. But it is remarkable, that notwithstanding the civility and politeness with which the Afghans treat a stranger, they will not scruple afterwards to rob him, when they consider the rights of hospitality as having ceased by his departure. It is possible however, in all tribes, except the Khyberites, to obtain a safe passage through the country by a previous agreement with the chiefs, who will furnish an escort. A single man is often sufficient for the purpose; and it is remarkable that the arrangements are most effectual with the tribes who are most notorious for their predatory habits. Robberies are unaccompanied by murder.

RELIGION. The religion of the Afghans is the Religion. Mahomedan, and they are of the sect called *Soonnee*, which acknowledges the three first caliphs, as the legitimate successors of Mahomet, admitting their interpretation of the law, and their tradition of the prophet's precepts, in opposition to the *Sheenahs*, who reject them. Towards persons whose religion is *entirely* different from their own, they cherish no feelings of asperity, although like all other Mussulmans, they do not believe an infidel can be saved, and deem it meritorious to make war upon them. The Sikhs, who always treat Mussulmans as inferiors in their own country, speak well of the usage they receive in Afghanistan. The Afghans never mention any future event, however certain, without adding "*Inshaulla*," please God; and will even say, "please God I am so many years old." Many of them have a rosary about their wrist, and when a pause occurs in the conversation, begin to tell their beads. They make use of very solemn oaths, and that frequently, as "I swear by God and his prophet." "May I go an infidel out of this world if it is not true." The most solemn oath is the name of God (Allah), repeated three times in different forms, "*Wullah, Billah, Tillah*." They never enter on

AFGHAN-
NISTAN.

AFGHAN: any undertaking without saying the *Faateh*, or the *NISTAN*, opening verse of the Koran. In the performance of their devotions they are extremely regular; their prayers begin before day, and are repeated five times, the last of which is a little after the close of the evening twilight. The hour of prayer is announced from the tops of the minarets, by the shout of *Allaho Akbar*, "God is most great." A man who hears the call in company, instantly withdraws. Every Mussulman when he prays turns towards Mecca; the first part of the prayer is said standing, the rest sitting on the heels, often bending forward so as to touch the ground with the forehead. The pilgrimage to Mecca is of course performed once in every person's life, as is incumbent on all Mussulmans. The officer, called *Mooshtesib*, superintends the public morals, and has the power of inflicting forty blows with a leather strap, and of sending offenders round the town on an ass or camel, with their faces to the tail. The thong is worn in the girdle as a mark of office. The *Moolahs*, and all the religious, profess great austerity, and will even break instruments of gay music. They are numerous in every class and rank. They have acquired, as a body, the title of *Ulama*, or the Learned; to them are entrusted the education of youth, the practice of the law, and the administration of justice. Their influence is great, and often beneficially exerted. When two *ooloos* are about to meet in battle, they will rush between, hold out the Koran, repeat Arabic prayers, and exhort each party to reconciliation, or at least to dispersion, and seldom without success. In remote places, an injury done to a *Moolah*, would be sufficient to excite a great commotion; in such a case they assemble their brethren, suspend public worship and burial, and excommunicate their antagonists. Should this fail, they parade the country with the green standard of the prophet, beating drums and proclaiming the war-cry, and announce all who fall in their cause as martyrs. The common people have many superstitious apprehensions, and many idle tales respecting their power and influence. Their real character is hypocritical, bigotted, and malicious. Their distinguishing costume is a large loose gown of white, or black cotton, and a very large white turban, of a peculiar shape. They marry and live in other respects like laymen.

Besides the regular clergy, are other orders of persons, esteemed for their sanctity, as *Sijds*, or descendants of Mahomet, and the *Dervises*, *Fuheres*, &c. There is a sect of ascetics who have always been celebrated in Afghanistan, and filled its histories with legendary tales. The places where they are buried are deemed sacred; and when a tribe goes out to battle, the women are usually placed there as in an asylum, where they are free from molestation. They are supposed to see visions, and work wonders.

The Afghans universally believe in alchemy and magic, in ghosts and divination. Every recess in the mountains they suppose to be inhabited by a lonely demon, called the *Goule*, or Spirit of the Waste, to whom they attribute a gigantic size and a devouring appetite. They have a great reverence for burial grounds, which they call by the expressive phrase "cities of the silent." They believe in the power of talismans, and in innumerable other superstitions incident to a people so educated and so circumstanced.

History.

HISTORY.—We shall conclude this account with a

cursor view of the history of the Afghans. They inhabit the mountains of Ghor at a very early period, and in the ninth century were established in the north-eastern division, when the majority of the nation were subject to the Arabians; but those who dwelt in Ghor retained their independence, and were governed by kings of their own. This people in the reign of Mahmood, of Ghuzni, had a prince named Mahommed, who was taken prisoner after being defeated by that conqueror, and his descendants were greatly oppressed till the twelfth century, when they took up arms, dethroned the king of Ghuznee, burnt his capital, and extending their conquests by degrees, reduced under their government the whole of the present kingdom of Cabul, India, Bulkh, Budukhshan, and a considerable part of Khorassan. After this period, different Afghan dynasties reigned over India, with slight interruptions, for three centuries, but their other conquests were wrested from them by the king of Khwarizm, from whom they were retaken by Jengheez Khan. During the government of the latter, and his son Tamerlane, they maintained their independence in the mountains. Bauber, the ancestor of the Great Mogul, commenced his career by subduing Cabul, which henceforth became his capital. After his death it was subject to one of his sons; the other was expelled from India by Sher Shah, who founded an Afghan dynasty of short duration. The house of Timour, the ancestor of Bauber, was at length established in India, and Afghanistan was divided between the two empires of Hindostan and Persia, the mountains still retaining their independence.

About the commencement of the eighteenth century (1720), the tribes of Ghilzie and Abdaly, rejected the Persian yoke, and founded an empire which included the whole of Persia, and stretched to the west as far as the present Russian and Turkish confines. Their supremacy was not acknowledged however by the whole of Afghanistan, and Naudir Shah overthrew this dynasty, and in 1737 having conquered the greatest part of Afghanistan, annexed it to the Persian dominions. At his death the present Afghan monarchy was founded.

We cannot close this article without acquainting our ^{Jewish} ^{origin.} readers with the opinion which the Afghans entertain of their own origin, and which by many will be thought to receive a strong corroboration from the sentiments of a very distinguished oriental scholar. They trace their descent from Afgham and Usbec, the sons of Irma and Berkia, sons of Saul, king of Israel. They state, that after the captivity, part of the children of Afgham withdrew to the mountains of Ghor, and part to the neighbourhood of Mecca. Both these divisions maintained the knowledge of the true God, and the purity of doctrine and worship; and on the appearance of Mahomet the Afghans of Ghor listened to the invitations of their Arabian brethren, and marched to the aid of the true faith, under the command of Kyse, afterwards surnamed *Abdoolreshed*. They further represent Saul as the forty-fifth in descent from Abraham, and Kyse the thirty-seventh from Saul. The first of these genealogies is inconsistent with the Christian scriptures, and the second allows only thirty-seven generations for a period of sixteen hundred years. In this account we may remark the foolishness which all rude nations discover for tracing their origin to a very

AFGHAN.
NISTAU.

high antiquity: and with the small proportion of possible truth, in their representations, is contained a curious mixture of fabulous narrative. For instance, they say, that Saml, their great ancestor, was raised from the rank of a shepherd to his princely dignity, because his stature was exactly equal to the length of a reed which the angel Gabriel gave to the prophet Samuel, as the proper measure of that distinguished individual whom the divine being had predestined to occupy the throne of Israel. *Afghan* is, moreover, described as having been possessed of extraordinary strength; so much so as to be capable of striking the demons and the giant with terror; and was celebrated for his frequent adventures in the mountains where his posterity afterwards established themselves in a state of independence.

In the second volume of the *Asiatic Researches* (Art. iv.), Sir William Jones pursues this subject in a note, and assigns several reasons in confirmation of the *Afghan* narratives. "We learn," he observes, "from *Esdra*, that ten tribes, after a wandering journey, came to a country called *Arsareth*, where we may suppose they settled: now the *Afghans* are said by the best Persian historians, to be descended from the Jews: they have traditions among themselves of such a descent; and it is even asserted that their families are distinguished by the names of Jewish tribes, although since their conversion to Islam, they studiously conceal their origin from all whom they admit not to their secrets. The *Pushto* language, of which I have seen a dictionary, has a manifest resemblance to the Chaldaic; and a considerable district under their dominion is called *Hazareh*, or *Hazaret*, which might easily have been changed into the word used by *Esdra*."

AFRA, in Geography, a strong fortress on the frontiers of Quana, in Africa. N. lat. 28°, 20'. E. lon. 23°, 10'.

AFIELD'. In or into the field.

Thou was peers full proud, and putte him all to write
In dashing and in delving, in dunge a field berayge.

Vision of Piers Plowman, p. 158.

Together both; ere the high luns appear'd
Under the opening eye-lids of the morn,
We drove afield, and both together hear'd
What time the gray-fly whist'ler sent his hymn.

Milton. Lycidas.

I early rose, just at the break of day,
Before the sun had chas'd the morn away;
Afield I went, amid the morning dew,
To milk my kine for so should busines do.

Gay. Past. iv.

The cottage-cure at early pilgrim bark,
Crown'd with her pail the tripping milk-maid sings;
The whistling ploughman stalks afield; and bark!
Down the rough slope the pond-rus waggons ring.

Beattie. Minst.

AFINE', or FINE. See FINE.

For no man at the first stroke
Ne may not fell downe an oke
Nor of the reins have the wine
Till grapes be ripe and well age
Before empress'd, I you enquire
And drawn out of the pressure.

Chaucer. R. of B. f. 155. col. 5.

AFIRE, or FIRE.

He rebuked & destitute, hym ne myhte non þing lette
þe grei cyle of Medon suffer þu to write.

R. Gloucester, p. 380.

With regard to the argument deduced from the resemblance of the name of *Hazarch* to *Arsareth*, the country to which the Jews are stated by *Esdra* to have retired, it seems completely overturned by the well-attested fact, that it is but recently that the *Hazarchs* have occupied a part of *Afghanistan*, and communicated their name to it. The next consideration respecting the traditions which are preserved among themselves of their Jewish extraction, of which the testimonies of the best Persian historians are alleged to be confirmatory, it is sufficiently obvious that neither the traditions nor the historians are to be depended upon. Nothing is more uncertain than the floating rumours which are put in circulation among an uncultivated people, especially as to their chronological accuracy. No question the Persian writers founded their statements upon these uncertain traditions, and readily availed themselves of them in the absence of all authentic information, and for the very natural and common purpose of embellishing their narratives. The Jewish derivation of the names of *Afghan* families, and their studious concealment of their origin from all who are uninitiated into their secrets, are merely said to be asserted, probably by the Persian writers to whom we have already alluded. But if this similarity of names be certain, it may be supposed that they were derived from the Arabs, which is the case with all other Mahometan tribes, and the most ancient names bear no resemblance to those of the Jews. Sir W. Jones mentions further, a manifest resemblance between the *Pushto* and Chaldaic languages, an argument which can only derive any degree of evidence from a more detailed and careful examination, and which, in the absence of other demonstrations, can scarcely be deemed sufficient.

While there is oyle for to fire
The lampe is lightly set a fire.

Gower. Cyn. d. bk. viii.

Of Dreihobus the palace large and great
Fell to the ground, all overspread with flath.
His next neighbour Udalgon offre
The Sygean seas did glisten all with flame.

Barry. Enric, bk. ii.

But Venus strange devices new, and counsels new she takes,
That Cupid shall the face and bus of another *Ancasius* take,
And beare the presents to the *Queene*, her heart offre to make
With frenzied hour, and in her bores to fling the prisy flame.

First Booke of Ancasius, by Thomas Phaer.

AFLAT. On the flat.

AFLIGHT'. A word much used by Gower; and also occurring in Sir Thomas More and others: and is applied to the flight of courage; fortitude; presence of mind upon the appearance of danger. See FLOUR.

Upon this worde his herte aflight
Thynke what was best to doone.

Gower. Cyn. d. bk. ii.

And yet were they all in cawe safe to excepte; whereas *Julian* on
another syde which nothing feared at all, but took a special pleasure
to see them so aflight, but hye lyfe for ever and that in fewe
houres after.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1389, col. 2.

AFLOAT. On float.

Now or alle in fate, God gif pan grace to spele,
With deaulty to be now, when þei com to dede.

R. Bruner, p. 169.

It was a shame he should suffer himself to be made a stake; have
the title of a king, and not the authority; and so long as he stood
in such terms, that which seemed an honour was indeed a disgrace.

AFLOAT. With which words of King Lewis, the young King Henry was set
AFORE. *afloat*, and from that time forward, stuck not openly to oppose his
Father.
Baker's Chronicle.

When Minos his navy was once *afloat*, navigators had the sea
more free; for he expelled the madmakers out of the islands, and in
the most of them, planted colonies of his own.
Hobbes's Thucydides.

His legions, Angel forms, who lay instruct'd
Thick as autumnal leaves that strow the brooks
In Vallombrosa, where the Etrurian shades,
High over-arch'd labow; or scarier'd sedge
afloat, when, with fierce winds, Orion arm'd
Hath ver'd the Red-sea coast.
Par. L. book i.

Others you'll see, when all the town's *afloat*,
Wrapt in th' embusment of a kersey coat,
Or double-bottom'd frieze; their guarded feet
Defy the woody dangers of the street.
Gay's Trivia.

AFLOAT. On Foot. It is applied consequently to
that which is in motion or in action.

And they sayen how awy and manye knewen and they westeren
a fote fro al cytres and rumen thidre and camen bifore hem.
Wiel. Mark, ch. vi.

And the people spyed this when they departed; & many knewe
hym & take a fote thirther out of all cytyes, ad cam thirther before
hem.
Bible, 1599. Id.

I see you stand like grey-hounds in the slips,
Staying upon the start. The game's *afloat*;
Follow your spirit; and upon this charge,
Cry, God for Harry, England, and St. George.
Shakespeare. The Life of Henry the Fifth, act ii.

There is a play to night before the king,
One scene of it comes near the circumstance
Which I have told thee, of my father's death.
I prythe when thou seest that act *afloat*,
Observe mine uncle.
Shakespeare. Hamlet.

The king (Harold) himselfe stonde *afloat* by the standards, and
his brethren Girtbe and Leofwine with him, to the ende that in such
a common perill and jeopardy, no man should once thinke to fle or
run away.
Sau's Chronicle.

Being to pass through Germany, and particularly through Duke
Leopold's country of Austria, he (Richard I.), remembering the old
proge, changed his apparel, and travelling sometimes a foot, and
sometimes on horseback, he used all means possible to keep himself
from being known.
Baker's Chronicle.

AFORE, *ad.* } Written by Chaucer, *Aforen*,
AFORE, *prep.* } *Aforen*. On the fore part. It is
much used in composition; but without effecting any
change of usage in the component words.

It is applied to precedence in order of time; in order
of place; and metaphorically to the desires and pur-
suits of the mind.

I menace this, that trespass light
But reason conceiveth of a sight
Shame of that I speak *afore*.

Chaucer. *R. of R. fo. 130, col. 3.*

Can draw him to the window into the streete
And said nece, who hath avied thus
The yender house, that stand *afore* vs.
Which house (qf. she) and gon for to behold
And knew it wel, & whose it was him told.
Id. Second booke of Troilus, fo. 166, col. 1.

But for he wold a while abide
To loke, if he wold him avende,
To him *afore* taken he sente,
And that was in his slepe by night.

Geoffr. *Com. A. book i.*

This prisoner *afore* the kynge
Was brought; & thereupon this thyng
In audience he was accus'd. *Geoffr. Com. A. book iii.*

For *afore* the harvest, when the floure is finished, and the frute is
syping in the floure, the he shal cut downe the briches with hookes
& shal take away and cut of the boughs.

Geuen Bible. *Is. ch. xviii. v. 5.*

He, back retorning by the yuorie dore,
Reunented up as light as cheerful herke,
And on his little wings the drowsie he bore
In haste into his lord, where he him left *afore*.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene, b. i. c. i.*

He (Paul Crav) was committed to the secular judge, who con-
demned him to the fire, in the which he was consumed in the said
city of Saint Andrews, about the time *afore* written.

Kees's Hist. of the Reformation.

Those who have gone *afore* us in that argument have made us
envious a harvest, that the issue of my gatherings must needs have
been but small.
Hales's Golden Remains.

By frequent consideration of death, and dissolution, a man is
taught not to fear it; he is, as it were, acquainted with it, by often
preparation for it.
Hale's Contemplations.

While Richmond, fearful of some neighbouring shore,
Cries out and anon "Look out *afore*!"

Falconer's Shipwreck.

AFRESH. In fresh.

Wherefore let vs make our prayer vnto our most pitifull sauiour
Christ, not eche one for himselfe alone, but every man for other too,
that we follow not the example of the obstinate wayward Judas, but
without delaye gladly embracing goddes grace when it is offered vs,
may through our owne repentance and his mercye, be renewed *afresh*
to attayne his eueryday glory.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1390, col. 1.

But when y^e remant of the wicked shal attempt *afresh* to raise vp
again such abominations the Lord shal suddenly without warning fal
vpo them with his most fearefull terrible last iudgement.

Bolt's Image, Second Part, B. 3.

Since any man's remembrance, we can shante *afresh* one time, either
when religion did first growe, or when it was settled, or when it did
afresh springe up againe.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of Englande.

Never was there-things more pitifull than to see my master blame
the dog for loving his master's mother, rather, renewing *afresh* his com-
plaints with the dumb conuulsor.
Bulwer's Areada.

The faction still deriving Edward's might,
Edmond at Woodstock, with the men of Kent,
Charging *afresh*, renew the doubtful fight,
Upon the barons languishing and spent.

Dryden. *Barons' Wars.*

So when the sun to west was far declin'd,
And both *afresh* in mortal battle join'd,
The strong Emertius came in Arcide's aid,
And Palamon with odds was overlaid.

Dryden. *Palam. and Arcit.*

When once we have attained these ideas by sensation and reflexion,
they may be excited *afresh* by the use of names, words, signs, or by
any thing else that has been connected with these in our thoughts.

Watts's Logic.

No more thy swelling voice my english cheare,
Thy plesid eye with smiles no longer glow,
My bosom to cherish, and allay my fears,
Tis meet that I should mourn, how forth *afresh* my tears.

Bentley. *Misc.*

AFRICA.

AFRICA. **EXTENT.**—Africa is one of the four principal divisions of the earth, the third in magnitude, but the smallest in importance. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, by which it is separated from Europe: on the east by the Indian ocean, the Red sea, and part of Asia; on the south by the Southern ocean; and on the west by the North Atlantic, which separates it from America. Its general form is triangular, the northern part being the base, and the southern extremity the vertex. Its length, from Cape Bona, in the Mediterranean, to the Cape of Good Hope, may be reckoned about 70 degrees of latitude, or four thousand nine hundred and eighty miles; and in its greatest breadth, it comprehends somewhat more than four thousand seven hundred and ninety miles, namely, from Cape Verd in 17° 33' W. lon. to Cape Guardafui, in 51° 20' E. lon.

Name. **NAME.**—A small province in the northern part, to which the ancients applied the term *Africa Propria*, seems to have imparted its own name to the whole continent. Bochart derives it from a Punic word which signifies "an ear of corn," with a supposed reference to the fertility of the country. Others derive it from the Phœnician word *Havara*, or *Avra*, the country of Barca, the most remarkable part. Servius traces the origin of the general name to the Greek private *a* and *φρα* cold, q. d. a burning climate.

General divisions. **GENERAL DIVISIONS.**—It is difficult to classify, much more to particularize, the different states of which Africa is composed; but the following arrangement is probably best adapted for general purposes.

1. *North Africa*, comprising Egypt and the states of Barbary, Barca, Tunis, Tripoli, Algiers, Morocco, Fez, Tafilet, Biledulgerid and Sahara. These countries are chiefly inhabited by Moors, descended from Arabs, and blended with various nations who have settled in Africa. The Moors have occupied the habitable parts of the desert, and have driven the negroes or aboriginal inhabitants in most cases beyond the great rivers.

2. *East Africa*, comprehending the coasts of Zanguebar, Ajan, and Adel, of which the latter is an extensive kingdom. Zanguebar includes the kingdoms of Mozambique, Mongalla, Quiloa, Montbana, Melinda, and the country of the Monemugi. Ajan contains Brava and Magadoxa. The Portuguese have chiefly colonized the eastern coast, of which they have afforded us little information.

3. *South Africa*, or *Caffraria*, a region which contains the country of the Hottentots, and the colony of the Cape of Good Hope. On the south-east coast are the kingdoms of Inhambane, Manica, Sabia, Sofata, and Monomotapa, or Mocraanga. The inhabitants of this division are considered inferior to every other in point of civilization, especially in the vicinity of the Cape.

4. *West Africa*, including an immense extent of coast, and the two great divisions of Guinea and Congo: the former comprehending Senegal, or North Guinea, containing the country of the Foulahs and Jalofo, and the kingdom of the Mandingoes. South Guinea, comprising the Pepper coast, the Ivory coast, and the

Gold coast; and East Guinea, or the Slave coast, containing the kingdoms of Whida, Andra, and Benin. The division of Congo contains Loango, Congo, Angola, Metamba, and Benguela. The interior of these countries appears to be more populous than the coasts.

5. *Central or Interior Africa*, comprehending Nigritia, or Soudan, which includes an immense tract of country on both sides of the Niger, and stretching almost across the continent, embracing the empires of Houssa and Tombuctoo, Agadez, Ludamar, Bondou, Bambouk, Bornou, Darfur, and others, kingdoms as well as rivers, "unknown to song;" Nubia, a country between Egypt and Abyssinia, in which are Turkish Nubia, with the kingdoms of Dongola and Sennaar; and lastly Abyssinia.

6. *Islands*, of which there are many both in the Atlantic and Indian oceans. They are, however, commonly small, and arranged in groups. The most remarkable groups are the Cape de Verd islands, the Canaries, and further to the north, Madeira and Porto Santo. Of single islands, the largest is Madagascar, on the eastern coast, 840 geographical miles in length, and 220 in breadth. In the Indian ocean lie Pemba, Zanzibar, and Monfia, Bourbon, Mauritius, and others. In the Atlantic is situated the island of St. Helena, commonly resorted to by the homeward-bound Indians, and rendered remarkable at this moment (1818) as the prison house of one of the greatest of military adventurers, Napoleon Buonaparte; the isle of Ascension, the isles of St. Matthew, St. Thomas, and others.

STRAITS, GULPHS, AND SEAS.—Africa has two Straits, the straits of Bahel-mandel, uniting the Red sea with the Eastern ocean; and the straits of Gibraltar, which separate it from Europe. It contains also the gulphs of Sidra and of Goletta, in the Mediterranean; the gulph of France at the mouth of the Gambia; the gulph of Guinea, south of the Gold coast; and the gulph of Sofala, near the entrance of the Mozambique channel on the south. The only sea peculiar to Africa is the Mozambique channel, which flows between the coast of Mozambique and the island of Madagascar.

CAVES.—Of the capes of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, which is the southernmost promontory, is the most celebrated. There are also Cape Bona in the kingdom of Tunis, Cape Spartel on the western shore of the straits of Gibraltar, Cape Geer on the borders of Morocco, from which the ridge of Atlas commences, Cape Bojador, and Cape Blanc, Cape Verd, east of the islands of the same name, Cape Guardafui at the eastern extremity, and various others.

MOUNTAINS.—Africa is distinguished by many very extensive ranges of mountains; among which the first rank is due to the mountains of Atlas, which attracted the particular attention of the ancients, by whom they were fabled to support the firmament. This range extends from Cape Geer, in a north-east direction, as far as the gulph of Sidra, and, in its highest elevation, is upwards of thirteen thousand feet above the level of the ocean. According to M. Desfontaines, they are

AFRICA.

AFRICA. directed into two principal chains, of which the one toward the desert is called the Great Atlas, and the other, toward the Mediterranean, the Little Atlas, running in a parallel direction from east to west, leaving between them many intermediate mountains, and many fertile valleys, watered with numerous rivers and rivulets. The French mineralogists, from an inspection of the western extremity, represent the structure as granitic and primitive. The range which the ancients designated the *mountains of the Moon*, separate Nigritia from Caffraria, to the south of Abyssinia. These unquestionably contain the sources of many mighty rivers, and particularly of the Egyptian Nile. Nearly under the same parallel, on the opposite side of the continent, are the mountains of Kong, stretching from west to east, from the mouth of the Gambia to 23° E. lon. It is believed that this range connects itself with the mountains of the Moon, but this has never yet been clearly ascertained. The mountains of *Lopata* encircle the kingdom of Mocarauga, forming an immense succession of uninhabitable rocks. The kingdoms of Congo, Angola, and Benguela are traversed by the *Cristal mountains*. Abyssinia is almost entirely mountainous; and various parts of this continent abound in hills which might be called mountains in any other part of the world.

Rivers. *RIVERS.*—A continent so remarkable for its mountains, may be expected to abound in magnificent rivers. Many of them, however, which issue from the range of Atlas, are absorbed in the sandy deserts, or very soon attain the ocean. The largest river hitherto discovered rises in the mountains of the Moon, in a district called Donga, N. lat. 8°, some hundreds of miles to the south of Darfur. It is at first called Bahr el Abiad or White River, and about the sixteenth degree of latitude is joined by the Bahr el Azreh or the Blue River, which although mistaken by the Portuguese writers for the real Nile, was well known as a distinct river by the ancients. The course of the Nile may be roughly estimated at 2000 miles, thus rivaling some of the most magnificent streams of Asia and of America. It forms several considerable cataracts, of which the principal one is that of Geannadil, in Nubia. The next river which has excited the deepest interest is the *Niger*, whose source is now assigned to the mountains of Kong. It flows from west to east, and after passing through the plains of Bambarra, where it receives many tributary streams, it flows into the depth of central Africa, where the adventurous traveller has never yet found his way. The mountains of Congo give birth also to the *Senegal* and the *Gambia*, both of which run in a westerly direction, and after a considerable course fall into the ocean.

Niger. *Senegal and Gambia.* *Congo.* The *Zeire* or *Congo* is the next in interest and importance, which is greatly distinguished for its rapidity. Other rivers flow into the Indian ocean, as the *Zambez*, which has been ascended some hundreds of miles; the *Quillimani*, and the *Mogadalo*, of which the two latter are supposed to arise from the same range of mountains that produce the Nile. It is highly probable, that some considerable rivers have hitherto entirely escaped observation.

Deserts. *DESERTS.*—The immensity of its deserts constitutes, perhaps, the most striking feature of Africa. The most remarkable of these is *Zanra* or *Sahara*, denominated *the Desert* by way of eminence, stretching its

vast and barren expanse almost from the Atlantic ocean to the confines of Egypt, and comprehending a space of more than forty-five degrees, or two thousand five hundred miles in length, by more than seven hundred in breadth, and completely defying all the arts of cultivation. This immense expanse of aridity and desolation is, however, sprinkled with spots of verdure, which seem the more beautiful from being so completely involved in a world of red sand and sand-stone rock, and, in fact, suggested to the ancient poets their brilliant pictures of the *Hesperian gardens*, the *Fortunate islands*, and the *islands of the Blest*. The principal of these, which has hitherto been explored is Fezzan. But Providence has so formed the enduring camel, as to create in this animal a link of social intercourse among widely separated nations; in addition to which, man has availed himself of his own resources, and by the merchants who traverse these districts assembling in large companies, they adopt the only means of safe transportation and commercial interchange across the wildest and most solitary parts of this sun-burnt region.

This continent is moreover every where intersected with deserts of an inferior, but still of great extent; and these are to be found even in the southern parts, towards the European settlements. There is probably, a wide wilderness of this nature, between the east and west ranges of mountains, pervaded by the race of people called *Jagas*, who sometimes are said to wander into the vicinity of the Cape.

CLIMATE.—In a region of such vast extent, it must be expected that the climate should be considerably diversified; nevertheless, it may be characterized generally as sultry. Most of this continent is situated within the tropics, it being nearly divided by the equator. In the dry season Mr. Park, when lying in his hut of reeds, could not hold his hand without pain, against the current of air which penetrated the crevices with a scorching heat; and even the negroes, at a time when the wind blew from the east and north-east, could not endure to touch the ground with their feet. In the southern districts the climate is more temperate, and even agreeable in the mornings and evenings. In the north, though sultry, it is not unsuited to Europeans; it is refreshed by the sea breezes along the coast, and it still more temperate adjacent to the mountains. Generally speaking, the countries to the south of the equator are favoured with a milder temperature than those at equal distances to the north.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—Africa presents some peculiarities in the vegetable kingdom. Its *baobab*, or *cabaish tree*, possesses extraordinary dimensions. Some have been found 65, and even 74 feet in circumference, with branches extending in every direction horizontally, and as large as the trunks of ordinary trees. The height is somewhat disproportionate, being usually from only 60 to 70 feet. The tree called *maugrove* grows on the banks of rivers, and strikes its roots into the bed of the river, forming a sort of natural arcade below and a platform above. The *shea*, or vegetable butter tree, is a singular production; and on the borders of the desert is found the *luta*, which has been well known from the remotest antiquity. Its fruit is a berry, which, when prepared in a proper manner, resembles sweet gingerbread, and is very nutritious. Africa, unquestionably, presents a most ample field for the researches of the botanist, especially in its

AFRICA. mountainous regions; but these have not hitherto been explored, with the exception of Abyssinia. (See art. **ABYSSINIA**.) At present curiosity seems more alive to that which is naturally, indeed, the primary object of attention, the ascertaining of the more grand and general features of African nature.

Minerals.

MINERALS.—At present the mineral productions of this continent are known but imperfectly; travellers having paid little attention to the subject. The topaz, the emerald, the agate, the jasper, and various other species are found in different places. There are mines of silver in the territory of Tunis; copper also is found in quantities in the western Atlas, and at Fertit, in Abyssinia, and behind Mosambique; also in the mountains behind Congo, and those beyond the orange river. Iron abounds in Morocco, and various other places. But what is chiefly characteristic of this continent is, that gold is very widely diffused; and is obtained in the form of dust in the sand of rivers, or the alluvial soil of valleys or plains. In the middle and southern districts there are several tracts remarkable for this metal, particularly Kordofin, between Darfur and Abyssinia, whence it is brought by the negroes in quills of the ostrich and vulture. Gold is collected also in the plain which stretches from the mountains of Kong, and in the sands of all the rivers which flow from them. Most of the gold which is disposed of on the western coast, as well as what is brought to Morocco, Fez, Algiers, and Egypt, is furnished at Bamboouk, on the north-west of these mountains. The district also nearly opposite to Madagascar, on the south-east coast, not only produces gold, but is said to contain it in veins.

Quadrupeds.

QUADRUPEDS.—The animal creation claims an almost prescriptive right in many considerable tracts of this mighty continent, and exhibits some of the largest species that have ever yet been discovered by zoologists. The lion roams through the African forests as well as the panther, the leopard, and the hyena, which are almost peculiar to Africa. One species of the rhinoceros having two horns on the nose, and a smooth skin, is peculiar to this division of the globe, as is one species of elephant, which derives its name from the continent itself. Its head is rather round, forehead convex, ears large, and the surfaces of the grinders lozenge-shaped ridges. It has only three toes on the hind feet, and is never domesticated. Baboons and monkeys of every species abound in all parts, and many of them are remarkable for their size, strength, and ferocity. The most singular of the baboon species is the simia troglodytes, chimpanzé or orang-outang, which has strangely the appearance of the human race. It is black, and occasionally attains the height of from five to six feet. Crocodiles and hippopotami abound in all the great rivers of Africa. Besides these, wild dogs, civet cats, squirrels, and other varieties occur. The black bear is met with in the mountains of Barbary. For animals of the horse kind Africa is distinguished: the zebra and the quagga are curiously marked; and in the northern parts, the common horse and the wild ass are found.

The dromedary is the most important domesticated quadruped of any not peculiar to Africa. It is called, emphatically, by the natives, the *ship of the desert*, being singularly qualified for being a beast of burden in that waste and wild region. Of the hoofed animals, the giraffe or camelopard, is the most remarkable; it

has sometimes been found eighteen feet high. The red deer occurs only in the north of Africa. About thirty different species of the antelope are found, equally celebrated for their gracefulness, beauty, and fleetness. Goats and sheep appear to be rare. The Caffrarian buffalo is the only species of ox which is peculiar; it is large and ferocious.

BIRDS.—Of birds there are about 642 species, of Birds, which, nearly 500 are peculiar to Africa. Of 87 genera, six or eight are peculiar. The didis or dodo, formerly known in the island of Bourbon, and in some parts of this continent has now been so long unseen, as to induce the belief that it has become extinct. The guinea fowl, of which there are three species, is a native: so is the ostrich, which abounds in the sandy deserts, and attains a height of from six to eight feet: it is remarkable for swiftness, lives in large troops, and produces eggs of three pounds weight, which are hatched by the heat of the sun. The parrot tribe is comparatively rare in Africa, but the insectivorous and frugivorous birds are numerous.

REPTILES, &c.—The crocodile is very common, but Reptiles, is at present principally met with in Upper Egypt. It is abundant in the Nile, the Senegal, and in all the rivers of Guinea. One species of the tortoise, called *tyse*, is peculiarly useful in Egypt, by devouring the young crocodiles the moment they are hatched: the ouarai, or monster of the Nile, a species of lizard, three feet long, was venerated by the ancient Egyptians, because it devours the eggs of the crocodiles. There is another species in the Congo six feet long. The camelion is a native of Egypt and Barbary. The large serpents of Africa belong to the Python tribe. The boa constrictor is by some supposed to be a native, but this is doubted by others. Its prodigious size and habits render it truly formidable. The haje, called by the ancients aspic, is taught by the Egyptian jugglers to perform various feats, which they call dancing. The ancients imagined it guarded the fields, from its practice of erecting itself upon being approached; and adopting it as the emblem of protection, it was sculptured on the portals of the Egyptian temples.

INSECTS.—The insects of Africa are excessively numerous, and remarkable for their beauty. Of these the migratory locust is the most formidable; appearing in incalculable myriads, and spreading desolation over fertile provinces. Barrow mentions an instance in which an area of nearly two thousand square miles was covered by them, and the water of a wide river was scarcely visible from the multitudes that floated dead upon the surface. The ant is the next striking insect to the locust; they build nests which appear at a distance like villages, each being from ten to twelve feet in height, and some of them even twenty. These animals destroy every thing in the houses, and are able to cut through the trunks of trees in a few weeks. The Tsaltsalya has been mentioned in the article **ABYSSINIA**. Several species of bee are cultivated in many places. The tarantula spider abounds in Barbary; the common scorpion is a native; and the tendaraman spider, whose bite is fatal, is a native of Morocco: the great centipede abounds. Incalculable varieties of shells are met with on all the coasts and rivers and lakes. The famous nautilus of the ancients is found in the African seas. Many genera of zoophytes occur on the coasts: these curious and minute tribes construct reefs and islands, which

AFRICA. in some parts of the earth are of immense magnitude and extent. The guinea-worm is common in the warm regions.

Moral and political state.

MORAL AND POLITICAL STATE.—The human race appears under a greater diversity of forms in the extensive continent of Africa, than in any other part of the globe. Dividing the population into two great portions separated from each other on the west by the line of the Senegal and the Niger, on the east by the mountains of the Moon; Africa to the north of this line is ruled by foreign races who have forcibly occupied the fertile regions, while to the south is the native population, for it has lost all traces of its Asiatic derivation.

Moors.

The *Moors*, which constitute one class of aboriginal inhabitants, are widely diffused; but the term is very vaguely applied. They are a race consisting of foreign invaders or settlers chiefly from western Asia. In Bornou, to the east, they form the ruling class, though both there and along the Niger, the mass of the population is negro. During the middle ages, the professors of Mahometanism were termed *Turks* and *Moors*; all who were not *Turks* were called *Moors*; but at present the latter name is chiefly appropriated to the inhabitants of the cities of Barbary. When compared with the *Turks*, they are evidently an inferior race. Their general character is that of rudeness and superstitious ansterity. They are wandering and unsettled in their habits and government; piratical, treacherous, and turbulent; and as it regards all Europeans, what Dr. Johnson would call "good haters." Their complexion is tawny. Their towns are gloomy, having narrow streets, the walls of earth, and without windows; within, reigns a barbarous splendour.

Jews.

Jews exist in great numbers in all the cities of Barbary, where, as in all other places, they maintain their national peculiarities and political distinction, and they are universally the objects of contempt and derision.

Arabs.

The country districts are occupied by the *Arabs*, who reside in douars or moveable villages, consisting of tents woven of camels' hair and the fibres of the palm tree. They are of a deep brown or copper-colour, and tattoo themselves. Their internal government is administered by a sheik and emirs, or patriarchal chiefs, who pay tribute to the Moorish sovereign. Particular tribes occupy the mountainous districts, as the *Brebers*, the *Erriin*, and the *Shullehs*.

Copts.

The inhabitants of Egypt are chiefly foreigners. There is only one native race, the *Copts*, or descendants of the most ancient inhabitants, and of mixed origin. Their colour is dusky yellow. The Coptic females are generally elegant and interesting.

Native population.

A mass of native population, distinguished by negro features and complexion, and ruled by Musulman chiefs, pervades all the great empires of Bornou and Cashna, and their dependencies. To the south of the central chain of rivers all Africa is filled with a native population. The negro character is composed of many amiable qualities, as gentleness, hospitality, and domestic affections; but they are thoughtless, improvident, and thievish. Habits of industry are out of the question. Their passion for music and dancing is unbounded. They are superstitious, placing great dependence upon charms, and the easy dupes of every impostor who pretends to supernatural agency. The negroes of western Africa are divided into *Foulahs* and

Mandingoes: the former are converts to the Mahometan faith, divested in some degree of its gloomy and bigotted character. Their industry is indefatigable, and they are an intelligent people. Their principal kingdom is that behind Sierra Leone, of which Temboi is the capital. The *Mandingoes* exhibit the genuine negro character, and are far inferior in intelligence and sprightliness to the *Foulahs*, who form, in fact, one of the most respectable tribes in Africa.

With regard to the political state of this continent there is considerable variety. The native tribes in the mountainous districts and deserts have some traces of republican institutions. Through the great interior kingdoms of eastern Africa there seems to be an elective privilege exercised by the chiefs. In the south, the forms of government are almost incalculably diversified, passing through all the gradations from pure republicanism to total despotism.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—No part of Africa, excepting Egypt, was ever distinguished for its foreign commerce; but from the earliest ages inland trade has been carried on to a very great extent. This has been much promoted in modern times by the *Arabians*, who have penetrated the depths of the interior. The camel, as we have before intimated, has become the medium of intercourse across the deserts, and merchants, trained to these journeys from their infancy, travel in large bodies called caravans, consisting of from two to three hundred persons to as many thousands. The party is supported by the milk of the camel, with barley meal or Indian corn, and a few dates. The *Fezzan* merchants take dried meat and coffee for their own particular use. Water is carried in goat skins, covered with tar, to prevent evaporation. The number of camels is generally between the extremes of five hundred and two thousand, and they travel at about the rate of three miles an hour, and six or seven hours in each day. But the windings of the route, and other hindrances, render the distance of a caravan's advance not more, upon an average, than sixteen miles in a day, and on a very long journey, not more than thirteen or fourteen. After being passed the course is not traceable, owing to the shifting of the sands. At intervals, along the dreary desert occur oases or watered spots, wells, and villages, where it is usual to halt some days; but if one of the places of refreshment happen to be dry, the most calamitous consequences often ensue, whole caravans having been known to perish chiefly from this cause. They are greatly annoyed also on their way by clouds of moving sand; but whether any have been entirely destroyed by this means may admit of some doubt.

The principal caravans proceed from Cairo in Egypt, from Fezzan, and from Morocco. From Cairo three caravans are sent into the interior: one to Sennar, another to Darfur, and a third to Mourzouk; the latter is annual; the two former travel only once in two or three years. From Fezzan two large caravans proceed southward, one to Bornou, the other to Cashna. The greatest caravan is that from Morocco, which proceeds from its rendezvous at Akka or Tatta, in a southeasterly direction to Tombuctoo. The journey occupies a hundred and twenty-nine days, with the proper intervals of rest, which exceeds indeed upon the whole, more than half the allotted period. There is a circuitous route, which is sometimes preferred, along the

AFRICA.

Trade and commerce.

AFRICA

coast by Wadinoon and Cape Bojador. All the caravans carry with them considerable numbers of slaves across the desert; they have even been estimated, though perhaps with some exaggeration, at twenty thousand. Their treatment, however, is by no means harsh; they are used as domestic servants, and no severe labour is imposed. The slave is even treated as an equal, and sits at the same table with his master; sometimes rising into favouritism, and ascending to stations of dignity. There is nothing, therefore, in their situation in Africa resembling their degraded circumstances in the West Indies. The abolition of this trade, with regard to their own subjects, has done infinite honour to Great Britain, France, and America; and the consequence, we understand, has been a milder treatment of the slaves in the islands.

Salt is the chief basis of trade from northern to central Africa, which is exchanged for gold, with which Nigritia abounds. The salt is sold in slabs, one of which, 24 feet long, is worth from 2*l.* to 2*l.* 10*s.* In all the region which is watered by the central rivers, the desire for salt is such, that the inhabitants will suck pieces of it as children do sweetmeats or sugar.

It is a curious fact, of which Dr. Shaw assures us, and honourable to the western Moors, that they carry on a trade with some barbarous nations bordering upon the Niger, without seeing the persons they trade with, or without having broken through the charter of commerce which from time immemorial has been settled between them. The method is this: "At a certain time of the year," says Dr. S., "in the winter if I am not mistaken, they make this journey in a numerous caravan, carrying along with them coral and glass beads, bracelets of horn, knives, scissars, and such like trinkets. When they arrive at the place appointed, which is on such a day of the moon, they find in the evening several different heaps of gold-dust lying at a small distance from each other, against which the Moors place so many of their trinkets as they judge will be taken in exchange for them. If the Nigritians, the next morning, approve of the bargain, they take up the trinkets and leave the gold-dust, or else make some deduction from the latter. In this manner they transact their exchange without seeing one another, or without the least instance of dishonesty or perfidiousness on either side." This extraordinary passage may be compared with an extract from Herodotus, which proves its high antiquity. "It is their custom (the Carthaginians), on arriving among them (the people beyond the columns of Hercules), to unload their vessels and dispose their goods along the shore. This done, they again embark, and make a great smoke from on board. The natives, seeing this, come down immediately to the shore, and placing a quantity of gold by way of exchange for the merchandise, retire. The Carthaginians then land a second time, and if they think the gold equivalent they take it and depart; if not, they again go on board their vessels. The inhabitants return and add more gold, till the crews are satisfied. The whole is conducted with the strictest integrity, for neither will the one touch the gold till they have left an adequate value in merchandise, nor will the other remove the goods till the Carthaginians have taken away the gold." *Hydrog. Melop.* 196.

There is scarcely any manufacture in native Africa for exportation, excepting that of leather. For internal

consumption, cotton cloths are made by families for their own use, and the smith furnishes implements to the agriculturist, arms to the warrior, and ornaments to the chiefs and the women. The Mediterranean states furnish leather, carpets, woollen caps, sashes, and silk handkerchiefs. Gold, ivory, gums, especially gum Senegal, hides, skins, oil, and woods, are important articles of importation.

PROGRESSIVE GEOGRAPHY.—In consequence of the absence of those detailed narratives which abound in modern times, and which either were never written, or have perished in the wrecks of time, our information of the knowledge acquired by the ancients of the African continent is necessarily limited and imperfect. Several expeditions are incidentally mentioned, and others were probably undertaken that have never been recorded upon the historic page. Eratosthenes notices the first division of the old world into continents, which began in the islands of the Cyclades, and was adopted to distinguish between the opposite shores of Greece and Caria; of which the latter contained a small district denominated Asia, and has since imparted its name to this entire division of the globe. The coast of Libya was called Africa, or Southland, with reference to its relative position to Greece. From these points discovery proceeded slowly; but with much greater rapidity along the western side of Africa. The northern coast, however, was known at the earliest period to the European nations of the north, whose several districts occur with great frequency in their writings. Almost all the expeditions of discovery were undertaken with a view of exploring the unknown regions of this vast section of the earth, and extraordinary efforts were made to effect its circumnavigation.

The first attempt was by order of Necho, king of Egypt, which is thus related by Herodotus: "When he (Necho) had desisted from his attempt to join by a canal the Nile with the Arabian gulph, he dispatched some vessels under the conduct of the Phœnicians, with directions to pass by the columns of Hercules; and, after penetrating the Northern ocean, to return to Egypt. These Phœnicians, taking their course from the Red sea, entered into the Southern ocean (i. e. the ocean that washes Africa on the east); on the approach of autumn, they landed in Libya, and planted some corn in the place where they happened to find themselves; when this was ripe, and they had cut it down, they again departed. Having thus consumed two years, they, in the third, doubled the columns of Hercules, and returned to Egypt. Their relation may obtain attention from others, but to me it seems incredible; for they affirmed, that having sailed round Libya, they had the sun on their right hand." *Melpom.* xlii. We are not surprised that in an age when astronomical science was so imperfect, the historian should express his disbelief of the statement of these navigators on account of their affirmation respecting the different position of the sun; but this is, in fact, a most decisive evidence of the truth of their narrative, since this must have been their actual observation after having passed the equinoctial line. The same historian also records another voyage made by Sataspes, a Persian nobleman who had been condemned by Xerxes to be crucified, but his sentence was afterwards altered to no severer one, as it was imagined, of undertaking a voyage round Africa. He passed the straits, but after

AFRICA

Geography.

Phœnicians navigators.

AFRICA. proceeding several months along the western coast, he was intimidated by the sight of the far-stretching desert and the trackless ocean that beat its shores, and hastened to measure back his way. The next attempt was that of an unaided individual. This was Eudoxus, a native of Cyzicus, who having announced his intention to several maritime states, readily procured from them many adventurers, and fitted out an expedition upon a large scale. These, however, soon becoming discouraged, compelled him to approach the coast, where the ships struck upon a sand-bank, from whose scattered materials the enterprising Eudoxus constructed a new vessel, and proceeded on his voyage. Having advanced some distance, the smallness of his ship obliged him to return, when he applied to Bocchus, king of Mauritania, to patronise his efforts; but, after preparations were ordered, he was privately assured that the mariners had directions to abandon him on an uninhabited island, which induced him to fly to Iberia, where he equipped an expedition still better calculated for the undertaking than the first. Of the result, however, we are ignorant, as the narrative of Strabo ceases at the very period of this preparation.

Hannu. Other voyages were undertaken with more limited designs, of which the most ancient and most remarkable was that of Hannu, who was sent out by the Carthaginians for the twofold purpose of discovery and colonization. Sixty large vessels were employed, containing, of both sexes, thirty thousand persons; with which commencing the navigation at the passage of the straits of Gibraltar, they proceeded along the coast to Cape Nulcius, or the promontory of Libya, where they erected a temple to Neptune. After sailing round the bay, they came to the great river Lixus, where the scene was terminated by high mountains, inhabited by a wild race of Ethiopians; thence advancing along a desert coast, they discovered a small island, to which they gave the name of Cerne, where they founded a colony; after which they traversed a great extent of coast, and saw numerous islands, then returning to Cerne, proceeded in a southerly direction. There is a considerable diversity of opinion with regard to the extent of this voyage. Major Rennell believes that they proceeded to a little distance beyond Sierra Leone, whose mountains he thinks to be the same which they denominated the Chariot of the Gods; while M. Gosselin maintains that their course was along the coast of Morocco, and that they reached only just beyond the river of Nun. His observations upon the general aspect of the country and the peculiarities of the inhabitants seem to correspond with those which now present themselves on the banks of the Gambia and Senegal. It is not improbable, as Dr. Robertson suggests, that the mercantile jealousy subsisting between these states might induce them to conceal some of their discoveries in remote regions. Still it is certain that the best informed of the ancient geographers possessed but a very limited knowledge on the subject, being equally ignorant both of the extent and the form of this continent. Neither the Greeks nor Romans sailed to any considerable distance along the exterior coast. The earliest voyages to the east were those recorded in scripture to Tarshish and Ophir, which some confine to the Arabian gulph; but the well-known length of those voyages combines with other circumstances to induce the conviction that they

reached some distance along the coast of the Indian ocean. With regard to the interior, it was to the ancients rather the theme of song, or the source of wonder, than the scene of any exploratory journey. The general and indefinite term *Ethiopia* was applied to all the nations within or beyond the desert, though Nubia, including part of Abyssinia, was the country to which the term *Ethiopia* was more specially appropriated. Herodotus mentions a most adventurous journey of five young Naasamonians, who traversed Libya, and penetrated into the great sandy desert, where they were taken by some men of small stature and black complexion, and carried to a city inhabited by people like themselves. Rennell supposes this must have been a city in central Africa, and a river of which they speak, flowing from west to east, the Niger. The next attempts were the expedition of two divisions of the army of Cambyses to the south and west of Egypt, of which the latter is believed to have perished in the desert. After this period, Alexander, when at Memphis, visited the temple of Jupiter Ammon, but his army suffered extremely in the march. Under the Ptolemies, it is more than probable that many efforts were made to penetrate the interior. The Romans also, most likely, undertook several expeditions, of which Ptolemy (b. i. ch. viii.) has given slight notices of two, by the generals Septimius Flaccus and Julius Materna.

It is well ascertained, that about the tenth and Middle eleventh centuries the banks of the Niger were occupied by large settlements and kingdoms of some extent, consisting chiefly of a Mahometan population; and of which the most distinguished was Ghana, on the eastern part of the central river, called the Nile of the Negroes. The fugitives from the arms of the conquering Saracens, and those who suffered defeat in the intestine commotions that agitated the Mahometan power, seeking refuge in the interior, became, doubtless, together with the migratory Arabs, the first settlers, and were the founders of these different states, comprising Ghana, Wangara, Tocrur, and several others. The Arabs extended themselves westward through Barbary, and intersected the deserts in various routes, establishing Morocco at length as the chief seat of their power, and carrying on an extensive trade in different directions.

In more modern times the glory of taking the lead in the career of discovery must be assigned to Portugal, which in other respects was always regarded as one of the most insignificant of all the European states. The Portuguese, however, were originally less influenced by a curiosity to explore new regions, or even by an avaricious desire after gold, than by a romantic feeling of detecting in the person of a renowned Christian sovereign on the eastern coast, whose dominions stretched into the African interior, that real Prester John, whose abode they were most anxious to ascertain; and, accordingly, the inquiries of every expedition were directed to this main purpose.

John I. equipped an armament of considerable magnitude to attack the Moors on the Barbary coast, and several vessels were appointed to precede it, in exploring the western coast, which advanced as far as Cape Bojador, several leagues beyond the boundary line of other discoveries; but they were deterred from attempting to double it, by the tremendous aspect of the sea.

AFRICA.

Discoveries of the Portuguese

AFRICA. breaking against the cliffs. The only end, therefore, answered by this small progress, was to excite the emulation of other persons of adventurous enterprise or eager curiosity.

D. Henry. In the year 1482, Don Henry, who was animated with an ardent passion for extending the bounds of geographical discovery, having once accompanied his father on an expedition to Barbary, fitted out a vessel under the command of two gentlemen of his household, Gonzales Zarco and Tristan Vaz, with instructions to advance beyond Cape Bojador, which had hitherto been the point of termination to the Portuguese discoveries. To the extreme chagrin of the prince, however, this was not accomplished, owing to the ridiculous timidity of the mariners. But the voyage was not totally useless, a squall of wind having driven them from the coast and occasioned the discovery of an island, to which they gave the name of *Puerto Santo*. The following year Henry dispatched other ships, under the same commanders, along with Prestrello, to take possession of the island, and enquire, if possible, the field of discovery. By this means another island was brought to light, which, from its being covered with wood, they called *Madeira*; and one of the prince's commanders, Gilianes, in 1482, venturing on a bolder navigation, pushed beyond Cape Bojador into the open sea, and perceived the continent far stretching to the south. After this period the Portuguese continued to advance from place to place, till they had explored the whole coast between Cape Blanco and Cape Verd. Tristan, in 1481, passed Cape Blanco, and a settlement was soon formed at Arguin, which, from its insular situation, seemed to offer an effectual protection against any sudden attack. Henry had obtained from Pope Eugene IV. a grant of all the discoveries which he might make from Cape Non to the Indian continent, and the grant was confirmed by Alphonso, his successor to the throne of Portugal, in whose reign the spirit of adventure seems to have slumbered, at least with regard to the royal breast. The castle of Mina, on the Gold coast, had been constituted the capital of Portuguese power, and the central point from which discoveries were to be prosecuted. After the possession of this port for three years, the king did not hesitate to affix to his other titles that of lord of Guiana; and the naval commanders were directed in future to erect pillars of stone, to be adorned with escutcheons of the royal arms of Portugal, and with appropriate inscriptions to mark and to secure their discoveries.

Diego Cam. Diego Cam was the first who went from Mina with these emblems of dominion, and, soon after his departure, met with a strong current from the land, whose waters being discovered, suggested the near approach of a river, which he soon found; and, from the kingdom through which it flowed, denominated it the Congo: the natives called it the Zaire. In sailing up the river he saw a multitude of inhabitants on the shores, of a black complexion, with whom, as their language was unintelligible, he maintained some intercourse by signs; and having enticed several of them on board, set sail for Portugal. This was in 1484. In a few months he returned, and sailed forward 200 leagues along the coast. Under the patronage of John II. who succeeded Alphonso, a large fleet was sent out, which discovered the kingdoms of Benin and Congo, and sailed 1500 miles beyond the equinoctial line. To secure the coun-

tries now discovered, John took care that colonies should be planted and forts erected. Negotiations of a commercial nature were entered into with the most powerful kings, and others were made vassals of the crown. About the same period, information having reached Portugal of a kingdom in the east, governed by a Christian sovereign, and concluding it must be the king of Abyssinia, whose co-operation might prove of considerable importance, he sent an embassy to his court, consisting of Covilan and Payna, whose knowledge of the Arabic language seemed to qualify them for the undertaking. They were at the same time to explore the Red sea and the coasts of the Indian ocean, and gain all the commercial intelligence that could be accumulated. Bartholomew Diaz also was directed to proceed to the southern extremity of Africa, and explore the passage he was so desirous of obtaining to India. After encountering innumerable perils and discovering a thousand miles of new country, he beheld the high promontory which terminates the southern coast; from which, after giving it the appropriate appellation of *Cabo Tormentosa*, or the *Storm Cape*, he was compelled to return, both on account of the state of his ships and the mischievous temper of their crews. The king, however, gratified with the discovery, and feeling assured of its being the prelude to that which he deemed of such importance, changed it to the name of *Cape of Good Hope*, which it has since retained.

Covilan visited Hindostan, sailed to Suvala, and proceeded northwards along the whole eastern coast of Africa; and such were the favourable accounts which he transmitted from Abyssinia, that the king at length fitted out a powerful squadron, and entrusted the command of it to Vasques de Gama, or Vasco de Gama, a man whose talents eminently qualified him for the mighty enterprise. About the latter end of June, 1497, he sailed from Lisbon, and after passing the Cape, he explored the eastern shores as far as Melinda, in Zanzibar, and arrived at Calicut on the 22d of May, 1498, but being unprovided with the requisite force to form a settlement, he hastened back to Europe, and reached Lisbon in September, 1499, after an absence of more than two years and two months. To this voyage is to be attributed the ascertaining, in conjunction with the expedition of Covilan, the real form of the African continent, and the origin of the maritime trade with India from the European nations.

During the eighteenth century, the French, though previously slow in making discoveries, penetrated further into Africa than any other people. The downfall of company after company formed for the purpose, did not wholly discourage them, or extinguish either their curiosity or their ambition. Claude Janniquin, in 1637, was the first Frenchman who advanced into the interior, and he represented himself as having ascended the *Senegal* seventy leagues, as far as the district of *Terrier Rouge*. At the distance of sixty years, namely in 1697, the Sieur Brue, who had the management of the affairs of Africa, under the fourth French company that had been formed, went out to take the chief direction of the *Senegal*. His repeated voyages up the river and along the coasts, extended considerably the boundaries of the knowledge which his countrymen at that time had acquired of Africa. Adanson and others have since succeeded, who explored to Gallam. M. Sagnier, who went on a com-

AFRICA.

Covilan and Payna.

Vasco de Gama.

The French.

John II.

AFRICA. merical adventure in 1783 to Senegal, and in 1785 to Gallam, in the preface to his narrative, proposes a plan for penetrating into the interior; first along the Niger to Tombuctoo, and then across the continent to Abyssinia, or to Mozambique, but the government did not regard the suggestion.

The English. We have little information with regard to the exploratory attempts of the English in the same direction, till the seventeenth century. Queen Elizabeth indeed granted a patent to certain merchants of Exeter, in 1588, to carry on the trade of the Senegal and the Gambia, and these rivers were visited successively by Richard Rainolds and Thomas Dassel, in 1591. On the Gambia they found the Portuguese settled in considerable numbers, but from the banks of the Senegal they had disappeared. The rival traders of the two nations viewed each other with jealousy, and the dissatisfaction was naturally fomented by the evident preference given to the English. The subsequent transactions have not been recorded, till we find the stirring of an ambitious eagerness for discovery and for gold, in the early part of the seventeenth century. Fascinating accounts of the internal riches of the continent had been industriously propagated, and in 1618 a company was founded for the purpose of penetrating as far as Tombuctoo, which was deemed the center of African splendour and commerce. Thompson, a Barbary merchant, was accordingly sent with a vessel, and a cargo of nearly two thousand pounds value. He ascended the Gambia, but having left his vessel, she was seized and the crew massacred. He received repeated reinforcements of strength from home; but after pushing as far as Tenda he died, some say, in consequence of a quarrel with the natives, by assassination. Jobson, who went out in 1620, was not overwhelmed and disheartened, though he was afflicted at the intelligence, but sailed up the river to Kaasan, where he was received with civility by the governor: thence he proceeded to Jerakonda and Oranto, where Thompson had established his factory, and afterwards penetrated as far as the hill of Tenda, where the king professed to make a cession of Tenda and the vicinity, in lieu of some bottles of brandy.

From this period, if we except a questionable narrative inserted at the end of Moore's Travels, and said to be written by a merchant in King Charles the Second's time, no effort was made to penetrate Africa, till about the year 1723, when Captain Stibbs was commissioned by the Royal African Company, to ascend the Gambia as far as possible, to ascertain whether the reports in circulation were true, respecting the quantity of gold to be found there. He proceeded after numerous obstructions, to nearly the same spot as that whence Jobson had returned. Others of inferior note followed, without adding any thing of importance to the knowledge already acquired. Moore, who was employed by the African Company as superintendent of their different trading stations on the Gambia, collected more information than any traveller prior to Park, although he did not actually penetrate so far into the interior as some of his predecessors.

African Association. Feeling a laudable dissatisfaction at the imperfect degree of the knowledge which had hitherto been acquired of Africa, several gentlemen of rank and literature, formed themselves into a society in the year 1788, for the purpose of adopting such measures as might

appear best calculated to gain an acquaintance with the interior of this interesting continent. They justly deemed it reproachful to an enlightened and wealthy people, at so advanced a period of the world, to be totally ignorant of those immense regions of the earth, which a little of the spirit of adventure, combined with their pecuniary resources, might enable them to explore. Accordingly, the *African Association* was formed, and the first person who engaged in their service was *Mr. Ledyard*, by extraction an American, and distinguished by those peculiar qualifications which the mighty enterprise required. From early youth he had cherished an eager ambition to explore unknown regions. He had spent several years among the American Indians, had sailed round the world with Captain Cook, in a very subordinate station, rather than be deprived of the opportunity; and upon his return, formed the project of traversing the continent of America, from the Pacific to the Atlantic ocean, commencing on the north-western, and proceeding to the eastern coast. Having resolved to travel overland to Kamchatka, he went by Denmark and the Sound to Stockholm, and attempted to cross the Gulph of Bothnia, from which he was only prevented by the middle part being unfrozen; so that he walked round the head of the gulph to Petersburg. There the Portuguese ambassador, compassionating his wretched appearance, advanced him twenty guineas upon the credit of Sir Joseph Banks, and procured him permission to accompany a detachment of stores to Yakutz in Siberia, whence he proceeded to Ocmakow on the Kamschatkan sea, which the ice prevented his crossing; and whence, in consequence, he returned to Yakutz; where, being seized by two soldiers in the name of the empress, he was conveyed through the deserts in a sledge, in the depth of winter, to the frontiers of Poland. At Konigsberg, he obtained a small sum of five guineas on the credit of Sir Joseph Banks, which enabled him to retrace his steps to England. The African Committee having communicated to him their wish that he should explore Africa, he instantly signified his joyful acquiescence in their desires. Ledyard set sail from London on the 30th of June, 1788, and in thirty-six days arrived at Alexandria, and on the 19th of August at Cairo; where, with an instinctive perception of the best means of acquiring instruction, on every spot and at all times, he repaired to the slave markets, and entered into free conversation with the travelling merchants of the caravans. After communicating the result of his inquiries, which produced much information with regard to Egypt, the caravans and other subjects, and announcing to the Association, that his next letter would be dated Sennaar, the vexatious delays of the caravans with which he was about to proceed, so deeply affected him as to occasion a bilious attack, which, notwithstanding every exertion of medical skill, terminated in his death.

The next geographical missionary of the Association was *Mr. Lucas*, who had resided three years in Morocco, in consequence of having been captured by a corsair of Sallee, and afterwards being sent to Gibraltar, he was constituted vice consul and chargé d'affaires to Morocco, where he lived sixteen years, and was appointed on his return oriental interpreter to the British court. In mission with his own desire, Mr. Lucas was directed to traverse the desert of Sahara, from Tripoli to Fezzan, and afterwards return by Gambia or the coast of

AFRICA. Guinea. Having embarked at Marseilles on the 18th of October, 1788, he arrived before the end of the month at Tripoli, where he was introduced to the bashaw. After experiencing some difficulties, he at length proceeded on the 1st of February, 1789, towards Fezzan by the route of Mesurata, which was deemed the safest. The first night the encampment was formed on a sandy eminence, where the sheikhs who accompanied Mr. L. supped familiarly with him. The second day was spent in travelling over a barren waste of loose sand, till on the third day they emerged into a hard stony soil, with some symptoms of scattered vegetation, while a few olive and date trees appeared at a distance. They reached the ruins of Lebda, a Roman colony, on the fourth day, and on the fifth approached Mesurata, when they were alarmed by a report of the depredations of an Arab tribe; and seeing a party they prepared for an attack, the sheikhs Fourvad leading the van. Discovering, however, that they were friends, they hastened forward to Mesurata, where they arrived in the evening. Here the governor received Mr. L. with great courtesy and politeness, but was totally unable to assist him in his proposed journey, and as no camels could by any means be procured, our traveller was necessitated to return, about the end of March, to Tripoli, and in July to England. The short period of his continuance at Mesurata, had, however, been wisely improved in procuring all the information in his power respecting Fezzan, and the countries beyond it to the south.

Major Houghton.

The unfortunate *Major Houghton* was the third adventurer employed by the African Association. During his residence at Morocco, as British consul, he had acquainted himself with the Moorish manners. While at Gorce, he had sailed up the Gambia to Pisania, a small village in the kingdom of Vari, established by the English on the river Gambia, as a trading factory. From this place the major proceeded to the kingdom of Woolli, which he found extremely fertile and well cultivated. The red iron-stone is found on the summits of the mountainous ridges; while cotton, tobacco, and excellent plants, appear in the valleys. On the sloping grounds corn is cultivated. He was received in a very friendly manner by the king at Medina, who gave him an account of the different routes by which the country might be traversed; and from the traders and travellers he obtained considerable information respecting the interior, which was transmitted to the Association. Advancing from Medina to Bambook, he crossed the Faleme at Cacullo, in lat. 13° 54', and arrived at Ferbanna, where the king of Bambook not only gave him a hospitable entertainment, but furnished him with directions with regard to his journey to Tombuctoo, a guide, and money to defray his expenses. After persevering through numberless difficulties, he went in a northerly direction, intending to pass through Ludamar. From the frontier town of this district, Simbing, while in a narrow pass, and encompassed with a high wall, he wrote his last letter, in pencil, addressed to Dr. Laidley of Pisania, at a time when his negro servants had deserted, having refused to attend him into the Moorish territory. His words were, "Major Houghton's compliments to Dr. Laidley, is in good health, on his way to Tombuctoo, robbed of all his goods by Fenda Buer's son." At Jarra he engaged some Moorish merchants who were going to purchase salt in the de-

sert, to convey him to Tisheet, ten days journey to the north of Jarra, at the end of two days, having some reasons to suspect the perfidy of his companions, he refused to proceed, when he was plundered and deserted by the Moors. Returning on foot through the desert, alone and famishing for want, he at last reached Jarra, where he was either murdered or left to perish under a tree.

After such repeated disappointments, it might have **Park** been expected that the Association would have felt extremely discouraged, if not utterly given up to despondency. Fortunately for the interests of geography and science, this was by no means the case, but immediately and with eagerness applying themselves to the great object of providing a suitable successor to the highly gifted travellers, who had already perished in the track of African discovery, they met with *Mango Park*, a name which must be familiar to every reader, and can never be obliterated from the historic page: *Park* was born near Selkirk, in Scotland; and after receiving a medical education at Edinburgh, went on a voyage to the East Indies, whence he had at this period recently returned, and being at his own request proposed to the African Association, by Sir Joseph Banks, was engaged in their design, and sailed from Portsmouth on the 22d of May, 1795; and on the 21st of June reached Jullifree, on the northern bank of the Gambia. Having proceeded to Pisania, he resided some time with Dr. Laidley, where he devoted himself to the study of the Mandingo language, and the accumulating of all possible information respecting the interior. His pursuits suffered, however, some degree of interruption from his having caught the country fever.

Our traveller began his journey on the 2d of December, 1795, at the commencement of the dry season; and advanced into the kingdom of Walli, with two negro servants, two slaves of the Senewool nation, and two free Mahometan negroes. One of his negro servants spoke English and Mandingo. On the 5th of the month they arrived at Medina, the capital of Woolli, where Mr. Park was introduced to the chief who had received Major Houghton with so much hospitality; and who earnestly intreated him to desist from his dangerous expedition, but offered him a guide in case of persistance. On the 8th he reached Kolor, at the entrance of which, he saw the dress of Munbo Jumbo hanging on a tree: on the 11th he was at the frontier town of Woolli, and hired three elephant hunters to accompany him through the wilderness which divides that country from Bondou. One of his guides having absconded during the night, Park deemed it expedient to hasten forward immediately; his attendants having provided a saphie or charm against misfortunes. On the 18th he arrived at Talika, the frontier town of Koorkarany, in latitude 13°, 53' N. At this place he was shown the Al Shurra, and other Arabic manuscripts. In advancing they soon came to the banks of the Faleme, flowing through a cultivated and corn-besprinkled country; and on the 21st they were at Fattedonda, the capital of Bondou; where Park had a private conference with the king Almani, who had ordered the plunder of Major Houghton, and to whom he presented, because he did not dare to refuse his majesty's eloquent entreaty, the blue coat which he

AFRICA.

AFRICA wore; receiving, on his part, five drachms of gold. In the seraglio of this monarch, he was rallied on the whiteness of his skin and the prominence of his nose; which the ladies could not believe to be otherwise than artificial. In return, Park complimented them on the glossy jet of their skins, and the lovely depression of their noses; but they averred that in Bondou "honey-mouth" was not esteemed. Departing on the 23d, they traversed the wilderness which separates Bondou and Kajangan, by moonlight; and on the 24th, attained Joag, the frontier town of the latter, at the distance of 247 miles east from Pizani. This place contains 2,000 inhabitants, and is fenced by a high wall with holes for musquetry. Here the house of the judge, or dooty, in which he slept, was surrounded in the night by a party of horse, who demanded, in the name of the king of Kajangan, the duties which they alleged he had refused to pay on his entering the country; and he was, in fact, obliged to compound with the loss of half his property. He met, however, with a hospitable supply of nuts from an aged female slave; and afterwards, being visited by Demba Sego, nephew of the king of Kasson, went with him, upon his offer of direction, to the Mandingo kingdom of Kasson. On the 29th he arrived at Teseene, an unwall'd town of considerable size, where one curious custom is recorded, that of not allowing any woman to eat an egg. Before Park left the place, he was plundered of half his remaining property by his professed friend Demba, under the pretex of duties and presents. On the 12th of January they came to Jumbo, the native place of one of his attendants, whose relatives testified the most extravagant joy at his return. At length they arrived at Kooniakary, the capital; and our traveller was favourably received by the king, who listened with satisfaction to the account of his journey. This place is situated in N. lat. 14°, 34', about 59½ geographical miles to the east of Joag. The journey was now pursued along the banks of Krieko, which are very populous, to Kemmo, the capital of Kaarta. The king, who received him kindly, displayed nothing of that rapacious disposition which his brother sovereigns had so uniformly evinced; but as a continuance at Kaarta was unsafe, and disagreeable to Daisy Koorabari, the king, who might have been charged with the death of a white man, Mr. Park proceeded through the kingdom of Ludamar. At Fungikedy he witnessed a singular specimen of the hardness of the Moors, of whom five, armed with muskets, drove off some cattle within pistol shot of five hundred of the inhabitants, who scarcely resisted. One of the herdsmen died in the hands of the Bushreens, in consequence of a fractured leg, and Mr. Park obtained the reputation of being a cannibal for proposing amputation. Mr. Park proceeded by Simbing to Jarra, and was accompanied on his march by fugitive Kaartans, who fled from the arms of Bambara, hostilities existing at this time between these states. From this large town, inhabited chiefly by negroes, he advanced on the 27th of February, through a sandy region to Deem, where the Moors, notwithstanding a protection from Ali, plundered him. Thence he proceeded to Sampaka, where he lodged in the house of a negro who manufactured gunpowder from nitre collected from the reservoirs of water resorted to by the cattle, and sulphur supplied by the Moors, who procure it from the Mediterranean. Having gone forward to Dalki, within two days' journey of Goomba, where he arrived March 5th, he was seized in a neighbouring village by a party of Moors, whom Ali had ordered to convey him to Bennew, that his wife Fatima might gratify her curiosity by the sight of a white man. In that place he remained till the 30th of April, and was treated with insolence and brutality by the Moors, who shut him in a hut where a wild hog was tied up, which the boys were continually worrying, while the men and women amused themselves with the Christian in a similar manner. Their curiosity also was extreme, never satisfied with examining his clothes and his person. Various consultations were held respecting his destination; some advising that he should be put to death, others that he should be maimed. The king's brother proposed putting out his eyes, which he thought resembled those of a cat, to which all the Bushreens agreed; but Ali deferred executing the sentence till the queen should return from the north. At this place he had an opportunity of obtaining considerable information from two Mahometan travellers, who traded in salt; one of whom was a resident in Walet, and had been at Tombuctoo and Houssa; the other was a native of Morocco, and had resided some months in Gibraltar. At length Mr. Park had an opportunity of seeing the queen at Bubaker, who put many questions, and seemed to compassionate his situation. From no other person did he receive any kindness in Ludamar. He suffered extremely from scarcity of water, and, excepting the supplies received from Fatima, he was obliged to content himself with what he could procure from the troughs with the cows; no Moor allowing his vessel to be polluted by the touch of a Christian. At length, after several attempts, he effected his escape, and directed his way through the dreary wilderness. The heat of the sun was intense, and he grew weary and disheartened, nothing appearing on the level horizon but underwood and hillocks of white sand, even from the highest tree he could climb. At length, however, he was somewhat relieved by a shower, whose descending drops he collected, and afterwards wrung from his clothes. Next day he arrived at a Foulah village, where his wants were disregarded, and he was threatened with being re-conveyed to Ali; but he deceived them by a retrograde movement as if to return to the Moors. For several days he travelled on, till, on the 5th of July, he reached Warra, which was situated beyond the boundaries of Ludamar and the tyranny of Ali. Thence he proceeded to Dingyee, then to Wassiboo, where corn is much cultivated; then to Moorja, and other places in succession. On the 21st of July he came to Sego, and just before his arrival he had the pleasure of seeing the long-sought Niger, glittering to the sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing at a slow rate from west to east. Sego contains 30,000 inhabitants, and is the capital of Bambara. It consists of four distinct towns; two of which are on the northern and two on the southern bank of the river, surrounded with high mud walls, and having Moorish mosques prominent in every direction. The king had been prejudiced against the traveller, and prevented his entrance till the next morning, when he intended to visit him. In the village, where he was unobserved by any friendly house, a woman at length, returning from the field, took him to her hut and gave him some food and a mat; then began with some young women

AFRICA. to spin cotton during great part of the night, relieving the labour by an extempore song, which deeply affected the weary traveller. "The winds roared and the rains fell. The poor white man, faint and weary, came and sat under our tree. He has no mother to bring him milk, no wife to grind his corn. *Chorus:* Let us pity the poor white man—No mother has he," &c.

The next day Park was ordered to quit the vicinity, after being presented with 5000 cowries; 250 cowries he estimates at the value of one shilling. From Segoe he advanced to Sinsanding, a place of nearly 10,000 inhabitants, and a considerable mart of Moorish commerce; and thence to Sibili, Negara, and Nyaneebo Moduboo Ken; from which latter place he was transported in a canoe to Moorzan, a fishing town, whence he was conveyed across the Niger to a large place named Silla, about 1090 miles east of Cape Verd. Here poor Park was in a most destitute condition, and perpetually exposed to the violence of the tropical rains and the dreadful fanaticism of the Moors. Having now approached within 200 miles of Tombuctoo, and finding it impracticable to proceed, at least without imminent hazard of losing the benefit of all his discoveries, he began his retreat by the same route, the southern bank of the Niger being represented as impassable. He was pursued every where by suspicious, and received the unpleasant information, that the king of Bambarra had sent a canoe to Jenaro to bring him back to Segoe. He hastened, therefore, through muddy roads and swamps, sometimes swimming over creeks, with his horse's bridle in his teeth and his papers in the crown of his hat, and often subsisting on the same raw corn with his horse; and at length, after various adventures, arrived at Pissania, where his friends, who had been told he was killed, received him with strong and mingled emotions of surprise and delight. Having refreshed himself, he proceeded to Gorcee in an American slave vessel, and after a voyage of thirty-five days, reached Antigua, where embarking in the Chesterfield packet, the adventurous traveller arrived at Falmouth on the 22d of December. In one part of his journey homewards, when on his way from the romantic village of Kooma to Nihadooloo, he was robbed and stripped of all his clothes, and left solitary in the wilderness, in the rainy season, 500 miles distant from the nearest European settlement, and on the very brink of despondency: no alternative seemed to remain but to lie down and die. In this wretched situation he depicts the train of his thoughts, upon seeing a moss in flower, in a manner so truly touching, that we cannot refrain from inserting his words: "I was indeed a stranger, in a strange land; yet I was still under the protecting eye of that Providence who has condescended to call himself the stranger's friend. At this moment, painful as my reflections were, the extraordinary beauty of a small moss, in fructification, irresistibly caught my eye. I mention this to show from what trifling circumstances the mind will sometimes derive consolation; for though the whole plant was not larger than the top of one of my fingers, I could not contemplate the delicate conformation of its roots, leaves, and capsule, without admiration. Can that Being (thought I) who planted, watered, and brought to perfection, in this obscure part of the world, a thing which appears of so small importance, look with unconcern upon the situation and sufferings of creatures formed after his own image?

—Surely not! Reflections like these would not allow me to despair. I started up, and disregarding both hunger and fatigue, travelled forwards, assured that relief was at hand; and I was not disappointed."

Although Park did not reach the ultimate object of his journey, it was on the whole the most important of any that had hitherto been achieved; for he established a number of geographical positions in a direct line of 1100 miles from Cape Verd, fixed the boundaries of the Moors and negroes in the interior, and pointed out the sources of the rivers Senegal, Gambia, and Niger, restoring to the latter its ancient course. He also explained the mode of propagating the Mahomedan religion among the negroes by proselytism, and illustrated the history of the ancient Lotophagi.

While Park was engaged in his adventurous expedition, *Mr. W. G. Brown* a private traveller, penetrated into Darfur, with the view of traversing the continent from east to west. Having set out from Assuit with the Soudan caravan, on the 28th of May, 1793, he accompanied them over a barren and mountainous track, and after passing through various places, and over rocks and sands diversified with occasional date trees, arrived at Darfur on the 23d of July; but, notwithstanding his utmost efforts, he could not proceed on his intended journey, and his effects were seized for the use of the sultan. At length, after three years residence, during which he accumulated a stock of information, he contrived to procure permission to return to Egypt with a caravan. The population of Darfur he estimates at 200,000, consisting of the native black tribes of Fâr, Arabs, and others. He learnt also some particulars of the neighbouring districts of Begarmee, Bergeoo, Darkulla, &c.; and found that the sources of the Bahr el Abiad, or western Nile, called the White River, are about eight journeys to the east of the copper mines of Fertil. These sources are no less than forty hills, termed Kumbri, or the mountains of the Moon, which unite into one stream, flowing in a north-western direction, coinciding with the Gir of Ptolemy and the Nile of the Negroes. Mr. B. heard that Azran, on the west of Bornou, abounds so much in silver, that the natives make their defensive armour of this precious metal, and even the collars of their horses.

In the summer of 1795, the Association had the good fortune to find another person well qualified to promote their designs in *Fredric Horneman*, the son of a clergyman, who had studied divinity at the university of Göttingen. Dr. Blumenbach, professor of Natural History, recommended him so strongly, that Sir Joseph Banks, in reply to the application, said, "if Mr. Horneman be really the person you describe, he is the very identical person we are in search of." Upon this being communicated to him at Hanover, the professor beheld him with surprise enter his apartment before he had imagined his letter could have reached him, a satisfactory evidence of his zeal and talent. In one night he formed a most excellent plan of his journey, and after devoting the summer of 1796 to the lectures at Göttingen on Natural History, and the study of the Arabic and other oriental languages, he went to London in February, 1797, and received the sanction of the African Association. Proceeding to Paris and Marseilles, he embarked for Cyprus, and on the 31st of August arrived at Larnaca, and on the 10th of Sep-

AFRICA.

tember in the bay of Caroubé. He resided ten days at Alexandria, and thence accompanied an aged monk, who spoke Arabic with great fluency, to Cairo; and after devoting several months to the language of the western Arabs, was on the point of departure when Bououaparte landed, who, on learning the chief object which Horneman had in view, offered him every facility, and accordingly he set off with the caravan on the 5th of September, 1799, three days afterwards entering the Libyan desert. The surface of the ground resembled a shore from which the waters retired after a storm, being covered with fragments of petrified wood and trunks of trees. In eleven days they reached Umme-sogeir, a small village of 120 inhabitants, romantically situated on a sequestered rock in the midst of a desert. After this they came to Siwah, in the vicinity of which to the westward, some remarkable ruins are found, believed to have been no other than the shrine of Jupiter Ammon. Perseverance through toils and dangers at length brought them to Temissa and Zuila, in the territory of Fezzan, where they were received with great joy. Fezzan he considers as 360 miles in the length of its cultivated part, and 200 in its greatest breadth, containing a population of about 70,000 to 75,000. After some stay, Mr. Horneman went to Tripoli, whence he returned on the 29th of January, 1800. On the 1st of April he wrote that he was on the point of setting out with the caravan for Bornou with two shepherds; but no intelligence was received of him for two years afterwards, when great apprehensions were entertained of his safety. Some occasional intimations of his existence have since transpired, but many years having elapsed since the last account, the hope of his re-appearance in civilized society is extinguished. The uncertainty of his fate, and the evident enterprize of his character, invests his name with a degree of celebrity, but he has not added any thing material by his communications to the geography of Africa. The Association having relinquished all hopes of seeing him, appointed Mr. Nicholls, to a similar undertaking, but his career was prematurely cut short at Calabar, when a young German, whose name was withheld, was chosen. He imitated the plan of Horneman, who passed himself for a Mahometan, familiarized himself with Arabic, and adopted the eastern costume. In 1809 he arrived at Mogadore, and set out with two guides to join the Noudian caravan, but soon after he was found dead at a little distance, probably murdered by his guides.

Park's
second
journey.

Afflicting as these details must be, we have yet to record another disaster, which has produced a still deeper and more permanent impression on the public mind. The adventurous and highly-gifted Mungo Park, although he had already travelled, during eighteen months, in the wildest and most sultry regions, and not only earned for himself a lasting fame, but extended the boundaries of human knowledge, did not hesitate to renew the fatigues he had suffered, and continue his exploratory researches on the continent whence he had so narrowly escaped. In October, 1801, he was informed that government intended to send out an expedition on a large scale, and that he was desired to take the command. A change of ministry, however, occasioned delay in the execution of the plan till September, 1803. After proceeding to

Goree, and making all necessary preparations, he advanced to Pissania, from which he departed on the 4th of May, hoping to reach the Niger by the middle of June, when the rainy season should have scarcely commenced. On the 11th he reached Madina, and on the 13th the village of Kanipe, about four miles distant from which they entered the woods of Simbani. As a civil war prevailed at the time, they found it requisite to proceed with extreme caution. On emerging from the woods, they beheld the Gambia, with a regular tide and one hundred yards in breadth. On the 25th they entered the Tenda wilderness, and passed several places successively. On the 8th of June they crossed the Falemé, and experienced a tornado for the first time; the ground became covered with water to the depth of three inches, and in three days twelve men were on the sick list. As they advanced the sickness increased, till half of them were affected, and Park's anxiety every moment increased for the result. Great difficulties were experienced in driving the cattle up some of the precipitous acclivities, and the natives availed themselves of every advantage this afforded them of purloining whatever was unprotected; in some cases they proceeded further. The country was extremely beautiful and romantic; indeed the whole territory between Ba Fing and Ba Lee, two tributaries of the Senegal, is sublimely grand. On the 11th of July, they reached Kemnouon or Manankorro, the best fortified town that had been seen in Africa, but the people are described as universally notorious thieves. On the 19th they came to the banks of the Ba Woolina, and after crossing, reached Bangassi, a town equally well fortified with Manankorro, and four or five times as large. Several of their party died from time to time, and Mr. Park was once sick himself; but on the 19th, at three o'clock, he reached the summit of the mountainous ridge which separates the Niger from the remote branches of the Senegal, and approaching the brow of the hill, he once more to his inexpressible satisfaction, saw the Niger "rolling its immense stream along the plain." On the 21st, having hired a canoe to convey the baggage to Marraboo, he embarked on the following day with Mr. Anderson. The river was here an English mile in breadth, and at the rapids spread out two miles. On the 12th, Mr. Park advanced in the way to Sego through Bambarra; and after receiving full permission to build his boat wherever he pleased, and assurances of a cordial reception, he chose Sausandung, at which place he collected some intelligence respecting the countries to the east. On the 28th, his friend and relation, Anderson, died, and his whole party was reduced to five Europeans, himself included. His anticipations were dark, yet his enthusiasm carried him forward, and he writes to Lord Camden, "I shall set sail to the east, with the fixed resolution to discover the termination of the Niger, or perish in the attempt." On the 17th of November, 1805, he went forward, and it is certain he did perish in the attempt, in what manner has not been very satisfactorily ascertained; but the only account assuming the shape of authenticity, makes him and his party cut off, with the exception of one man, by an attack upon the boat. Park is said to have leaped into the water to avoid the lances, pikes, arrows and stones, with which they were assailed, and met a no less certain death in the river. Thus un-

AFRICA.

AFRICA. pily terminated the useful and indefatigable labours of one of the most enterprising and most celebrated of modern travellers.

Adams.

A very singular coincidence of circumstances has very recently put the public in possession of some particulars respecting Tombuctoo, a place which has so long excited the anxious enquiry of all travellers, none of whom had hitherto been able to penetrate to the country it was believed to occupy. An American sailor, however, of the name of *Adams*, having been discovered in the streets of London, and examined upon the subject of his adventures, by a gentleman connected with the Africa Association, has furnished unquestionable evidences of his having spent six months at that remarkable city. The outlines of his story is as follows: On the 17th of October, 1810, the American ship *Charles* sailed from New York, on a trading voyage along the coast of Africa. A little to the south of Cape Blanco, at a place called El Guize, the ship struck, and the crew escaped to land by swimming, where they were soon afterwards surrounded by thirty or forty Moors, who were wretched fishermen. They were stripped naked, and carried on a journey to the east, and in about forty days came to a negro village, called Soudenny, on the northern frontier of Bambarra, where the whole party were made prisoners, and sent forward under an escort to Tombuctoo, which they reached in twenty-five days. The Moors were imprisoned, but Adams being viewed as a curiosity, was taken to the palace, where he was kindly treated; and from the degree of liberty he possessed, had ample means of making observations. To him, Tombuctoo seemed about the size of Lisbon, as to the extent of ground it covered, but the houses were far more scattered, and consequently the population less. Those of the higher classes are built of wood, and of a square form, with the rooms on the ground floor; the huts of the poor are formed of branches of trees beat in a circle, covered with a matting of the palmeto, and overlaid with earth. The king's palace is built in a square of half an acre, enclosed by a mud wall, within which all merchandise is brought to be charged with a duty. To Adams, it seemed to be altogether a negro city, the Moors being excluded from it;—probably in consequence of some recent revolution. The natives are a vigorous and healthy race, violent in their quarrels, but are on the whole a good natured people. They ornament their persons with rings and ivory; are fond of dancing, and have several kinds of musical instruments. Their food is Guinea corn, ground between two flat stones, and boiled into a thick mess, on which goat's milk is poured. Their accounts are kept by notching sticks, as none of them can either read or write. The government is despotic, but mildly administered; slavery is the greatest punishment; while inferior guilt is subjected to caning. There seemed to Adams no outward form of worship, except a prayer at funerals. Marriage is very simply performed, concubines are kept, and illicit intercourse very prevalent. They have no horses, but a very fleet species of camel, unfit for carrying burdeas, but capable of travelling fifty miles a day. With this animal the negroes hunt elephants. Adams makes the extraordinary assertion, that there are no shops; the probability is that the trade is principally conducted by stalls in a public market. About two hundred yards south-east of the

town passes a river called La Mnr Zarah, three quarters of a mile wide, and flowing, as our captive supposes, to the south-west. The hunting of slaves is regularly practised about once a month, by armed men from one to five hundred. The slaves thus procured, with gold dust, ivory, and other articles, are exchanged with the Moors for tobacco, tar, gunpowder, ankooes, blankets, earthen jars, and silks. At the expiration of six months, ten Moors ransomed their countrymen, together with Adams, for a large quantity of tobacco, and three weeks afterwards they set out across the desert; proceeding along the banks of the Mnr Zarah, in an easterly direction inclining to the north. The country seemed thinly inhabited. After ten days, they turned to the north when the country became quite desolate. In thirteen days they arrived at Tandey, where there are numerous beds of salt, an article much demanded in Soudan. At the end of fourteen days delay, they entered the Sahara or Great Sandy Desert, where they travelled twenty-nine days without seeing any vegetation, or meeting a human being, till they reached a village of tents, called Waled Dlein, inhabited by Moors. Here Adams was sent out to attend their cattle, and was at length told, they determined to retain him in the capacity of a slave. Upon fleeing to another village, where his master overtook him, Adams appealed to the chief of the town, who gave his first possessor a small compensation, and kept him as his own slave. In consequence of being detected in an attempt, he was sold to another master, and carried to Wedunoo, on the borders of Morocco, where he was most severely treated; whence his release was obtained by M. Dupuis, the British Vice-Consul, who had him brought to Mogadore. He soon after sailed from Tangier to Cadiz.

Riley.

Another adventurer of the name of Riley, has since been at Tombuctoo, after surviving a shipwreck, and encountering a variety of hardships; but no very considerable increase of authentic information is to be collected from his narrative. The zeal of discovery is still at work, and perhaps more vigorously than ever; so that we cannot help indulging the hope that a few years will accumulate a store of information respecting the interior of Africa. Expeditions lately sailed to the rivers Congo and Niger, under the direction of government. The one to explore the former river, commanded by Captain Tucker, departed from London in the month of March, 1816, which has, however, unhappily failed. The captain, the lieutenant, and most of the party perished, after ascending the Congo 120 miles in a sloop, and then proceeding over n mountainous and barren district on foot 150 miles, having passed considerably beyond the first rapids or cataract. With regard to the other expedition, Major Peddie arrived at Peddie. Senegal in the spring of 1816, but as he found it impracticable to attain his object before the commencement of the rainy season, determined to wait till it was over. In the following October he began his journey, but died before reaching the Niger. Lieutenant Campbell then took the command, and intelligence has been received of his having arrived at the head of the Rio Nunez, whence he was to proceed to Bammakoo, where Park embarked on the Niger.

Tucker.

The general amount of information respecting the country along the line of the Zaïre, obtained during the

AFRICA.

AFRICA. expedition of Captain Tuckey, may be thus summarily stated. The arrows of the river commence about 120 English miles from the mouth at Point Padroa, and continue to Inga or nearly forty miles; the width of the river being generally not more than from three to five hundred yards throughout that extent, and in most parts bristled with rocks. The banks are every where precipitous, and composed of masses of slate. Beyond the mountainous regions, the Zaire extends to the width of two, three, and even more than four miles, and flows at the rate of two or three miles an hour. Captain Tuckey believed, and with apparent good reason, that its origin is in the lakes and swamps designated by the name of Wangara. The country called Congo extends inwards indefinitely, and is partitioned out into a multitude of petty states or Chenooships, held as a kind of fiefs under some personage, real or imaginary, in the interior. That portion of the Congo territory through which the Zaire flows into the Southern Atlantic is not very interesting. The cluster of mountains, though not high, are bare and barren, and the lower ranges have no forests of any magnitude; but between the hills and the margins of the river, the level alluvial banks which extend from the mouth nearly to Embomma, are clothed with an exuberant vegetation, presenting to the eye one continued forest of tall and majestic trees, clothed with foliage of never-fading verdure. The climate is represented in a very favourable point of view; the atmosphere cool and dry, especially after the setting in of the western breezes, which occurs an hour or two after the sun has passed the meridian, and they continue till midnight. The winter resembles the mild spring of Italy; it is not subject to rains, but vegetation is promoted by abundant dews every morning. The chief products of the vegetable world consist of manioc or cassava, yams, and maize or Indian corn, sweet potatoes, pumpkins, the sugar cane, tobacco, &c. Of fruits, they have the banana, papaw, oranges, limes and pine-apples. They have all the usual animals, and the country seems remarkably free from teasing and noxious insects. The lower part of the river abounds with excellent fish.—The staple articles of subsistence are manioc, ground-nuts, and palm-wine. Of Indian corn they have regularly two crops in the year. The negroes are particularly uncleanly in their food, and especially in the mode of its preparation;—they broil fowls with the feathers on, and pieces of goat without removing the skin, or even the hair, and devour them when scarcely warmed. None of the villages observed by the party were of any considerable extent, the largest not exceeding one hundred huts. Their household utensils are few, and their articles of dress extremely sparse, consisting chiefly of an apron tied round the loins, and a cap on the head. Their chief agricultural implement is a rude hoe of iron, stuck into a wooden handle; but, in fact, the climate and the soil are such as to supersede much trouble in preparing the ground, and raising good crops.

The population evidently increased, the farther the party advanced into the interior, yet the banks of the river were in no place otherwise than thinly peopled. Omitting the paramount sovereignty of Congo, whose existence seems doubtful, the component parts of a

tribe or society, would appear to consist of—1. The Chenoos, or chief. 2. The members of his family, who are his counsellors. 3. The Mafooks, or collectors of the revenues. 4. Fuomos, or such as have houses and lands of their own, and are, in fact, the yeomanry of the country. 5. The fishermen, coolies, and labouring classes. Domestic slaves are not numerous, nor are they considered as common transferable property, being sold only for some offence. Saleable slaves are those victims who have been taken prisoners in war, or kidnapped in the interior, or such as have had a sentence of death commuted into that of foreign slavery. The people of Congo may be considered as among the lowest of the negro tribes, and the immense numbers of Catholic missionaries poured into this quarter during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, do not seem to have advanced the natives a single degree in civilization. Polygamy to a great extent is universally practised. The cultivation of the land, and the search after food in the woods and on the plains, frequently the catching of fish, devolve wholly on the women, while the men pass their time in total idleness, sleeping or stringing beads. They are, however, excessively fond of dancing, and particularly by moonlight. They are represented by all the party, as of a very good humoured and hospitable disposition. They are very superstitious; every man has his *fetich* or charm, consisting of a horn, a hoof, hair, teeth, claws, shells, and in short, almost any thing; which they consider as protections against thunder, lightning, alligators, lions, snakes, poisons, and every injury. Some even regard them as a kind of deity to which prayers are addressed and thanksgivings are returned. They also hold various objects in nature in great veneration. Their chief diseases are poisoning and adultery. Their chief diseases are cutaneous. The language of Congo, and the neighbouring states, differs materially from all the known languages of the negroes of northern Africa; but from the copious vocabularies obtained by Captain Tuckey, there appears to be a radical affinity between all the languages on the western coast of southern Africa; the greater part of which portion of the continent they have pervaded, even to the eastern coast. TUCKEY'S *Narrative*, 4to. (published by order of the Lords of the Admiralty). 1818.

The singular interest which has been excited with regard to the regions to which we have particularly alluded, and the travellers who have explored or attempted to explore them, has induced us to dwell upon these narratives. But we do not forget that other parts of Africa have been penetrated by no less enterprising, and, in some cases, no less qualified inquirers. Their names will, however, chiefly occur, and their information be communicated under the heads of the respective countries which they have visited; we shall only indicate here some of the principal. Bruce and Salt have laboriously and successively explored Abyssinia. In Egypt, we have recent observations, by Dawon, Hamilton, and Legh; Barbary has been illustrated by Shaw, Lempiere, Jackson, Keating, and others; Southern Africa by Kotten, Sparmann, Vaillant, Barrow, and others; and the Eastern coast, by Hamilton and Salt.

AFRICA.

AFRICAN COMPANY, or the ROYAL AFRICAN COMPANY.—An association of merchants, principally of Exeter, first received a patent as an exclusive African company in 1588, from Queen Elizabeth, which conferred on them the privilege of trading to the rivers Senegal and Gambia for ten years. James I. granted a similar charter to certain merchants forming a joint-stock company in 1618, but the ill success of its enterprises caused it soon afterwards to be dissolved. In 1631, Charles I. created another company, under this title, which shared a similar fate; but the disgraceful demand of negroes for the colonies increasing, the duke of York, with some other persons of distinction, in 1662, obtained a charter from Charles II. which secured to them the commerce of all the English possessions from Cape Blanc to the Cape of Good Hope. This company was equally unsuccessful with its predecessors, and the directors in a few years resigned their charter; when in 1672 the last incorporation of this description was formed by letters patent, and appeared for some time to promise the proprietors a flourishing trade. They raised a joint capital of 111,000*l.* and erected several new forts on the coast; but the existence of these monopolies by grants from the crown, being considered at the Revolution inconsistent with the declaration of rights, the trade to Africa was thrown open. All private traders, however, were obliged, by stat. 9 and 10 William and Mary, to pay 10 per cent. towards maintaining the forts and factories already erected; in 1730, 10,000*l.* was granted by parliament in assistance of this expense; and in 1750 the original company being completely bankrupt, its forts and various establishments on the African coast were vested by 23 Geo. II. cap. xxxi, in the present *Company of Merchants trading to Africa*.

This company is prohibited from trading as a corporate body, and from possessing any transferrable stock; its duties are to maintain all the forts and garrisons in good repair, that lie between Cape Rouge and the Cape of Good Hope; any British subject may be admitted into it on the payment of 40*z.*; and the management of its affairs are vested in nine commissioners, chosen annually, for London, Liverpool, and Bristol, in equal numbers. A sum, generally amounting to 13,000 or 14,000*l.* is granted to this company by parliament, amongst the current expenses of each year; but Senegal and its dependencies, with the line of coast from Port Sallée to Cape Rouge, are by stat. 4 and 5 Geo. III. exempted from its jurisdiction. The commissioners account annually to the Chancellor Baron of his Majesty's Exchequer for the proper application of this sum.

AFRICAN ASSOCIATION; a public-spirited society of gentlemen, who united themselves, to the number of about 95 members, in 1788, to promote the discovery of the interior parts of Africa. Their affairs were conducted by a committee of five distinguished individuals, Lord Rawdon (the present Marquis of Hastings), the late Dr. Watson, Bishop of Landaff, Sir Joseph Banks, H. Beaufoy, Esq. and Mr. Stuart. These gentlemen had the honour to despatch the intrepid Ledyard on his first journey to Africa, in the year of their institution; and it was to Henry Beaufoy, Esq. that Ledyard made the memorable answer, on being asked, upon the first interview, when he would set out?—"To-morrow morning." The committee assigned him, in conformity

with his own desire, the perilous course from east to west, in the supposed latitude of the Niger, which stretches across the whole continent at its greatest breadth. In August he arrived at Cairo, but died before entering upon the route proposed. Mr. Lucas was their next missionary, with but little more success. He embarked for Tripoli in October of the same year (1788), and was instructed to penetrate the desert of Zaara to Fezzan, communicating with the society by the port of Tripoli, and to return by way of Gambia. At Mesurata, however, he found those difficulties which deterred him from proceeding further; and in Feb. 1789, relinquished his engagement. Major Houghton was engaged by the committee in the following year, to ascend the Gambia eastward, as far as he should be able, and to continue on the same line of route over the continent. In November he reached the coast, and went up the river 900 miles, to Bambock, and from thence to the adjoining province of Kasson, where he died in September, 1791. The accomplished Mungo Park was the person next engaged for these services. In 1795 he entered upon the same route as his predecessor; explored the course of the Niger to Silla, and returned to receive the just plaudits of his countrymen in about two years. It is but too well known that Park was afterwards sent out by government, in 1805, to renew these cherished labours, from which he never more returned.

The details of these journeys we have already given in their connection with our present knowledge of Africa; but to the individuals who first directed and encouraged the enterprises of our countrymen in this direction, it may be due thus to re-state the names and objects of their travellers; of whom Mr. Horneman was the last. This gentleman embarked from London in 1797; was at Cairo when the French expedition, under Buonaparte, had possession of the country; and, on explaining his object, was received under that general's protection; was heard of at Tripoli in April, 1800, but, since that period all intelligence of him has ceased.

AFRICAN INSTITUTION.—While the society assuming the name of the African Association merits our high esteem for the ardour and perseverance which it has displayed in exploring, by its emissaries, the hitherto undiscovered regions of interior Africa, it is impossible to withhold our warmest approbation from another union of talent and piety, formed for the especial purpose of diffusing knowledge and improvement through that much-injured continent, and which has chosen the title of the *African Institution*. The resolutions which were adopted at the constituent meeting on the 14th of April, 1807, furnish the best elucidation of the general basis upon which it is erected. They were circulated in the first report, as follow:

"1. That this meeting is deeply impressed with a sense of the enormous wrongs which the natives of Africa have suffered in their intercourse with Europe; and from a desire to repair those wrongs, as well as from general feelings of benevolence, is anxious to adopt such measures as are best calculated to promote their civilization and happiness.

"2. That the approaching cessation of the slave trade, hitherto carried on by Great Britain, America, and Denmark, will, in a considerable degree, remove the barrier which has so long obstructed the natural

AFRICA. course of social improvement in Africa; and that the way will be thereby opened for introducing the comforts and arts of a more civilized state of society.

"3. That the happiest effects may be reasonably anticipated from diffusing useful knowledge and exciting industry amongst the inhabitants of Africa, and of obtaining and circulating throughout this country more ample and authentic information concerning the agricultural and commercial faculties of that vast continent; and that, through the judicious prosecution of these benevolent endeavours, we may ultimately look forward to the establishment, in the room of that traffic by which Africa has been so long degraded, of a legitimate and far more extended commerce, beneficial alike to the natives of Africa and to the manufacturers of Great Britain and Ireland.

"4. That the present period is eminently fitted for prosecuting these benevolent designs; since the suspension, during the war, of that large share of the slave trade, which has commonly been carried on by France, Spain, and Holland, will, when combined with the effect of the abolition laws of Great Britain, America, and Denmark, produce nearly the entire cessation of that traffic along a line of coast extending between two and three thousand miles in length; and thereby afford a peculiarly favourable opportunity for giving a new direction to the industry and commerce of Africa.

"5. That for these purposes, a society be immediately formed, to be called "The African Institution."

To carry into effect the important designs proposed in these resolutions, a patron and president, twenty vice-presidents, a treasurer, and a committee of management, consisting of thirty-six persons, were chosen. The president is the duke of Gloucester; and the active managers are, most of them, the same individuals whose unrequited labours for a series of years, and under most inauspicious circumstances, to procure the abolition of the slave trade, at length terminated in that complete success, which has not only raised them to a distinguished place in the annals of benevolence, but added a sensible brightness to their country's glory.

That some difficulties would lie in the way of accomplishing their object, might have been from the first anticipated; but the measures which they determined to adopt, accorded well with the simplicity of their plan and the purity of their motives, and gave no bad omen of future success. Discarding at once all colonial and mercantile speculations, and all direct aim at the propagation of religion, which they deemed the sole and legitimate purpose of the Christian missionary, they resolved to pursue their object with undeviating firmness, by such means as the following, which their report represents as the fundamental principles of their undertaking—to collect and diffuse information respecting the natural productions of Africa, and respecting its agricultural and commercial capacities, its intellectual, moral, and political condition—to cultivate a friendly connection with the natives, and promote their instruction in the art of reading, and in useful knowledge in general—to enlighten them with regard to their true interests, and the means by which they may improve the present opportunity of substituting a beneficial commerce for the slave trade—to introduce amongst them the improvements and most useful arts of Europe—to promote the cultivation of the African

VOL. XVII.

soil, by furnishing the natives with seeds, plants, implements of husbandry, and agricultural instruction—to acquaint them with medical discoveries—to obtain a knowledge of the African languages, and reduce them to a written form, and to employ agents, establish correspondences, and reward enterprise. The society has, moreover, from its commencement, maintained a most jealous circumspection with regard to the execution of the abolition laws, detecting improper proceedings, communicating information to government, and aiding its measures with the wisdom of practical experience, and promoting the abolition of the traffic in slaves amongst foreign nations. In consequence of the comparative scantiness of the society's funds, the latter purpose has hitherto been that to which its principal attention has been directed, and indeed it is itself an object of first rate importance, in attempting the amelioration of Africa. This is naturally the primary step to improvement; the abolition of the African slave trade must precede the march of civilization, with the accompanying blessings of practical wisdom, the arts of life, and a mental and moral cultivation. This society is therefore to be honoured and encouraged; as adopting the most prompt and, under Providence, the most efficacious means of atoning for those diversified evils, which, in other days, and during the reign of a sordid and inhuman principle, were inflicted upon the miserable population of the African continent.

The proceedings of this society have been vehemently attacked by Dr. Thorpe, whose official situations, as some time chief justice of Sierra Leone, and judge of the vice-admiralty court in that colony, certainly entitle his animadversions to a patient hearing, although they are too often interlarded with an undue degree of controversial asperity. It would exceed our limits to enter into a minute detail of the statements on either side, but we shall mention a few of the principal objections he has advanced, and the replies which the directors of the African Institution have published, in a special report made at a general meeting, on the 12th of April, 1815, respecting Dr. Thorpe's allegations.

The first charge advanced by the judge against the society refers to a neglect of education, to which the society had pledged itself. The answer is, a variety of resolutions, empowering Mr. Ludlum to erect schools of different kinds, reached the colony, some of them a short time before, and others soon after he had resigned the government of it into the hands of Mr. Thompson, who, notwithstanding the transfer of papers and resolutions to him, did not take a single step to accomplish the wishes of the institution. Captain Columbie succeeded, and effected much more than his predecessor, but a variety of untoward circumstances prevented more being done; but the fifth report states, that there were between two and three hundred children enjoying the benefit of education at Sierra Leone. Colonel Maxwell, the next governor, was earnestly solicited upon the subject, but he did not think proper to use the funds of the institution for the purpose, as the government were willing to bear the expense of the schools he was able to establish; besides which, the Missionary Societies engaged zealously in the work, and in a great degree superseded the necessity of applying the funds of the institution to this object.

The next subject of blame was Dr. Thorpe, relates to the institution having sent cotton seeds and various

AFRICA. machines to the colony before they could be of any use. These articles were, indeed, sent out to Governor Ludlam, but they were received, not by him, but by Governor Thompson, who stated in a letter, dated March 6, 1800, that "measures had been taken for exciting the attention of the coast to the cotton seeds sent out by the institution; and a portion of them," he adds, "will be propagated in the colony at the proper season." Governor Thompson being on the spot at the time, and consequently best qualified of any other person to form a judgment on the subject, not only does not state that there was any objection to the transmission of this cotton seed, but intimates in his letters that it was both a valuable and seasonable gift. He even distinctly requests, among a variety of other articles, "hemp seed enough to sow thirty acres; tobacco seed, twenty-five pounds; white mulberry, one hundred plants; red American mulberry, one hundred plants; ten pounds of red, and ten pounds of white clover, and other grasses," expressing his sincere belief, "that commerce and agriculture will overspread this almost depopulated part of Africa, and that in no very long time the colony will repay the benefits received."

After advancing various other charges of a more private nature, relating to individual agents of the society, and to its particular acts, to which the special report replies *seriatim*, Dr. Thorpe proceeds to a more serious allegation, calling upon the directors to shew any one instance of civilization they have effected, or even attempted; and he affirms that they have performed no part of what they promised to the public. The same general declarations are repeated in a more recent publication; the society is declared to have almost wholly failed, and to have expended large sums to little purpose. But it ought surely to be considered that it is a subject of deep regret to the directors themselves, that their zealous efforts have not been so extensively successful as their benevolence could desire, or their sanguine philanthropy anticipated; nor ought the value of their labours to be estimated by the direct and immediate effects that have been produced. If they have broken up the fallow ground; if they have sown the seeds of African amelioration; if they have checked the daring spirit of inhuman speculation that has in vain attempted to clude their vigilance in order to revive the slave trade; if they have only awakened the attention of Great Britain, and of Europe in general, to the condition of that vast continent, stimulating to exploratory journeys, and exciting a moral sympathy with these most wretched and most unspiced of the human race; if they have only attempted to improve them, and pointed out the path of duty to future ages, then we ought rather to applaud their diligence, to honour their perseverance, to support their exertions, and to sympathize with rather than censure their comparative ill-success.

Be it further recollected, that the advancement of nations in civilization is not the work of a few years or a few individuals, but generally of many centuries, and a vast combination of means. The seeds of improvement do not push through the soil, or grow up, like mushrooms, in a night; nor can it in the ordinary course of things be expected, in such an undertaking, that the first labourers in this field should live to reap the golden harvest, if they should even witness its earliest indications. The directors of the African In-

stitution, however, aver that they have the most respectable testimonies in favour of the actual effect of their efforts, and that, in both the settlers and surrounding natives, the progress of civilization is very viable and very extensive.

Instead of being rich, as their opponent represents them, the directors say, in the special report, that the contributions they have received have proved wholly inadequate to undertakings which would necessarily involve a large permanent expense. Their whole receipts, of every description, from the first formation of the society to the 31st of December, 1814, have amounted to only 9850*l.*; and their annual income, exclusive of donations, has not quite reached 400*l.* "Under these circumstances," they say, "it became necessary to direct their attention, in the first place, to such objects as were at the same time the most urgent, and the most compatible with the state of their funds." And the question as it respects the conduct of the directors, is not so much what they have left undone, as whether they have advantageously employed the limited means they possessed. Their first duty obviously was, to watch over the execution of the laws recently enacted for abolishing the slave trade; to endeavour to prevent their infraction; to suggest the means of rendering them more effectual, and to promote the abolition of this trade by foreign powers. It was only in the degree in which these objects were accomplished, that a rational hope could be entertained of civilizing Africa. These objects, however, have proved to be of sufficient magnitude and difficulty to engross a large share of the attention of the directors, and to absorb a considerable portion of the funds entrusted to them. Many of the measures, however, that have been taken with this view being of a preventive kind, are precisely of that description, which, however extensive in their operation, and beneficial in their effects, are the least likely to attract the notice of superficial or prejudiced observers. It is only by such means that it can ever be doubted whether the expense which is incurred in promoting either the efficacy of our own abolition laws, or the abolition of the slave trade by foreign powers, has a direct and most momentous bearing on the civilization of Africa. Had the institution confined itself to this single point, it would still have been the best benefactor of that oppressed continent. *Sp. Rep.* p. 62-64.

It is fair, however, to remark, that through all the hostility of Dr. Thorpe, beam some rays of intelligence and sound sense, and we doubt not the directors of this institution will be willing to avail themselves of some of his suggestions, which are by no means unworthy of notice. Such, for instance, as the following: "The institution will perceive the reciprocal benefit that must arise from cultivating the native chiefs: to obtain their countenance and encouragement, is the principal consideration in endeavouring to promote a commercial intercourse for the civilization of Africa. By opening innumerable channels for supplying the chieftains with what they consider comforts, by gratifying their vanity with voluntary attentions, and by proving, from an open confidence in their protection, that we are actuated with an honest zeal to serve them, we shall make great progress in accomplishing our wishes. If the institution would erect a saw-mill, or a machine for cleaning rice at Sierra Leone; also, if they would send the most approved tools used in agriculture and by mechanics,

AFRICA.

AFRICA. and open their long promised schools (this has been before explained) for instruction in the native languages: then indeed the captured negroes might be returned with safety to their families, their friends, and their country; but if the negroes are suffered to lose their own language, in an attempt to acquire ours, and are devoid of every knowledge of the arts, useful to society, they can bestow no benefit to their country, and would render our protection discreditable. Only select the natives of any particular part of Africa, instruct them in some useful art, appropriate to the country into which they are destined to return, enable them to retain or acquire the language of the kingdom for whose improvement they are intended: such as the Jafos, the Foulahs, the Lambaras, the Mandingoes, the Soosos, the Ecos, the Ashantes, the Dahomies, the Congos, then shall we render them valuable to Africa. Governor Macarthy would have the natives arranged into distinct classes for such useful purposes, and nothing more could be required, but that the African Institution should proceed in their various other plans for the civilization of that continent.

"A few captured negroes have been apprenticed by government; but many should be instructed in various trades, as masons, carpenters, smiths, potters, tilers, weavers, &c. &c. Their great ingenuity is evident in their manufactures, in making trinkets, musical instruments, assaying metals, carving on horn, ivory, &c. Agricultural improvements are of the most essential importance, and implements greatly wanted for cultivating rice, Guinea corn, cotton, &c. If acute boys were selected and apprenticed in England to different trades, it would render their return to Africa a most valuable acquisition. A jewel of the finest water requires polish; a black diamond may demand a little more to produce its lustre. All this must induce favour and protection from the chiefs to the captured negroes; besides such real for their improvement would generate a confidence in white men, and convince the natives that England was sincere in her professions and promises to render service to Africa, from her natural love of justice, disinterested humanity, and general philanthropy; all this belongs to the original plan of the Institution." *Thorp's View of the Increase of the Slave Trade*, p. 111—113, (1818.)

AFRICA.
—**AFT.**

AFRICTA, or **AFRICTA**, a kind of sacred wafer used, according to Arnobius, in the ancient sacrifices.

AFRONT. In front.

AFRIAGERS, a sort of brokers or auctioneers, authorized by the burgomasters of Amsterdam to preside at the public sales in that city. They are also called vendic mester.

AFT.

AFT'ER, *prep.* } *Goth Affaro.* AS. *Egypen.* supposed by Tooke to be the comparative of the noun **Aft** (AS. *AFT'ER*, *adv.* } *Egyp.* Hind, *Aft* and *Back* have the same meaning. Tooke, i. 444.

AFT'ERWARDS, the same meaning. Tooke, i. 444. **AFTER**, is much used in composition, but without effecting any change in the usage of the component words. **AFTEREY**, is used as a verb by Shakespeare. To eye or look after.

AFTER, is applied to succession in order of time; in order of place; and metaphorically to the desires and pursuits of the mind.

In yf hundred yer of Grace Seint Austyn hyder com
And four score yer and ten, to prechy Cristendom.
And aboute on hundred yer yf was, and fifty al so,
After pat Sausus and Engly ese versi come yf's load to.

R. Gloucester, p. 230.

pis emperor August was of so gret fame,
pat, for Juli pr emperor, (pat bi fore hym was cr)
Haddo after hym y cleyed a murey in the yer,
pe oostle moony afterward, pat heruest moony ya,
He lereke after byn August y wys.

Id. p. 61.

And saw the fox toward the wode is gon
And bare upon his back the cok away.
They cryed, out! harve and wala wa!
Aha the fox! and after him they ran
And eke with staves many another man.

Chaucer. *Nonnes Preces Telle*, v. li. p. 156.

Therefore lepe ye and do ye alle thingis, whatever thingis, thei seyn to you; but nyle ye do after hir werki; for thei seyn and do not.

Welf. Matt. ch. xiii.

All therefore whateuer thingis thei bid ye observe, that observe and do: but do not ye after their workes: for they seyn, and do not.

Bible, 1559. Id.

O ye sounes of men, how longe wyl ye Marphese myne honour? al haue soch pleasure in vanyte, and nyle after leying?

Id. Ps. iv.

Help plijune Crist hit. for per bi ginner charite
And afterward whilke, how hap moost weede
And yet help yf you hast.

Faust of Piers Plowman, p. 368.

If we consider the pastoral period before learning, we shall find it unpolished; if after, we shall find it unpleasant.

Sidney's Criticism on Pastoral Writing.

Psalm. — He did keep

The decks, with glove, or hat, or handkerchief,
Still waving, as the kite and stiver of a wind
Could best express, how slow his sole say'd on,
How swift his ship.

Ido. — Thou should'st have made him

As little as a gnat, or lesser, ere left
To after-ge him. Shakespeare. Cymbeline, act I.

Thy worth and skill exempt thee from the throng.

With praise enough for every to look ween;

To after-ge thou shalt be writ the man

That with smooth air could'st humour well our tongue.

Milton. Son. xlii.

Moses erected up the brazen serpent in the wilderness; yet not to be adored with godly honour, as it followed afterwards.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie of the Church of England.

If our mind thirsts after, and sucks in greedily sensual pleasures, we shall not relish spiritual delights, attending the practice of virtue and piety, or arising from good conscience. Barrow's Sermons.

The men that formed the Royal Society in London, were, Sir Robert Murray, the Lord Brouncker, a profound mathematician; and Doctor Ward, men after promoted to Bachelors, and afterwards removed to Salisbury. Burnet's Own Times.

It is a new thing for a scholar to make such a progress in learning, as to be able afterwards to teach the master, from whom he received his first rudiments. Wallaston's Religion of Nature.

When o'er the ship, in embulation vast,

A giant surge, down rushes on on high,

And fore and aft, the severed ruins lie.

Foloway's Shipwreck.

The virtuous and humble inquirer, who studies to conduct his understanding with impartial care first, and his life with inoffensive sincerity afterwards, may surely comfort himself with pleasing expectations of acceptance after death. Secker's Sermons.

In after ages li (Cardine) had his share successively in the history of Saxons, Danes, and Scots; and during the revolutions of these several nations, was the scene of every vicissitude of war.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

AFT, a naval term for the hinder part of a ship, or that which is nearest the stern.

2 P 2

AFT.

AGAIN.

AFTER-BIRTH, } See MIDWIFERY, Div. ii.

AFTER-PAINS.

AFTERMATH, in Husbandry, the aftergrass, or second crop of grass after the first mowing; or that which springs up after corn.

AFTERSWARM, a second or posterior swarm of bees, who commonly leave the hive about fourteen days after the first swarm.

AFWESTADT, or AVESTAD, a town of Sweden Proper, in the province of Dalecarlia, chiefly remarkable for the copper mines of Fahlun, near which it stands. These mines have been worked nearly 1000 years, and are sunk to the depth of 1100 feet. The copper is not formed in regular strata, or what the miners call *loads*, but in vast irregular masses. The mine is the property of the crown of Sweden, and has proved a valuable source of public revenue. It was at one time the practice to issue from this place a small copper currency; but, we believe, none of this coin is now in circulation. The place is entirely supported by the copper works, and has the resemblance of a busy town; having a church, and a regular post-house, connected with the government.

AGA, a Turkish officer; the term originally signifying a great lord or councillor. Thus the Aga of the Janizaries is their commander or captain; and this officer is allowed to attend the court of the Grand Signior, without placing himself in the posture of devotion or of a slave. The title Aga is given by courtesy to some other distinguished personages among the Turks; but there is an authorized Aga or captain of the seraglio. In Tartary and Algiers we also find this title among the military, and those who are in command of large towns or garrisons.

AGADEN, a considerable town in the interior of Africa, and situate near the eastern borders of Sahara, or the Great Desert. Geographers differ very much respecting the precise situation of this place. According to the report of the African Association for 1792, it is one of the cities of Calna; but we have adopted the authority of Major Rennell's map of North Africa, as being the one, we believe, generally admitted. It is a place of some trade, particularly in the carriage of salt found near the lake of Dombou. There are several mountainous districts in this neighbourhood, in which senna, of a very excellent quality, grows in abundance; but, like all the other towns in the deserts, Agaden is thinly populated, and is used principally by the caravans in passing from one part to another of this continent. It is represented by Hornemann as the capital of an independent state called Ashen; and appears to be the centre of the eastern traffic of the interior, as Tombuctoo is of the western.

AGADE, one of the Fox or Aleutian islands, in the northern Pacific ocean.

AGAGEER, a name applied to the elephant and rhinoceros hunters in Abyssinia. The word is formed from Agur, to hough or hamstring. These hunters live constantly in the woods, and feed only upon the flesh of the game which they may have the good fortune to kill.

AGAIN', a. Varies written Agena, Agens, AGAIST', s. Agen, Ayenat, Agane, &c. In Dutch, the verb *Jegenen*, means to meet, to oppose, to reconcounter. The collateral AS. verb,—from which the adverb

Against, in Sax.—Ongegen, appears to be lost. (v. AGAINT. Tooke, i. 423.)

Again; turn again, i. e. turn to meet; to oppose; return. Do this again; i. e. to meet, a new demand, a new emergency; to act, and continue to act in return; to persist in meeting, or opposing; and hence the application to frequent repetitions.

Toward his son with him alle with god herie he drew,

And over com pin false kynges & here wyten alle,
And a gys in his kyndom alle gret honour y do.

R. Gloucester, p. 36.

Sir, said kyng Gwyn, turne agayn, I rede,

Frankle & Burgeillon, alle alle go to dede.

R. Bruns, p. 191.

He gedre ys'not seem

To werre, & to stonde a gysn pe Romaynes ys'for.

R. Gloucester, p. 80.

Haldayn of Doncastre was chosen pat ilk day,

To bere pe kyng's banner agayn pe pain lay.

R. Brunst, p. 17.

And therfore I come, and che Alein

To grind our corn, and say it home agin:

I pray you spede us heven that ye may.

Chaucer. The Rivers Tale, vol. i. p. 159.

And Tullius sayth, that no scree, no no drede of dede, no nothing that may falle unto a man, is so merkel agens nature, as a man to exerce his own profie, to hurme of another man.

Id. Tale of Melibee, vol. ii. p. 116.

And Custance han they taken anon fore-lost,

And in a ship all sterres (God wol)

They han hire set, and bidden hire lerne sayle

Out of Surrie agensward to Itaille.

Id. Man of Lawe Tale, vol. i. p. 195.

Not yettlinge yuel for yuel, neither curving for curving, but agensward blessing.

Wiclif. Peter c. c. iii.

For I whal gyve to yow mouth and wisdom to whiche all yowse idonaters schiden not move agensward and agensward.

Id. Luke, c. xxi.

All that day she out-weir in wondering,

And gasing on that chambers ornament,

Till that spurs the second evening

Her couered with her sable vestment.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iii. c. xli.

Those, which burned with the fire of lust, are now consumed with the fire of vengeance; they sinned against nature; and now against the course of nature, fire descends from heaven, and consumes them.

Hold's Contemplations.

The plover of an oter are the best fortification for your hands

that can be thought on against wet weather.

Watson's Angler.

O father, what intends thy hand, she cried,

Against thy only son? What fury, O son,

Possesses thee to bend that mortal dart

Against thy father's head.

Milton, P. L. book ii.

When there is no particular reason for the contrary, what has often happen'd, may from experience most reasonably be expected to happen again.

Watson's Religion of Nature.

The preachers thundered in their pulpits against all that did the work of the Lord deceitfully; and cried out against all that were for moderate proceedings, as guilty of the blood that had been shed.

Burnet's Own Times.

Milton had appeared so boldly, though with much wit and great purity and elegance of style, against *Salomons* and others, upon that argument of putting the king to death, and had discovered such violence against the late king and all the royal family, and against monarchy, that it was thought a strange omission if he was forgot, and an odd strain of clemency, if it was intended he should be forgiven.

Id.

Aspiring to be gods, if angels fell,

Aspiring to be angels, men rebel,

And who but wishes to invert the laws

Of order, sins against th' Eternal Cause.

Pope's Essay on Man.

Is yonder were the sun's eternal bed,

Soon shall the orient with new little burn,

And spring shall soon her vernal influence shed.

Again assume the grove, again adorn the mead.

Ben Jon. Misrael, book i.

AGAIN. The wisest way that can be taken in the nature of things for de-
fending one's opinions, is to stop one's ears against whatever can be
said in opposition to them.

Tucker's Light of Nature.

AGALACTIA, AGALAXY (a priv. and γαλα, milk),
terms sometimes used in our old writers for a deficiency
of milk after child-birth.

AGALACTOES (as above), destitute of milk.

AGALLOCHUM, the aromatic alooe of the East
Indies, the produce of the Linnæan *Excoecaria*.

AGALMA, AGALMATA, in Ancient History, terms
first applied to any ornament upon a statue, or within
the heathen temples; but afterwards, to the temple or
statue itself, as well as to representations of them on
scaels.

AG'AME. In Game. See GAMX.

For by my tooth, I say it not in game

To wend as now, it were to me a shame.

Chaucer. The Third Booke of Troilus, fol. 170. col. ii.

I am right glad with you to dwellen here

I said but agame I would go

I was grant ancyer now (qd. he) tho

Were it agame or no, soth to tell

Now am I glad, as that you list to dwell.

Id.

AGAMENTICUS, a mountain in North America,
about eight miles from York harbour. It serves as a
land-mark to seamen making for Pascatqua bay,
which supplies the waters of *Agamenticus river*, in which
small vessels can enter. The mountain affords one
of the most pleasing prospects in this part of America.
The summit is covered with pasture, and the acclivities
abound with wood and shrubs of various kinds. N.
lat. 43°, 16'. W. lon. 70°, 39'.

AGANA, a town of Guam, one of the Ladrones
islands, where, in 1520, the celebrated Spanish naviga-
tor, Ferdinand Magellan, lost his life, either in fight
or by the hands of his own men, over whom he is re-
presented as exercising the most arbitrary authority.
The town is now become of some consequence. The
private houses for the most part, are constructed of
wood, and stand on large piles, the ends of which pro-
ject about a yard above the surface of the ground. The
streets are straight and regular, and the public build-
ings are of brick. There is a church, two or three
convents, and a college, originally founded for the in-
struction of the native Indians in the principles of the
Roman Catholic religion. In the neighbourhood of
the town are several fine gardens, and there are capacious
barracks, with a very large and commodious
government house, and a royal magazine.

AGANIPPE, in ancient geography, a fountain in
Boeotia, rising at the foot of Mount Helicon. It is
said, by Pausanias, to have been so called from the
nymph Aganippe, whose father gave his name to the
river Permessus, into which this fountain ran. It was
sacred to the Muses. This fountain is also called the
Hyntean and Aonian fountain, Hyantis and Aonia
being ancient names of Boeotia. Ovid's *Metam.* b. 3,
v. 312. Virg. *Ecl.* 10, v. 12. Ovid in his *Faste.* b. 5,
v. 7, seems to confound Hippocrene and Aganippe,
but this is considered a poetical license by Solinus.

AGANIPPIDES, in ancient mythology, an epithet
of the Muses, derived from the fountain Aganippe.

AGAPE, (ἀγάπη, love, or friendship) in Ecclesiastical
History, certain primitive feasts of the Christians,
to which allusion is supposed to have been made by
St. Jude, v. 12, and St. Peter, 2 Epist. ii. 13. Calmet

is of opinion that these feasts are also intended in the
complaints of the apostle Paul, 1 Cor. xi. 21, respecting
certain irregularities at Corinth. The Jews were not
without a custom of this kind, for which they found a
scriptural sanction in Deut. xii. 5, 7, 12; xiv. 23, 27,
29; and the learned Lightfoot has observed, in a note
on 1 Cor. x. 16, that in the evening of the sabbath the
Jews had their *agapæ*, or communion, when the inha-
bitants of the same city met together in a common
place to eat; and that near the synagogues were their
ἀροῖα, or places where strangers were entertained
at the public charge, as well as a dormitory.

In Pliny's letters to Trajan, he speaks of a "pro-
miscuous harmless meal," which has been understood
to refer to this custom, at which Christians of all
descriptions met, and which they discontinued on the
publication of his edict against such assemblies. While
this proves the early, and almost apostolic origin of the
Agapæ, it has been thought also to demonstrate that
the primitive Christians did not regard them as
divine authority, for this is the only part of their public
conduct which even "torture" and death could compel
them to alter. (Pliny's Epist. x. 97, 98.) Tertullian
describes them thus: "The meaning of our repast is
indicated by its name, for it is called by a word which
in Greek signifies love. The hungry eat as much as
they desire, and every one drinks as much as to sober
men can be useful; we so feast, as men who have their
minds impressed with the idea of spending the night
in the worship of God; we so converse, as men who are
conscious that the Lord heareth them." It has
been much controverted whether the Agapæ were
partaken before the eucharist, immediately after, as a
kind of appendage or concomitant, or at a totally
distinct time; the latter according to some writers,
being celebrated in the morning, and the former in the
evening. Regarding it, however, as a simple testi-
mony of Christian kindness and unity, connected with
the exigencies of the time, and even extended, accord-
ing to the testimony of Julian, to the relief of the
heathen poor occasionally, it will appear nothing
remarkable that the period of observing this feast
should have been regulated by its design, and by the
opportunities afforded in seasons of persecution and
distress. The kiss of charity was given at the conclu-
sion of the Agapæ. At the council of Carthage, held
in the fourth century, we find these feasts forbidden
to be held in churches, except under particular cir-
cumstances; other regulations obtained in succeeding
councils respecting them, to the middle of the thirteenth
century, after which we have no authentic traces of
their existence.

Some modern sects have attempted to revive this
primitive custom; amongst whom are the Wesleyan
Methodists and the Swedenborgians, or Glassites; the
latter partake of a frugal repast together every Sab-
bath, either in an apartment adjoining to their place of
worship, or at some contiguous private dwelling be-
longing to their members, every one of whom is ex-
pected to attend; and they conclude with the kiss of
charity. The Methodists hold their love-feasts once
every quarter of a year. The members of the society
are admitted by tickets, which are occasionally, but
not frequently, granted to strangers. They commence
the feast in a similar manner to their public worship,
afterwards some small pieces of bread, and some water

AGAPÆ.

AGA-
THY-
SIANS.
—
AGE

of jealousy. They painted their bodies, (for Virgil calls them "picti Agathyrsi," and seem to have joined in the other customs of the Thracians. They claimed for their ancestor the Lybian Agathyrsis, the son of Hercules.

AGATHOPHYLLUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, order of Monogynia, class Dodecandria.

AGATHO, one of the Akentian islands, distant from Attoo, the principal one, about 20 miles. It is about sixteen miles long, and has a lofty mountain in the centre. E. long. 175°. N. lat. 52°. 30'.

AGATHYRNA, or AGATHYRNA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Sicily, on the northern coast, lying east of Messina, (Strabo, b. 6); built, according to Diodorus Siculus, by Agathymos, son of Æolus. It was situated on an eminence near the mouth of a river, now the Figura, running into the Tuscan Sea. Its name is now St. Marco, or, according to D'Anville, Agati. When the Carthaginians were driven from the island of Sicily, the Roman general carried from this place 4000 men of desperate character, whom he thought it unsafe to leave behind. Livy, b. xxvi. c. 40.

AGAVE, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Hexandria, order Monogynia.

AGDE, anciently called AGATHA, a very old and populous town of France, in the late province of Languedoc, and the department of Hérault, arrondissement of Beziers; about 24 miles S. W. of Montpellier, and 333 S. of Paris. Here is a small harbour, defended by a fort. Being only about a mile and a half from the sea, it is inhabited principally by mariners, and persons connected with seafaring pursuits. The public buildings consist of a small cathedral, the bishop's palace, the chapel of Notre Dame de Grace, which is a little distant from the town, and a convent of capuchins. Those, however, are but mean buildings, though they have acquired considerable celebrity by the resort of devotees.

The ancient Agatha was an island; but the land which has accumulated at the mouth of the river Hérault, has now joined it to the main land; and here are grown considerable quantities of corn. The neighbourhood also produces wine and oil, with a manufacture of silk, and some fine wool. There were at one time several volcanoes in the vicinity, but they are now extinguished. The town is, in great part, built and paved with the hard, black lava which once issued from what is now called the Rock of Agde.

AGDENAS, a peninsula and bay of Norway, in the gulf of Drontheim.

AGEA, a town of Persia, in the province of Irak, 35 leagues east of Ispahan.

AGELASTE, in Antiquities (from a. priv. and γελᾶω, to laugh), a celebrated stone near Eleusis, in Attica, on which Ceres sat when oppressed with grief for the loss of Proserpine.

AGE n. } Of uncertain etymology. Perhaps
AGED, } originally applied to time, past, gone,
AGEDLY, } agone. AS. Agran, preteritus, exactus.
And then generally, to all time.

For he by gunning of be world, to be time just now is,
Sene ages her habble y be, as sene time y was.

R. Gloucester, p. 9.

With him there was his sone a yonge squier
A lever, and a lusty bachelor

With lockes crell as they were laid in perre
Of twenty years of age he was I gram.

Chaucer. The Parvot. The Squier, vol. i. p. 4.

Sold thou not first think quare thou left, but leis,
Thy very fader the age Anchesies?

Douglas, book 2. p. 58. Æneid.

Will thou not first go see where thou hast lef
Anchesies thy father foretime with age?

Survey, Id.

Techy and wayward was thy infancy.

Thy school-dates frightfull, drep/rate, wilde and furious,

Thy prime of manhood, daring, bold, and voracious:

Thy age contin'd, proud, noble, slye, and bloody.

Shakespeare. Richard III. act. iv. sc. 3.

Will thou be angry without end,

For ever angry thus?

Will thou thy frowning lee extend

From age to age on us?

Milton. Psalm lxxv

The holy things of God must be handled sancti magis quam sancti;
with fear and reverence, not with wit and dalliance. The dangerous
effects of this appeared, not in the green time only, in young heads,
but in men of constant age.

Hale's Elders Remains.

Happy and innocent were the ages of our forefathers, who ate
herbs and parched corn, and drank the pure stream, and broke their
fast with nuts and roots.

Taylor's Holy Living and Dying.

Most men of ages present, so superstitiously do look on ages past,
that the authorities of the use, exceed the reasons of the other.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The errors of young men are the ruin of business; but the errors
of aged men amount but to this, that more might have been done, or
sooner.

Bacon's Essay on Youth and Age.

Near this my muse, what most delights her, sees

A living gallery of aged trees;

Bold sons of earth, that thrust their arms so high,

As if once more they would invade the sky.

Waller's St. James's Park.

Whereas man after decrepit age never renews his youth, a country
once wasted with age, returns by virtue of the celestial influences to its
former vigour, and is in a perpetual circulation to new infancy,
new youth, and so to old age.

Bates. On the Existence of God.

The progress of a science, which, like this of natural philosophy,
is the work of ages, must be liable, as it has been and will be, to
various interruptions. Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

Ancient learning may be distinguished into three periods. Its
commencement, or the age of poets; its maturity, or the age of
philosophers; and its decline, or the age of critics.

Goldsmith. On the present State of Politic Learning

His house was known to all the vagrant train,

He clad their wand'ring, but relieved their pain;

The long-emancipated beggar was his guest,

Whose leaz'd descending steps his aged breast

Goldsmith's Deserted Village.

We build with what we deem eternal rock;

A distant age asks were the fabric stood;

And in the dust, sifted and searched in vain,

The undiscoverable secret sleeps.

Campbell's Task.

AGE, in Ancient Physiology, sometimes denoted one
or other of six divisions of the life of man. Pueritia,
or childhood, extending from birth to the completion
of five years; adolescentia, or boyhood, from five to
eighteen; juvenus, or youth, from eighteen to thirty;
virilis ætas, or manhood, from thirty to fifty; senectus,
or old age, to sixty; crepita ætas, or decrepitude, to
death. Shakespeare, with a slight variation, has given
—— "his acts, seven ages."

In Chronology, an AGE sometimes signifies a cen-
tury, sometimes a single generation. The ages of the
world have been divided into the age of nature, or the
void age; according to the Jews, extending from the

AGE

AGE.
AGENO-
GLANS.

time of Adam to Moses; the age of the Jewish law, from Moses to Christ; the age of grace, the entire Christian era. The Jews speak of the third as the future age.

Among the poets, we read of the golden, the silver, the brazen, and the iron age. The golden age was a time of innocence and universal harmony. Saturn presided in person over agricultural pursuits; the earth brought forth, almost spontaneously, every comfort of human life, and all things were enjoyed in common. In the silver age, the dignity of human nature and its happiness first began to decline; the brazen age introduced greater moral disorder, which the iron age completed. Virgil has given us one of the finest passages in the *Æneid*, in describing the first, lib. viii. 315—325. On some ancient monarchical inscriptions, the rocky, or stony age, is said to correspond with the brazen age of the Greeks; and the fourth age has been called, amongst the Gotlin, the *adren* age, from the period when their weapons were first made of that wood. The fabulous, or heroic age, is also said, by some ancient historians, to end with the first Olympiad, and the historical age to commence with the building of Rome. The ages of the eastern world, particularly of the Hindoos and the Chinese, partake, of course, of the extravagance of their chronology.

The MIDDLE AGE and the DARK AGES, are comparative periods of time, which are limited or extended by different writers, according to the immediate object in their view. Generally the former has been taken to signify the space of time from the reign of Constantine the Great to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks; or from the decline of the Latin, or Western Empire, to that of the Greek, or Eastern. The dark ages extend from the final fall of the Roman empire to the revival of learning at the Reformation.

AGE, in the menage, or general management of a horse. See HORSEMANSHIP.

The AGE of neat cattle is indicated by their teeth and horns. The ox, cow, and bull, shed their first fore-teeth at the end of ten months; and in three years all the incisor teeth are shed and replaced. The first set of these are equal, long, and white; the last darker, and less uniform. At the end of three years they also shed their horns, which are replaced by more pointed ones than the first, and, continually shooting out, appear to string downwards a set of annular joints or rings, which are easily distinguishable upon the horn, and which added together, reckoning three for the first, will give the age of the animal.

The AGE of sheep may be ascertained, with regard to rams and horned sheep, in a similar manner to that of the ox, &c. In the first year, and sometimes at birth, they have horns, to which are added annual rings that will give the age. Sheep generally have, in their second year, two broad teeth before; in their third, four; in their fourth, six broad teeth; and in their fifth, and to old age, eight. The age of goats may be learnt by similar observations on the horns and teeth.

AGE, in Law. See INFANT and MARRIAGE.

AGE of the moon. See MOON.

AGEMA, in Ancient History, a body of military in Macedonia, which seems to have been formed after the manner of the Roman legion.

AGEMOGLANS, or AZAMOGLANS, amongst the Turks, are children obtained by purchase or by war,

or such as are exacted from the Christians in that empire, in return for the toleration granted to them by the Grand Signior. There are officers who exact this levy with rigour, and not unusually by force. They are careful to select such objects as are the handsomest, and likely to prove most useful to the state, who are circumcised and brought up in the Mahomedan faith. When arrived at years of maturity, these who are able to serve are drafted into the corps of janizaries; and thus, as these turbulent troops are well known to be the real masters of the Grand Signior himself, the injustice practised on the Christians becomes, in turn, the punishment of those who enforce it. The Agemoglan who, on reaching maturity, prove feeble or disabled, and are rejected from the army, are devoted to the lowest and most servile offices.

AGEN, the capital of the modern department of Lot and Garonne, in France. It is seated in a delightful country, on the right bank of the Garonne. The latest accounts of the population state the number of houses to be about 900, and the inhabitants 10,834. It is a bishop's see, and has a court royale, and a tribunal of commerce. In the reign of Charlemagne there was a celebrated castle here, now sunk into decay. The general appearance of the houses indicate the great antiquity of the town; but the promenade along the borders of the Garonne is much admired for its beauty. The late revolution has left the marks of its devastating character in the destruction of the religious houses which, before that event, gave importance to the place. At present there are only two parishes. This town is about 100 miles from Bourdeaux, and about 408 S. S. E. of Paris. Prior to the late law division of the French provinces into circles and departements, Agen was the capital of the Agacais, in Guienne. It produces corn, wine, brandy, hemp, French plums, and cattle; and has manufactures of sail-cloth, surges, cottons, counterpanes, and brassery.

AGENCY MONEY, in military affairs, a certain portion of the pay and allowances of the British army, which is subtracted from it for defraying the expenses of the public business of each regiment.

AGENCY, n. } Ago: agents. From *ago*, to
AGENT, n. } lead; to conduct. Applied par-
AGENT, adj. } ticularly to the conduct or man-
AGENTSHP. } agement of the affairs of
another.

— Shall it be,
That you a world of curses undergoest,
Being the agents, or base second means,
The curbs, the ladder, or the houghest rather?
Shakespeare. Henry IV. act i. sc. iii.
All's not a man's that is from others' rack,
And silver agents other ways do get.
Dryden's *Barren Wars*.

Kato. So goodly Agent? and you think there is no punishment due for your greatness?

Bonnet and Fletcher. *Love's Progress*, act v. sc. i.

This success is oft truly ascribed upon the force of imagination upon the body agent; and then, by a secondary means, it may upon a diverse body.

Bacon's *Natural History*.

It is evident by the universal experience of men, that regular effects are caused by the skill of a designing agent.

Bacon. *On the Existence of God*.

Nor can I think, that any body has such an idea of chance, as to make it an agent, or really existing and acting cause of any thing, and much less sure of all things. *Wallace's Religion of Nature*.

AGENO-
GLANS.
AGENCY.

AGENCY. An agent is an acting being, some substance, not a manner of being.

**AGENDI-
CUM.** The moral agency of the supreme Being, who acts only in the capacity of a ruler, towards his creatures, and never as a subject, differs in that respect from the moral agency of created intelligent beings.

Edwards. On Freedom of Will.
There must be a substance to perceive as well as an object to be perceived, and an agent to act as well as a subject to be operated upon.

Tucker's Light of Nature.
There could not be a human nature before there were men, nor a nature of justice before there were agents capable of mutual dealings which might be regulated by the rules of justice. *Id.*

Should God again,

As once in Gibion, interrupt the race

Of the anti-rolling and punctual sun,

How would the world admire! but speaks it less

An agency divine, to make him know

His moment when to sink and when to rise?

Cropper's Task.

AGENT, in Commerce, a term variously applied to the confidential servant of a house, a society, or company. Or sometimes to the procurator, broker, factor, or legal representative of a party or parties.

AGENT, in Military affairs, a person in the civil department of the army, through whom all the pecuniary concerns of a regiment are transacted, and who acts as the paymaster-general and the paymaster of the regiment. By the Mutiny Act, he is subject to dismissal from office, and to payment of the fine of 100*l.* if he detain the pay unlawfully for the space of a month, and he is obliged to give security to the colonels of regiments, or to the War Office, for the monies he receives.

AGENT, Navy, a person on shore who manages the pecuniary concerns of the fleet respecting pay, prizes, &c. according to the directions of the parties interested. By an act of the 44th Geo. III. all Agents who received the pay, wages, prize, or bounty money of any petty officers, seamen, or others, shall take out a license from the Navy Pay Office, which is immediately forfeited on any misconduct in the agent.

AGENT-VICARIAL, an officer stationed at a royal port, under the direction of the commissioners for victualling his majesty's navy. He has the superintendence of all necessaries supplied to the fleet, distributes to ships in harbour all provisions, fuel, lights, turnery wares, lanterns, &c. receives back into certain storehouses, what may be returned at the expiration of a voyage; and furnishes to the purser what is called necessary money, for the supply of such articles while abroad.

AGENTES IN REBUS, in Eastern Antiquities, a certain rank or office in the court of the Eastern or Constantinopolitan emperors. It appears to have corresponded partly with our office of commissariat, but that additional duties were required. The Agent not only supplied the camp, but also the court with corn, and expedited generally all intelligence respecting the state of the country, &c.

AGENDA (from *agere*, to do, or act), is generally applied, by church writers, to signify things necessary to be performed in the church service; such as morning and evening prayer. Sometimes it is opposed to credenda, things to be believed. Agenda is also applied to certain books of the church, and is synonymous to the ritual, liturgy, missal, formulary, &c.

AGENDICUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Gaul (now Sens), the capital of the Senones, according to Cæsar.

VOL. XVII.

AGENHINE, in Old Law, a guest who had lodged for three nights at an inn, when he was accounted one of the family, and the master of the house became responsible for his keeping the king's peace. The terms hagenhine and hogenhine, were synonymous to aghenine.

AGENOIS, a district of the province of Guienne, in France, named from the town of Agen; it is twenty leagues long and ten broad, and forms a portion of the department of the Garonne and Lot.

AGENORIA, in Ancient Mythology, from *ayywp*, fortis, the goddess of industry and courage. Also an epithet of the goddess of silence.

AGER, in Roman Antiquities, a measure of land equal to 1½ English acre. On the expulsion of the kings, 34 agri were assigned to a plebeian. It is also a term used with various epithets for different portions of public or private lands; as *ager vectigalis publicus*; *ager vectigalis privatus*, &c.

AGER, a small town of Catalonia, in Spain; a small island, belonging to Denmark, in the Baltic, E. lon. 11° 31' N. lat. 54° 37'; and a river of Austria, running into the Traun.

AGERATUM, in Botany, bastard hemp—*agrimony*; class Syngenesia, order Polygamia *Aqualis*.

AGERATUS LAPIS, (from *ageratus*, belonging to a common field), the cordwainer's lapstone, which was sometimes used, when ground, as an astrigent powder in the materis medica of the ancients.

AGETORION, AGTORIA, in Grecian Antiquities, obscure feasts, mentioned by Hesychius, without stating the deity in whose honour they were celebrated. Potter thinks they belonged to Apollo, and might be synonymous with the *Kapetaia* of the Lacedæmonians, *Ayyarag* being the name of the person consecrated to the god at that feast.

AGEUSTIA (*a priv* and *yew*, to taste), a deprivation of the sense of taste, ranked by Cullen in the class *Locales*, order *Dysæsthesia*.

AGGADA, in Jewish Antiquities, certain ingenious tales, or stories, which abound in the Talmud.

AGGELATION, *v. lat.* Gelu. Ice.

Ice acquires its figure according unto the surface wherein it congeleth, or the circumsamblency which conformeth it. So it is plain upon the surface of water, but round in hay and figured in its gittulous descent from the ayr, and so growing greater or lesser according unto the accretion or plavious aggelation about the mother and fundamental stones thereof. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

AGGENERATION, *n. Ad:* genero; genus; *ysopos*, to be.

To make a perfect nutrition into the body nourished, there is required a transmutation of the nutriment; and where this conversion or aggeneration is made, there is also required in the aliment a feminility of matter. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

AGGER, in Antiquity, was a mound or bank raised for the purpose of strengthening a city against the attack of an enemy, or of carrying on a siege. When Servius Tullius enlarged Rome, *Livy*, b. i. c. 44, says he fortified it with an agger. But this work was most frequently an erection of the moment, raised by the besiegers from the inner line drawn round the city, and composed of earth, strengthened with hurdles and stakes, if there were a sufficiency of these to be obtained; otherwise any binding material was used. They were carried up till they rose above the walls, so that the inhabitants were exposed to the showers of stones and missile weapons of every kind, which the soldiers stationed in

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the towers poured from their engines into the place. Being made partly of combustible matter, they were often set on fire by the inhabitants. This occurred to Cæsar in his operations against Marseilles, and as all the trees about the city were already cut down, he was under the necessity of raising another agger of brick walls, which he describes as quite new. CÆSAR, *de Bel. Civ. l. ii. c. 15*. They were often of great height and bulk, as that which Cæsar raised against Avaricum, in Gaul, which was 390 feet broad at the base, and 80 feet high. Florus mentions a horrible expedition used by this general, who besieging the town of Munda, in Spain, whither the enemy had fled after an obstinate battle, collected the bodies of the slain to raise the mound with. Works of this kind were also employed to protect an army when encamped. The wall of Severus, in the north of England, may be regarded as a grand agger, to which several smaller ones are attached.

AGGERHOUD, or AGGERHOUDT, in Ancient Geography, a town at the extremity of the Red Sea, two leagues from Surz. It is remarkable for being the terminating point of the canal of Neeoa and Ptolemy Philadelphus, for uniting the Red Sea with the Nile.

AGGERHOUS, or CHRISTIANA, the most important of the four governments, or bishoprics of Norway. Christians, the capital of this part of the north kingdom of Sweden and Norway, is seated about thirty English miles from the sea, in an extensive and pleasant valley, and is reckoned one of the handsomest towns in the country. It has, during the last thirty or forty years, been in a rapid state of improvement; and at present contains a population of upwards of 400,000 persons. See CHRISTIANA. The timber for the building of ships, &c. which grows in great plenty in this district, has long been a source of great wealth to the government; as have also the silver mines of Kongsberg and Stroomsee, particularly the former, which are in the heart of the country. There are also in the neighbourhood some rich mines of iron and copper; and leadstones and slates are found here in considerable quantities. On the western side of the gulf of Christiansa, and at the distance of about three miles from the town, is the strong fortress of Aggerhus, which also gives name to a neighbouring bailiwick. The castle and fortress have been frequently subject to severe sieges by the Swedes, to whom, as above intimated, they have lately been conceded.

AGGERHUS, a Danish island in the Great Belt, *E. long. 31° 12'; N. lat. 55° 12'.*

AGGI, a river of Persia, which flows into the Arras, *near Chahab.*

AGGLOMERATE, *v.* } *Ad: glomero: glomos: To*
AGGLOMERATION. } *roll up.*

Resides, the hard agglomerating salts,
The spoil of ages, would imperious choke
Their secret channels; or, by slow degrees,
High as the hills protrude the swelling vales.

Thomson's Autumn.

World's system? and creation!—And creation,
In our agglomerated cluster, hang,
Great vint! on thee, on thee the cluster hangs.

Young, Night IX.

He seeks a favour'd spot; that where he builds
Th' agglomerated pile, his frame may front
The sun's meridian disk, and at the back
Enjoy close shelter, wall, or crevice, or hedge
Impervious to the wind.

Cropper's Task.

AGGLUTINATE, *v.*
AGGLUTINATION,
AGGLUTINANT,
AGGLUTINATIVE.

Ad: *glute: glas: To stick,*
or *adhere together.* AGGLU-
TINATE.
AGGRA-
VATE.

It (chrysal) hath been found in the veins of minerals, sometimes agglutinated into lead, sometimes in rocks, opacous stones, and the marble floor of Ctesias, Duke of Parma.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

To the nutrition of the body, there are two essential conditions required, assumption and retention; then there follows two more, *attrition* and *excretion*; concoction not agglutination, or retention.

Hewitt's Letters.

I shall beg you to prescribe to me something strengthening and agglutinating.

Gray's Letters.

Roll up the member with the agglutinating member.

Warren.

AGGLUTINANTS, in Surgery, applications of a strengthening nature, which are designed to produce adhesion in the parts of the body to which they are attached. See above.

AGGRACE, *v.* } *Ad: gratia: To treat with*
AGGRACE, *n.* } *favour or kindness.*
AGGRATE.

Suffice, that I have done my due in place.

So, goodly purpose they together found,

Of kindness and of courteous agrace;

The whites lady Archibone and A tin fed asper.

Spartan's Færie Queen, book ii. c. vii.

Faire Vanagon Fidelia faire request

To have her knight into her school-house place,

That of her heavenly learning he might taste,

And learn the wisdom of her words divine.

Three granted, and that knight so much agrac'd,

That she him taught celestial discipline,

And opened his dull eyes, that light shone in them shine.

Id. Book i. c. x.

But now in sweetest love and happy state

She with him lives, and hath him borne a child,

Pleasure, that both gods and men agrace;

Pleasure, the daughter of Cupid and Psyche late.

Id. Book iii. c. vi.

AGGRANDIZE, *v.* } *Ad: grandia: Vossius*
AGGRANDIZEMENT. } *thinks from Gramma, a*

gram; which etymon he illustrates by the application of Grandia, to fruges, frumenta; i. e. to the whole product or accumulation of *grain*.

To accumulate into large heaps; to enlarge, to magnify, to augment.

We are not always certain, who are good, who wicked. If we trust to fame and reports, these may proceed, on the one hand, from partial friendship, or flattery; on the other, from ill-natured surmises and constructions of things, envy, or malice; and on either, from small matters aggrandized.

Wallston's Religion of Nature.

Let the small savage boast his silver fur;

His royal robe anterior'd, and unblest;

His own, descending fairly from his sire's,

Shall man be proud to wear his livery;

And soon in ermin scorn a soul without?

Can place or lessen us, or aggrandize.

Young's Night Thoughts.

A monarch preserves the people, and they aggrandize the monarch; and by that aggrandizement he preserves them; but if there be no one called king, who can be aggrandized?

See Wm. Jones's Hippiasides.

We may date from the treaty of Munster, the decline of the house of Austria, the great power of the house of Bourbon, and the aggrandizement of that of Brandenburg.

Chatterfield. Letter-*ed.*

AGGRAVATE, *v.* } *Ad: gravis, heavy: perhaps*
AGGRAVATION, } *(says Vossius) gerans from*
AGGREG, } *gerudo.*

AGGRA-
VALE.
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AGGRE-
GATE.

To make heavy; to add to the weight or burthen. Aggredge, or Aggrege, are used by Chaucer and G. Douglas, which Tyrrhit and Raddimmo refer to the French Aggreger, and interpret; To aggravate.—Ingravat and Aggerat, are both rendered *Aggrave* by Douglas.

And therefore a vengeance is not withheld by another vengeance, as a wrong by another wrong, but even of him executed and aggravated other.

Chaucer. *The Tale of Melibee*, vol. ii. p. 97.

And up he sterts in this ilk thrif

With this wordis Turna to our charge,

Aggrevyng on him wroth and malice large.

Douglas. Book ii. p. 374.

Some tyme a thyng right well intended and mis-constructed hath been turned to the worse, or a small displeasure done to you, either by yours own affection, either by instigation of evil tongues hath been see aggravated.

Ibid. p. 344.

I doubt not that here be many present that either to themselves or their right friends, as well their goodes as their persons were greatly endangered either by fained counsels or small matters aggravated with heinous names.

Ibid. p. 369.

Mos. O, but before, sir; had you heard him, first,
Draw it to certain heads, then aggravate,
Then use his vehement figures.—I look'd still,
When he would shift a shirt.

Ben Jonson, act ii. sc. 2.

Every man, saith Seneca, thinks his own burthen the heaviest; and a melancholy man, above all others, complains most: weariness of life, abhorring all company and light, fear, sorrow, suspicion, anguish of mind, bashfulness, and those other dread symptoms of body and mind, must needs aggravate this misery.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

Not that I endeavour

To lessen or extenuate my offence,

But that on the other side, if it be weight'd

By itself, with aggravations not uncharg'd,

Or else with just admissions counterpois'd,

I may, if possible, thy pardon find.

Milton. *Samson Agonistes*.

What from his life and letters were he taught,

But that his knowledge aggravates his fault.

Prior's *Solomon*.

It is a great aggravation of infidelity, of apostasy, of all disobedience, that they who are guilty of them, do frustrate the designs and undertakings of Christ.

Barnes's *Sermons*.

— Till over head, I shut

Of fird flame discloses wide; then shuts,

And opens wider; shuts and opens still

Expansive, wrapping ether in a blaze.

Fulton's *houses'd aggravated roar*,

Endaring, deepening, mingling.

Thomson's *Summer*.

Outragious penalties, being seldom or never inflicted, are hardly known to be law by the public; but that rather aggravates the mischief, by laying a snare for the unwary.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

Oh! friendship's generous ardour then suppress,

Nor hint the fatal cause of my distress;

Nor let each horrid incident sustain

The lengthen'd tale to aggravate his pain.

Fletcher's *Shipwreck*.

Corellius Rufus is dead! and, dead, too, by his own act! a circumstance of great aggravation to his affliction.

Melmoth's *Flings*, letter xii.

AGGREGATE, v.

ACCREGATE, v.

ACCREGATE, adj.

ACCREGATELY;

ACCREGATION;

ACCREGATIVE;

ACCREGATOR.

Ad: *gregare*; *Aggregare*

(says Festus) est ad gregem

ducere: to bring to the flock.

To gather or collect to-

gether, into one flock or herd,

into one body or assemblage.

— The aggregated soil,

Death with his mare peritric cold and dry,

As with a trifling smote; and s'd us first

As Delos, floating once.

Milton. *Paradise Lost*, book 2.

For, seeing the church is a society of men, whereas every one (according to the doctrine of the Romish church) hath free-will in believing, it follows, that the whole aggregate hath free-will in believing.

Chillingworth's *Religion of Protestants a safe Way to Salvation*.

All these culical and pyramidal corporeals of the fire and earth are in themselves so small, that by reason of their particula, none of them can be perceived singly and alone, but only the aggregations of many of them together.

Cowdorth's *Intellectual System*.

In the disjunctive, and not the aggregative sense. Spelman.

Penitus speaks of an excellent bolus out of Apocynon, which taken to the quantity of three drops in a cup of wine, will cause a sudden alteration, drive away dumps, and cheer up the heart. Ant. Guainerius, in his antidotary, hath many such. Jacobus de Dondis, the aggregator, repeats ambergrace, catenage, and all-spice amongst the rest.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

Some are modest, and hide their virtues; others hypocritical, and conceal their vices under shews of sanctity, good nature, or something that is species. So that it is many times hard to discern, in which of the two sorts, the good or the bad, a man ought to be aggregated.

Wiffatzen's *Religion of Nature*.

Put yourself upon analysing one of these words [virtue, liberty, or honour], and you must reduce it from one set of general words to another, and then into the simple abstracts and aggregates.

Burke. *On the Sublime and Beautiful*.

Corporations aggregate consist of many persons united together into one society, and are kept up by a perpetual succession of members, so as to continue for ever.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

Many little things, though separately they seem too insignificant to mention, yet aggregately are too material for us to omit.

Chertsefield's *Lectures*.

AGGREGATE FLOWERS, in Botany, are flowers which are incorporated by means of the calyx or the receptacle; or that are composed of distinct parts or florets thus united.

AGGREGATE, in Chemistry. See CHEMISTRY. Div. ii.

AGGRESS, v. Ad: *gradior*, gressus: to step to.

AGGRESS, n. To march or advance against;

AGGRESSION, as foe against foe, and thus ap-

plied to the commencement of a

quarrel;—to the first attack.

Leagues offensive, and defensive, which oblige the princes not only to mutual defence, but also to be assisting to each other in their military aggressions upon others.

Hale's *Hist. of the Pleas of the Crown*.

The rape dispers'd, the glorious pair advance,

With mingled anger and collected might,

To turn the war, and tell aggressing France,

How Britain's sons and Britain's friends can fight.

Prior's *Ode to Queen Anne*.

There may be a conspiracy of common enmity and aggression.

L'Ettrange.

— Fly in nature's face?

But how, if nature fly in my face first?

Then nature's the aggressor.

Dryden.

Self-preservation requires all men not only barely to defend themselves against aggressors, but many times also to prosecute such, and only such, as are wicked and dangerous.

Wiffatzen's *Religion of Nature*.

As the public crime is not otherwise avenged than by forfeiture of life and property, it is impossible afterwards to make any reparation for the private wrong: which can only be had from the body or goods of the aggressor.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

AGGRIEVE, v. Aggrever, Fr. Aggraver, It.

AGGRIEVANCE. } Gravis, Lat. heavy.

To bear heavy upon, to weigh down, depress; with sorrow or affliction.

Grief was put lineage & man; to pain cheer'd,

& of put ilk outrage per fest pain were aground.

R. Bruns, p. 523.

AGGRE-
GATE.
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AG-
GRIEVE.

AG-
GRIEVE.

AGHRIM.

For John, there is a love that arieth thus,
That if a man in a point be aggrieved
That in another he shall be relieved.

Chaucer. The River Tale, vol. i. p. 165.

20 aye ich seide by so pat no man were a greide
Alle ye science under sone, and alle wite crukes
Ich wulde ich knewe and couthe, byscheliche in my herte.

Chaucer. The Plowman's Tale, p. 274.

What aileth you in grieve in this mase?
Ye have a very soper, fy for shame.
And he answered and sayde thus : madam
I pray you, that ye take it not agryfe.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Priores Tale, vol. ii. p. 178.

This raynald who hir had in the chis nyght,
Thou tenetd agryfe sapper to my herte,
Of grette Goudis accomed with Troy agryph.

Langland, book ii. p. 89. Enid.

The dreadful Goules can appere to me
And dale fiesh eke aggrieved with our town.

Surrey. Id.

And thus pacyfyer aggrieweth the cleargye of Engalnd, for use of
the lawes not made by them self, but he common lawes of al chary-
tenance.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 1015, col. 2.

I saw alas! the crying earth desolate
The spring, the place, and all clean out of sight;
Which yet aggrievs my heart, even to this hour.

Spenser.

The aggrieved person shall do worse easily, to be extraordinary
and singular in claiming the due right whereof he is frustrated, than
to place up his lost contentment by visiting the stews, or stepping
to his neighbor's bed.

Milton. On the Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

AGGROUP, or GROUP. See GROUP.

Bodies of various natures, which are aggrouped, or continued
together, are agreeable and pleasant to the sight.

Dryden.

AGHABOE, a very ancient parish of Queen's County,
Ireland; chiefly remarkable for the ruins of a Domin-
ican monastery, generally supposed to have been
erected about the middle of the 14th century, though
some antiquaries assign the year 1052 as the date of
its foundation. The town is mentioned as early as the
year 680, under the name of Achebban, or "the field
of the ox." It became the see of a bishop; but was
transferred to that of Kilkenny, about the commence-
ment of the 13th century. It is supposed to contain
about 4361 inhabitants.

AGHRIM, a village of the county of Galway, in
Ireland; memorable in English history for a most de-
cisive battle, fought in the neighbourhood between the
forces of William III. under General Ginckel, and
those of James II. commanded by the French general
St. Ruth. Ginckel having put Athlone in a posture of
defence, and St. Ruth having posted himself very ad-
vantageously in Aghrim, it was resolved, at a council
of war, to attack the Stuart forces, on Sunday the 12th
of July, 1691. St. Ruth commanded 28,000 men,
while Ginckel's force did not exceed 20,000. The
French general extended his line along a rising and
uneven ground in this neighbourhood, intersected with
banks and ditches, but joined by lines of communica-
tion, and fronted by a large bog, which was almost
impassable; his right was fortified with entrenchments;
and his left secured by the castle of Aghrim. Not-
withstanding these great advantages, the forces of
Ginckel, crossed the bog, and made a desperate attack
on the enemy; though repulsed for a time with great
loss, they compelled the Irish finally to give way,
and soon recovered their ground. In the sequel,
St. Ruth was shot by a cannon ball, and victory was
soon afterwards decided in favour of the English.

Aghrim is now in a poor and decayed condition. It is
about 28 miles E. of Galway, and 75 miles distant
from Dublin.

AGHRIM.
—
AGING
COURT.

AGIADES, in the Turkish armies, according to
Du Cange, those whose duty it is to clear the road,
and to fortify camps; they seem to be a rude mixture
of the pioneers, and engineers.

AGILE, *adj.* } Ago: *agilis*: able to net.
AGILITY. } Able to act—with readiness, to
move with quickness, nimbleness.

Yet God haile suffered theym [the fencible] to keep the gytes
of nature styll, as wytye, bynght, strenght, agyltye, and suche other
gyle.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 863, col. 2.

For the safeguard and preservation of his owne body, he es-
tablished & ordeyned a certayne number as well of good archers as of
discrete other persons being hardy, strong and of agylite to give
duelty attendance on his person, whom he named counsaill of his
guide.

Ibid, p. 473.

And suffer then his tongue,

His agile arme, heate downe their fatall points,
And twist their runes. *Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*

High spirited friend,
I scold not balas, nor courtes to your wound;
Your faith hath found
A grunder, and more agile hand to heal
The cure of that which is but corporal.

Mrs Jewell's Underwoods.

He [the thief] was pursued close by a fierce mastiff dog, and was
forced to save himself by leaping over a hedge, which being of an
agile body he effected. *Bacon's Apophthegms.*

If the shadows of some trees be ravous; if torpedos deliver
their opinion at a distance, and amble beyond themselves, we cannot
reasonably deny that there may proceed from subtler sources
more agile evasions. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Once more, I said, once more I will inquire,
What is this little, agile, perversive fire,
This fluttering motion, which we call the mind?
How does she act? and where is she confidant?

Prior's Solomon.

He that before wholly attended upon his body to make it excel
in strength or agility, that he might contend victoriously in the
olympic games, then made it his business to improve and advance
his soul in knowledge and virtue.

Ramus, on the Immortality of the Soul.

First he bids spread
Dry fern or litter'd hay, that may imbrue
Th' ascending drops; then lecherously impose,
And lightle, shaking it with agile hand
From the full fork, the saturated straw. *Cowper's Task.*

AGHILARIUS, in English Law, an ancient name for
a keeper of cattle in a common field. There were two
sorts; one of the town or village, the other of the lord
of the manor.

AGILT, *v.* a verb formed upon the past part. *agileb*,
guil'd, guil'd, guilt. See BROUILE.

To practise any cheat, imposture, or injustice: any
sin or wickedness.

Away! Away! we synnall men, alas! our wretchede
but we shalpe þus God agilt myd many synnall dole
We and our chylde eke. *R. Glosseter, p. 252.*

Thou missest I say, that when thou prayest, that God should
forgive thee thy gyltes as thou forgivest him that have agilted
thee, be well ware that thou be not out of charitee.

Chaucer. The Pervener Tale, vol. ii. p. 303.

AGINCOURT or AINCOUR, a small village, in the
department of the Pas-de-Calais, France; formerly a
portion of the province of Artois. It is about seven
miles north of Hesdin, and eleven east of Montreuil.
The town has nothing to recommend it to modern no-
tice but its memorable connection with the victory which
our Henry V. gained over the French on the 25th of
Oct. 1415, in the plains adjoining. The English forces

AGIN-
COURT.

were reduced to 10,000, which the French opposed with an army amounting, according to some historians to 100,000, but Hume reckons them at about four times the number of the English. When some of his nobles expressed a wish for the assistance of their brave compatriots in England, Henry is said to have exclaimed, "No! I would not have one man more; if we are defeated, we are too many; if it shall please God to give us the victory, as I trust he will, the smaller the number, the greater our glory." The intrepid monarch having reconnoitred the ground on the preceding evening, by moon-light, determined, if possible, to draw the overwhelming force of the enemy into a chosen situation which presented itself, where they could only bring a small portion of it into action. He then spent the remainder of the night in devotion, while the French were revelling in the confidence of victory. In the morning he disposed his troops with admirable dexterity on a declivity near this village, defended on each side by a wood. The first line commanded by the duke of York was wholly composed of archers, four in file, each of whom, beside his bow and arrows, had a battle axe, a sword, and a stake pointed at each end with iron, which he fixed before him to receive the French cavalry; 200 archers were in the wood in ambush on the right, and 400 pike men on the left. Early in the morning Henry rode along the lines to animate the troops with every promise of reward that could inspire their courage, and with terrific accounts of the cruelty of the enemy. A short pause ensued, during which the king was apprehensive that the French would see their danger, and decline the battle upon this spot; he therefore sounded the charge, and his archers first kneeling and kissing the ground, advanced to the attack. The conflict soon became furious and general. The French troops encumbered by their own numbers, fell rapidly under the English archery; until the archers themselves being anxious to come to close fight, threw away their bows, and mowed down their opponents with their swords and battle-axes. The first line having thus bravely "done its duty," Henry advanced in person with the second, attended by his youngest brother, the duke of Gloucester; and was almost immediately attacked by the duke d'Alençon, who had vowed either to kill the king or take him prisoner, or to perish in the effort. The unparalleled success of Henry, however, did not forsake him; he hewed down his adversary, after a brave struggle on both sides; and the French dispirited and in utter confusion, fled in every direction. They are said to have left 10,000 men dead on the field, while 14,000 fell into the hands of the English as prisoners; amongst the slain were reckoned 1,500 knights, 92 barons, 13 earls, a marshal, the archbishop of Sens, and the constable of France. Hume says, "no battle was ever more fatal to France." On the side of the English, the duke of York fell early in the battle, and the duke of Gloucester was dangerously wounded, but the total loss is stated, by some accounts, only at forty men; though the French writers, with more probability, make it from 300 to 400. Henry, on his return to England, early in the following month, was almost adored by his subjects. Shakespeare makes this battle one of the principal features of his historical Drama of Henry V., and it has become one of the proverbial trophies of English valour. Monstrelet describes the English monarch, not as being at the village of Azin-

court, but at what he calls Maisconcelles; but the fact was, that Henry, at the close of this glorious day, enquiring the name of the adjacent town, was answered Azincourt. "Then," said he, "to all posterities following, this battell shall be called the Battell of Azincourt." *Specimens of Great Britain.* Maisconcelles, however, was a village not far distant.

AGIO, an Italian word, signifying *aid*; is chiefly applied in Holland and in Venice to denote the difference between bank money and the common currency. Thus, 100 livres or dollars, bank money, being equal to 105 livres or dollars currency; the agio in this case is five livres or dollars. The rates of agio differ in different countries, and vary according to political or commercial circumstances. At Venice the agio was formerly fixed by law at 20 per cent. At Genoa it was between 15 and 16 per cent.

AGIOSYMANDRUM (from *ayios*, holy, and *symanon*, I signify), a wooden instrument used by the Greek churches in the Turkish dominions as a call to public worship. It was introduced as a substitute for bells, which the jealousy of the Turks prohibited to the Christians, lest they should be made subservient to conspiracies against the state.

AGIST, *v.* } In Law, (probably from our old
AGISTMENT. } law-French *giste*, a lying place),
the lying, and consequently pasturing, of one man's cattle in another's ground, on payment of a certain sum of money, or other good consideration. The cattle thus grazed are sometimes called *gismates*. Agistment also means the profit arising from this practice. Agistor is the person who feeds the cattle.

A forest hath laws of her own, to take cognizance of all trespasses; she hath also her peculiar officers, as foresters, wardens, regarders, agisters, &c. whereas a chase or park hath only keepers and woodwards. *Howells's Letters.*

The Taylor, the carrier, the inn-keeper, the agister, the brewer, the publican, the distiller, and the grocer, have, say all of them, vicinities in their own right. *Blackstone's Commentaries.*

If a man takes in a horse, or other cattle, to graze and depasture in his grounds, which the law calls *agistment*, he takes them upon an implied contract, to return them on demand to the owner. *Id.*

AGISYMBIA, in Ancient Geography, a district situated in the western part of Libya interior, and to the south of the Equator. It was separated from the Atlantic ocean by a tribe of Ethiopians, said to be cannibals. The country to the south of Agisymba was unknown to the ancients. AGAHEMERS, *h. ii. c. 7.* It is supposed to be the modern Zanguebar; but D'Anville places it on the eastern coast.

AGITATE, *v.* } *Agito*: *ago*: to net frequently.
AGITATION. } To act with frequent and re-
AGITATION. } peated motion; to shake. Metaphorically, to discuss.
To keep the mind in constant action; to disturb, to distract.

I was always plain with you, and so now I speak my agitation of the matter.

Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice, act iii.

As when a wandering fair,
Compact of unlovely vapours, which the night
Condenses, and the cold envious rears;
Killed through agitation to a flame,
Which oft, they say, some evil spirit attends,
Howling and blowing with delusive light,
Mistaken the amazed night-wanderer from his way.

Milton. P. L. Book iii.

The minds, even of the virtuous, are agitated by the words of the base. *Sir Wm. Jones's Hippiasides.*

AGIN-
COURT.
AGITATE.

AGITATE
AGMEN.

Winds from all quarters agitate the air,
And bid the limpid element for use,
Elate motions; oceans, rivers, lakes, and streams,
All feel the fresh'ning impulse, and are clomb'd
By restless undulation. *Cæsar's Test.*
The future pleases: Why? The present pains—
But that's a secret. Yes, which all men know,
And know from thee, discover'd unawares.
Thy ceaseless agitation restricts still
From cheat to cheat. *Young's Night Thoughts.*

In every district in the kingdom, there is some leading man, some agitator, some wealthy merchant, or considerable manufacturer, some active attorney, some popular preacher, some money-lender, &c. who is followed by the whole flock.

Barker. On the Duration of Parliaments.

AGITATION, among Physiologists, is sometimes exclusively applied to that species of earthquake called tremor, arietatio. Dr. Fleming, in the Royal Society Transactions of Edinburgh (vol. i.), mentions a most remarkable one, which affected the water of Loch Tay, in the Highlands, in 1784, and a river to the north of it, for upwards of a month. Phil. Trans. Lond. 1756, 1762, &c. contain similar accounts.

AGITATION, in Medicine, a term applied to the act of swinging, and to other exercises recommended medicinally, for violently affecting the body.

AGITATOR, in Antiquity, a charioteer; or sometimes he who directed horses in the circus, in the public races or games.

AGITATORS, in English History, were persons elected by the army in 1647, to watch over its interests; and to control the parliament, at that time sitting at Westminster. Two private men, or inferior officers, were appointed from each troop or company, and this body, when collected, were presumed to equal the House of Commons; while the peers were represented by a council of officers of rank. Cromwell availed himself of the Agitators, as the first instruments of his ambition; but afterwards issued orders for suppressing them. These associations, so dangerous to the constitution, gave rise to the act which forbids any member to enter either House of Parliament armed, a regulation enforced with jealousy to this day.

AGLAIA, in ancient Mythology, sometimes called Pansilea, the youngest of the three graces, and espoused to Vulcan.

AGLUTTION (a priv. and *glutis*, to swallow), a difficulty of swallowing, or deglutition.

AGMEN, in the Ancient Military Art, the Roman army when on a march; the order of which Polybius has thus described in his 6th book. He says, when the trumpets first sounded, the tents were taken down, and the baggage collected; at the second signal, the baggage was put upon the pack-horses; and at the third signal, the whole army put itself in motion. In the first line were the extraordinarii, who were choice troops, then the right wing of the allies; the first and second legions followed, and the left wing of the allies brought up the rear. The cavalry rode either behind, or on each side. If danger threatened the rear, the extraordinarii took their station there; but the order of the troops, with respect to each other, was changed every day, that all in turn might share the danger and fatigue of the march. The baggage followed the divisions of the troops to which they belonged. The army, when drawn up in order of battle, was called acies; but agmen and acies sometimes occur as synonymous words.

AGMET, a town of Morocco, on the western declivity of the Atlas, formerly the capital, and still giving name to a district. It is 18 miles S. E. of Morocco, and in a degraded state. N. lat. 30°, 56'. W. lon. 7°, 15'.

AGMONDESHAM, or AMERSHAM, a town of great antiquity, in Buckinghamshire, about 31 miles S. E. of Buckingham, and 26 N. W. of London. It is situated in a valley near the chalk hills, on the high road to Buckingham, and consists of a long wide street, intersected near the middle by a smaller one, and contains, according to the census of 1811, 419 houses, and a population of 2,259 persons. It is a borough town, sending two representatives to Parliament, generally branches of the Drake family, to whom the manor belongs. Montague Garrard Drake, great grandfather of the present members, died its representative in 1728; and this family has been seated here upwards of two centuries, at their noble seat of Shardeloot. The electors are the lord's tenants, paying scot and lot. Sir William Drake, Bart. bought this borough of King Charles II. It anciently belonged to Anne Nevil, wife of Stafford, Duke of Buckingham, who was slain at the battle of Northampton, in the year 1460. Afterwards it became the property of the celebrated Guy, Earl of Warwick, whose lands were seized by Edward IV. but restored by Henry VII. to his widow, Ann Henechamp. The crafty monarch, however, did this only for the purpose of having it more formally conveyed to himself. Henry VIII. gave it afterwards to Lord Russell, and it became the property of the present owners, by an intermarriage with the daughter and heiress of William Tothill, Esq. in the reign of James I.

Near the spot where the small street crosses the larger one, stands the parish church, a tolerably spacious brick edifice, covered with stucco. It is deemed one of the richest rectories in the county. Here also is a town-hall, or market-house, a handsome brick building, raised on pillars and arches. It was erected in the year 1682, by Sir William Drake, Knight, nephew to the baronet of that name, before mentioned. Sir William also erected and endowed an almshouse, for six poor widows. This town derives a degree of melancholy historical interest, from its having been the scene of some dreadful burnings, in the days of religious persecution. An instance of this kind, which took place in the reign of Henry VII. merits particular notice, from the infernal ferocity of its character. A William Tillsworth, who had indulged in some abuse of pilgrimages, and the "worship of images," was ordered to be publicly burnt alive; and his own daughter was compelled to set fire to the devouring pile! Amersham has some trade in lace, sacking, and also in cotton goods; but it cannot be deemed a flourishing or very busy town; there has been, however, an increase, since 1801, of above 150 houses.

AGNADELLO, or AQUADELLO, a small town or village of Italy, in the duchy of Milan, situate on the banks of the Adda and Scis, about 12 miles from Lodi. It is now famous only for having been the scene of several military engagements, particularly for the victory which the French king, Louis XII. obtained over the Venetians, in the year 1509; and for that of the duke of Vendome over Prince Eugene, in the year 1706; if, indeed, this latter affair can be deemed a victory over a general, who thereby gained to himself, through the bravery and skill of his retreat, as much

AGMET.
AGNA-
DELLO

AGNA-
DELLO.
—
AGNES.

glory as his enemy obtain'd by his discomfiture. It was within a few miles of this place, that the late Emperor Napoleon so greatly signalized himself during his campaigns in Italy.

AGNANO, a lake in Italy, near the sulphurous valley of Solfatura, in the neighbourhood of Naples. It is about an Italian mile in circumference, and is described as representing the crater of a volcano, having the shape of an inverted cone; its sides and bottom being encrusted with lava and pumice-stone. Notwithstanding the frequent apparent fermentation to which its waters are subject, it does not possess any sensible heat; several aquatic fowls are constantly to be seen on its surface; its interior produces fish, and a singular species of frogs, which in their tadpole, or early state, have hinder parts like a fish, with the round head and leg of their own species.

AGNATE, *adj.* } Ad: *nascor, natus*: born to,
AGNATION, } of kin to. Legally applied by
AGNATION. } Blackstone, to issue derived from the male ancestors.

By an extensive examination of the peculiarities in enunciation which each people have, in the one way or the other, by a fair reciprocal analysis of the *agnate* words they respectively use, I think a much greater *agnation* may be found amongst all the languages in the northern hemisphere of our globe.

Peacock on the Study of Antiquities.

This I take to be the true reason of the constant preference of the agnate succession, or issue derived from the male ancestors, through all the stages of civilised inheritance.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

AGNATE, in LAW (*agnati*, among the Romans), a term applied to male descendants from the same father. In Scotland, *agnates* are those male descendants which are nearest to the father, to the exclusion of all females.

AGNEL, an old French gold coin, which is supposed to have derived its name from the figure of a lamb, which it bore on one side. It was first struck by St. Louis, and was valued at nearly thirteen sols.

AGNES, ST. one of the Cassiterides, or Scilly Isles, about a mile and a-half from St. Mary's. It contains an area of 300 acres, and is extremely well cultivated and fruitful, both in corn and grass; but they have but little good water, the best being rain-water, which is collected upon the leaden floor of the gallery of the light-house. This light-house, which has often proved of signal service to mariners, was erected in the year 1680, at the expense of Captains H. Till and S. Bayley, and has since been supported by the corporation of the Trinity-house, Deptford. It is a stone pillar, upwards of sixty feet high, and is raised upon the most commanding and lofty eminence in the island. Twenty-one Argand lamps are placed in the respective centres of as many parabolic reflectors of copper, disposed in three clusters of seven each, on a frame standing perpendicularly to the horizon; and so constructed as to turn round, on a common shaft or center, every two minutes, by which motion all parts of the surrounding horizon receive in succession the benefit of these brilliant lights. This comparatively recent disposition of the lights was suggested by Mr. Adam Walker, a well-known lecturer in natural and experimental philosophy. Prior to this the lights were stationary, and were emitted through sixteen large sashed windows. The island is commonly denominated "Light-house Island." Here is a small church, in which divine service is performed by a minister appointed by the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, in whose absence prayers are

usually read by some layman resident on the island. The population is between two and three hundred. W. lon. 6° 20'. N. lat. 49° 53'.

AGNIERS, a tribe of Iroquois Indians, who distinguished themselves for some years by their resistance of the French in their first settlement at Canada.

AGNIZE, *v. 2* } *Agnosco*: agnition: ad; nosco,
AGNITION. } to acknowledge.

Leans of Nazareth was borne in Bethlem, a city of Judea: where incovenient by the glorification of the angels, the apostles of the shepherds, the veneration of the wise men, the prophecy of holy Simeon, and the admiration of the doctory he was had in Jerusalem.

Grafton, vol. i. p. 58.

That he may deliver up unto Messias at his coming, a people not utterly voided or vacated: his discipline but somewhat prepared already & instructed therewith with yr agnizing & know-ledge of thyrry on ac synchouse.

Udall, Liber, c. l. f. 7, c. 5.

The thirnt custome, most grace senators,
Hath made the blinty and steche crook of warre
My thrice-driven bed of downe. I do agnize
A naturall and prompt Atacarie,
I find in hardnesse.

Shakespeare, Othello, act. i.

In evil times, undaunted, though alone,
His glorious truth, such He will crown with praise,
An glad agnize before his Father's throne.

Edwards, Censura of Criticism.

AGNO, or L'AWIO, a river of Naples, which falls into the gulf of Greta: and a town of Switzerland, near Lugano, on a river of the same name.

AGNOETE (*agnosco, not to know*), a name sometimes given to a sect of the 4th century, which disputed the omniscience of God, and stated that he knew past occurrences only by a superior memory, and things future by a limited prescience. In the 6th century, the followers of Theodasius, a deacon of the Alexandrian church, received the same name, from their alleging that Christ was ignorant of certain future events, as, particularly the period of the day of judgment: an hypothesis which they founded on Mark xiii. 32; and were so far of the same sentiment, as the modern Unitarians. Socinus and his associates maintained similar opinions; that God possesses not an infinite knowledge, and cannot have a determinate and certain acquaintance with the future actions of intelligent beings; that he changes his mind, alters his purposes, and adapts his measures to rising circumstances.—*Socini's Opera*, tom. i. 543—9. *Cælius de Deu et ej. Attr.* cap. xxvii.

AGNOMEN, a name often added among the Romans to the three names usually borne by men of noble family; the first of which, called *Pænomen*, distinguished the individual, in a similar way to what is called the Christian name in modern times; the second, or *nomen*, marked his clan; and the third, or *cognomen*, expressed his family. In addition to these, a fourth name was sometimes obtained, on account of some noble action or remarkable quality of the mind: as *Africanus*, the agnomen given to Publius Cornelius Scipio, for his conquests in Africa; or *Cunctator*, given to Quintus Fabius Maximus, for his constantly declining battles, when offered by Hannibal.

The term *Agnomen* was only used when a new name was conferred on those who already had three; for although Romans who had but two names only, frequently obtained a third, characteristic of some signal event of the individual's history, or accomplishment of his mind; it was then called the *Cognomen*. Thus *Caius Mutius*, the young Roman who attempted the life of Porsecano, and failing in the attempt, thrust his right hand into the fire burning before the king, was sur-

AGNES.
—
AG-
NOMEN.

AGNO-
MEN.
—
AGNUS.

named Scrovala, or left-handed; and Titus Pomponius, the friend of Cicero, was called Atticus, for his familiar knowledge of Greek, or for his long residence at Athens.

AGNOMINATE, *v.* } Ad: *nomen*: *nomen*: *no-*
AGNOMINATION. } *two*. Agnomen, in Latin,
is a name to; *i. e.* in addition to.

To name, or call by name. Agnomination is applied to the repetition of words of similar sound: or to allusions founded upon some other fancied resemblance.

— The silver stream
Which, in memorial of victory,
Shall be agnomened by our issue. *Locrine III.*
White is there surfeit for her brow; her forehead; and then sleek,
as the parallel to smooth, that went before. A kind of panemour,
or agnomination: doe you conceive, sir.
Ben Jonson Paraster, act II.

Among other resemblances, one was in their poverty, and vein of
verifying or rhyming, which is like our birds, who hold agnomina-
tion, and enforcing of consonant words, or syllables one upon the
other, to be the greatest elegance. *Howell's Letters.*

AGNUS DEI, literally *The Lamb of God*, in the Church of Rome, is a term applied to certain representations, made in wax, of a lamb, bearing the triumphal banner of the Cross, and similar to those sculptured ornaments so common to most of our old churches and cathedrals. These figures are consecrated by the pope himself, and are distributed, at certain periods, among the people, to be carried in religious processions. The pope first delivers them to the master of the wardrobe, by whom they are given to the cardinals and attending prelates, who receive them in their respective caps and mitres with great form and reverence. From these superior officers and ecclesiastical persons, they are conveyed to inferior priests; and from them they are received by the people at large, who preserve them, generally, in a piece of stuff, or cloth, cut into the shape of a heart. The most intelligent persons of the Catholic persuasion venerate these consecrated memorials simply as they do any other *memorabilia* of the Christian faith; but by the vulgar and superstitious, great mystical virtues are ascribed to them; and they at one time had become articles of sale in most Catholic countries; accordingly, by statute 13 Eliz. c. ii., it was enacted, that those who should "bring into England any *Agnus Dei's*, grains, crucifixes, or other things consecrated by the bishop of Rome, should undergo the penalty of perjury." Indeed, the *Agnus Dei* was never very common in this country, being principally confined to Spain and the more immediate territories of the Papal states, where the Catholic religion was maintained in its greatest pomp and splendour. The figure has always been deemed an appropriate emblem of the triumph of the Cross over the errors and abominations of Paganism; and on that account, has been used as ornaments in most ecclesiastical edifices, both at home and abroad, and by the Reformed as well as by the Roman Catholics. This name is also given to that part of the sacrifice of the mass, where the officiating priest, striking his breast thrice, rehearses the prayer "Agnus Dei," "Lamb of God," &c. and then divides the sacrament into three parts; a practice, it is said, first introduced by Sergius I.; but of this there is considerable doubt: the divisions of the *accidents* was certainly long prior to his pontificate; and as to the song *Agnus Dei*, for any thing that appears, it might have been introduced into

the service by Sergius II. or even by Sergius III. the predecessor of Formosus.

AGO, *a.* } Ago, Agon, Agone, Ygo, were all
AGON, } used as the past participle of the verb,
AGONE, } To go.
Ygox, }
Agoxix. }
Agoin, is, In going.

For in welche cas winnars have as the some
When that his thousands been his own.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, vol. i. p. 111.

This was the old opinion as I rede
I spoke of many hundred years ago.
Id. The IV of Becket Tale, vol. i. p. 260.

Hest thou not heard, how I have ordain'd such a thyng a great
while ago, and have prepared it from the begynning?
Hm. 1535. 4 Kings, chap. xiv.

For right mon on of the fires quiete
And quiked agnia, and after that mon
That other fire was quiete, and all agien.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, vol. i. p. 92.

A clerk that was of Overhille ake,
That unto lyght hadde long age,
Id. The Frolicke. The Clerk, vol. i. p. 12.

4 SAT. Is he such a privately one,
As you spake him long ago?
SILEN. Satyr, he doth fill with grace
Every season, every place;
Breath'd dwells but in his face:
He's the height of all our race.
Ben Jonson's Obscure.

To present this, writ many years ago,
And in that age thought second unto now;
We humbly crave your pardon.
Morley's Jew of Malta. Court Prod.

For now the world is here turn'd upside down, and it hath been
long a going so.
Howell's Letters.

They [criticisms] may on divers occasions help to settle chronology,
and rectify the mistakes of historians that writ many ages ago.
Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

An enthusiast to the birds find personal charms in the rudest
bald that was hawked by the mob three or four hundred years ago.
Wagtail's Anecdotes on Fainting.

Draw Joseph—five and twenty years ago—
Alas how time escapes!—'tis even so—
With frequent intercourse, and always sweet,
And always friendly, we were wont to chat
A tedious hour.
Coopers. To Joseph Hill, Esq.

AGOG, *a.* Gog and Jig have probably the same
meaning, however differently applied; and may be
from the Gothic *Gaggo*, AS. *gangan*, to go, to gang.
Agog is applied to the alert, eager, emotions of hope,
expectation, anticipation.

And worst of all, the women that do go with them, set them
agog that doo torie. *Golden Book, y. d.*

Neither am I come to please thee, or to set the agog with a vain
salutation, but I am come unto thee as a messenger of a matter both
pleasing joyful, & also very great. *Udall. Luke, c. i. fol. 9. c. 2.*

The gaudy gossip when she's set agog,
In jewels dress'd, and in each ear a bob,
Goes bustling out, and in her train of piddle,
Thinks all the ways or chies is justify'd.
Dryden. Jesters. Sat. vi.

They [the gipsies] generally struggle into these parts about this
time of the year, and set the hearts of our servants on agog
for husbands, that we do not expect to have any business done as it
should be whilst they are in the country. *Spectator, N° 120.*

AGOG, in Ancient Music, certain bars of music
which were performed in the gradual descent or ascent
of the regular and approximating notes; as G, A, B,
C, D, E, F, G, or G, F, E, D, C, B, A, G; or, as we are
taught to sing, re, mi fa, sol, la—la, sol, fa, mi, re.

AGNUS.
—
AGOG.

AGON

AGON, *n.*

AGONISTICAL.

AGONISTIC.

AGONIZE.

AGONY.

Agonize and Agony: to those bodily or mental struggles and conflicts which are accompanied by excessive pain.

And he was madd in agonie, and pricke the longer, and his sweat was must as drops of blood pryncinge down into the erthe.

Rich. Lube, chap. xlii.

And he was in an ague, and preyed the longer. And his sweat was lyke dropes of blood, trycklyng downe to y^e ground.

Bibb, 1539. B.

And thus wende she complaineth

Her faire face and all detesteth

With weatill teares her eie,

So that upon this agonie

Her hindee is in come

And sawe how she was overcome

With sorrow, and asketh hir what hir eileth.

Greene, Cos. A. book i.

I, whether lately through her brightness blind,

Or through allcarence and fast fruitie,

Which I do owe unto all women kind,

Feel my heart pearc't with so great agony,

Whoe such I see, that all for paine I could die.

Spenser, Faerie Queene, book i. c. ii.

There have I ailed, and thought it long depriv'd

Thy presence; agony of love till now

Not felt, our shall be twice, for never more

Mean I to try, what rash untied I sought,

The pain of absence from thy sight.

Milton, Paradise Lost, book ii.

These cost themselves into every craft, and peradventure needless agonies, through misconstruction of things spoken about proportioning our griefs to our sin, for which they never think they have wept and mourned enough.

Hobbes's Ecclesiastical Polity.

Commonly, they that, like Sisyphus, roll this restless stone of ambition, are in a perpetual agony.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

— Were faceruptics given

T'inspire a mite, not comprehend the heaven!

Or hence, if tremblingly alive all'er,

To smart and agonize at every pore.

Pope, Essay on Man, essay i.

He frets, he fumes, he starves, he stamps the ground;

The hollow towers with clamours rings around;

With briny tears he bath'd his fever'd face,

And drops all o'er with agony of sweat.

Dryden, Fables and deaths.

It is usual, when the agonies of death approach, to have the mind stupefied, the soul lame and struggling to quit its self from its rancorous habitation, and the whole man so disordered, that there is neither opportunity nor disposition for prayer when we have most need.

Cotton's Companion to the Temple.

Our calling, therefore, doth require great industry; and the business of it consequently is well represented by those performances, which demand the greatest attention, and laborious activity; it is styled exercise, agonistic and ascetic exercise.

Burns's Sermons.

They must do their exercises too, be animated to the agon, and to the combat, as the champions of old.

Saunders's Sermons.

The bitter agonies I underwent in this my first acquaintance with myself were so far from throwing me into despair of that mercy which is over all God's works, that they rather proved motives to greater cleanness in my future conduct.

Guardian, N° 18.

As are all the expressions in the foregoing verse, so is this apparently agonistical, and alludes to the prize yet before, propounded, and offered to them that run in a race, for their encouragement.

Bishop Bull's Sermons.

[An author] Though possessed of fertility to stand unmoved the expected bursts of an earthquake, yet of feelings, so exquisitely poignant as to agonize under the slightest disappointment.

Graham, On the Present State of Public Learning.

VOL. XVII.

AGON.

AGONIS-

TICI

Devoted sport,
That owes it's pleasure to another's pain,
And feeds upon the sob and dying shrieks
Of human nature; doubly, but yet endued
With eloquence that agonies inspire.

Cope's Task, book iii.

The virtue and good intentions of Cato and Brutus are highly laudable; but to what purpose did these and serve? Only to hasten the fatal period of the Roman government, and render its convulsions and dying agonies more violent and painful.

Hume's Essay.

AGON, a town of Normandy, in France, on the northern coast, department of La Manche, arrondissement of Coutances.

AGON, the name of the person who struck the victim at an heathen sacrifice. Ovid, Fast. i. 322, says he stood prepared to perform his office, but first asked the officiating priest Agone? or Agon? to which the priest replied, Hoe Age! which expressions are supposed to have occasioned the name.

AGONALIA, were festivals held at Rome in honour of Janus, or Agonius, in the months of January, May, and December; Ovid derives the name from Agon, the title of the priest who slew the victim. Fast. i. v. 322. They were instituted by Numa.

AGONES, in Antiquity, were the contests of which the public games consisted. They were first instituted by the Greeks; and such were chiefly adopted as tended to cherish personal vigour and the national courage; as wrestling, boxing, running, &c. But there were others, in which the poets, musicians, and learned men entered into competition, or gave specimens of their several accomplishments. The most noted games in Greece, were the Olympian, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian.

Of these, the first was celebrated with the greatest marks of national rejoicing, and its return, every fifth year, became an era by which were computed the events of history. The Olympian games were instituted about 1200 years before Christ. The victors in these games received a branch of palm, or crown of laurel; but the great reward for which they strove was public fame; and the story related by Cicero, Tus. lib. i. c. 46, after Plutarch, shows how blest they were thought who obtained this; for a Lacedæmonian meeting Anaxagoras (himself in his youth a victor, and who now saw his two sons crowned at the games), exclaimed to him, "Now die, Anaxagoras, for you cannot be a god." Among the literary men who exhibited their abilities at these games, Herodotus is conspicuous, both for having recited his history there, and for having thus roused to emulation the young Thucydides who heard him. The emperor Nero instituted games of a similar kind among the Romans, called Neronia, which were celebrated every fifth year; and consisted of contests in music, wrestling, and horse-racing. Tacitus, l. xiv. c. 20. Another was established by Aurelian, named the Agon Solis, or "Contests of the Sun; and a third by Dioclesian, called Agon Capitolinus. At this last the poet Statius recited his Thebaid.

AGONISMA, the name of the prize with which the victor at the Grecian contests (Agones) was presented; generally, a branch of palm, or crown of laurel.

PINDAR, Pythion, ode viii. ver. 28.

AGONISTICI, in Ecclesiastical History (*aywos, combat*), a name given by Donatus, to certain members of his sect who were sent to preach at the fairs and markets,

2 F

AGONIS-
TICI.
—
AGOWS.

to subjugate the people, as it were, by the strength of their arguments.

AGONOTIETES, were the officers who sat as umpires at the Grecian games. They took care that the contests should be performed according to custom; settled all disputes which arose; and decided to whom the prizes should be awarded.

AGONOUS (*a priv. yorec*, offspring), in Botany, barren, not producing seed or fruit. It was applied by Hippocrates to barren women.

AGONNA, or AGOONA, a district or kingdom, on the Gold coast of Africa; extending about 20 miles eastward from Acron to the frontiers of the kingdom of Aquamboe. The climate of this district is said to be more salubrious than in most other parts of the coast; but the late predatory excursions and inroads of the Asantees, who are, it is believed, still pursuing their conquests along the coast, have greatly reduced the population of Agonna. The natives, perhaps, about nine or ten thousand in number, carry on a trade with various tribes of the interior, and with a few Europeans, in gold. The district contains some good towns, of which the chief are, Agoona, Winnebuh, Fattah, and Berracoe. At Winnebuh is a small English fort, but Berracoe is the most considerable town of this district; and here the Dutch have a fort, mounting 12 pieces of cannon.

AGONYCLITE, or AGONYCLITES (*from a, yorec*, knee, and *klaw*, to bend), in Ecclesiastical History, a sect in the 7th century, who held it improper to bend the knee, and whose practice it was to perform their devotions in a standing posture.

AGORÆUS, in Ancient Mythology, one of the names of Mercury (*ayepa*, a market), from statues of this god being frequently to be found in market places.

AGO'OD, *a*. In good. In Shakespeare:—In good contrast.

And at that time, I made her weep *agood*,
For I did play a lamentable part.
(*Madam*) 'Twas Ariadne poisoning
For Theseus perjury and unjust flight.
Shakespeare. Two Gent. Fer. act iv. sc. 4.

AGORANOMI, in Ancient Customs, were magistrates appointed at Athens to overlook the markets and prevent frauds. Some make their number ten, and assign five to Athens and five to the harbor, Piræus. Others say there were fifteen, and that ten were employed at Athens and five at the Piræus. A certain toll was allowed them of whatever was brought to market.

AGOWS, an ancient and very remarkable people of Abyssinia, inhabiting a province bounded by the mountains Amid Amid, on the E. by Buré, Umbarna, and the Gongas on the W.; by Damot and Gafat on the S. and by Dingleber on the N. This district, though not very extensive, being only about 60 miles in length, and not more than half that number in breadth, is extremely rich and populous. The Agows are able, in time of war, to bring into the field an army of 4000 cavalry, and a much greater force of infantry. The Tcheretz Agows, a distinct tribe, inhabit a district N. of the river Tacaze. These tribes are shorter and stouter, though not so active as the rest of the Abyssinians, and but partially subdued to the kings of that country. It was not till the 17th century that any portion of this people were emancipated from the shackles of Paganism. Before that time, they were universally worshippers of the Nile, and a great

AGOWS.
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AGRA.

portion of them still observe a religious festival annually, on the appearance of the dog-star, in honour of the genius of the Nile; at which they sacrifice a black heifer, eat the carcass raw, drinking with it the waters of the Nile, and burning the bones to ashes. The head is then carried into a cavern, said to reach below the springs of the river, and various mysterious ceremonies performed there. Such of them as have listened to the calls of the Christian doctrine have become more than ordinarily zealous in the practice and profession of Christianity. They principally adhere to an independent sect of Christians, called Christians of St. Thomas, of whom there are great numbers in other parts of Abyssinia. Their trade is very extensive, and is carried on chiefly in cattle, wheat, honey, butter, hides, and wax, with which they supply the surrounding districts and provinces, particularly Gondar, the capital of Abyssinia. From 1000 to 1500 at a time come in succession to Gondar, loaded with the produce of their industry. They have thus often to traverse several extensive plains, above 100 miles at a time, under a cloudless sky and a vertical sun, loaded with immense quantities of butter, which they preserve from melting or putrefaction by the root of a herb called moemora, which they bruise and mix up, in small quantities, with their butter, by which it is kept fresh for a considerable time. These people differ in many particulars from the other Abyssinians, besides in those which have already been mentioned. They dress in a kind of soft leather, being the skins of beasts manufactured in a manner unknown to the other tribes. Their dress consists of a long gown or shirt, fastened about the waist by a belt, and reaching down to their feet. Their houses, for the most part, are in groups, or small collections, and to almost every one of these there is a kind of subterranean vault, or cave dug behind it. In these caves they occasionally reside; a custom which probably had its origin in the ancient practice of troglodytism; though it does not appear that the Abyssinians generally ever had any occasion to dwell in caves, from fear either of invading enemies or of persecution. The females among these tribes arrive at the age of puberty very early in life, being frequently married and bearing children as early as eleven years of age, and generally ceasing to do so before thirty. Their language also is described by Mr. Salt as differing very much from the common dialects of Abyssinia. That intelligent traveller represents it as not unlike in its sound to some of our own provincial dialects. They are sometimes spoken of by travellers as divided into two tribes, the Tcheretz Agows, from Tchern, a town and district near Lasta and Bergemder, and the Agows of Damot.

AGRA, in Ancient Geography, a place on the banks of Hissus, near Athens, where the lesser Eleusinian mysteries were celebrated. Here was a temple to Diana, who was surnamed Agrea; and the beauty of the spot induced Plato to make it the scene of his Phædrus.

AGRA, a very extensive province of Hindostan, being about 250 miles in length, and 180 in breadth, and containing, besides the fortress of Gualior, several cities and towns of considerable importance. It is bounded on the N. by the province of Delhi; by Malwaff on the S.; by Oude and Allahabad, on the E.; and by Ameer on the W. It is watered by the rivers Ganges, Jumna, and Chumbul; and is, for the

AGRA. It contains, under the government of the British, 10 parts, contains thirteen circars or counties, subdivided into 200 hundreds, or parganahs, 40 large towns, and 340 villages. Its products are sugar, indigo, Indian corn, with some marble and copper. The city of Agra, s, called by Mahomedans Akbarabad, is the capital and the chief seat of the British government. This city stands on the S.W. banks of the Jumna, and was originally only a village; but having been greatly enlarged by the Emperor Sekunder Lodhy, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, it received the appellation and honours of an imperial city, at that time called Badalghur. About fifty years after its foundation the Emperor Akbar erected a magnificent palace here, and gave the city its own name, which name it retained till it received its present one of Agra. When the Emperor Shah Jehan, A. D. 1647, chose the city of Delhi for his capital, Agra became greatly reduced in importance; and afterwards, when the restless Aurungzeb assumed the crown of Mysore, he converted the city and palace of Agra into a prison for his father. The reader will find the details of this emperor's proceedings amply treated in the recent History of the South of India, by Lieut. Col. Mark Wilks. The houses, which are built of stone, are very lofty, but are in a ruinous state, and the streets are extremely narrow. On the opposite side of the river Jumna, is one of the most stately mausoleums in the world. It was built by Shah Jehan, for the cemetery of his wife, and is said to have cost the enormous sum of 750,000, sterling. It is constructed of white marble, and is inlaid with several precious stones. In the year 1784 Agra was seized by the Mahratta chief Madadjee Sindia; by whom, it seems, it was held until the year 1803, when was taken by the troops of the East-India company, under the command of Lord Lake. The ancient castle and palace, though now much reduced from their former greatness, deserve particular notice. There are several inferior palaces, standing in a line contiguous to the principal one. These were formerly occupied by great lords and others attached to the imperial court. This city abounds in public baths, caravansaries, and mosques, and some of them of considerable extent. The indigo of the subah, or province, of which this city was the capital, is reckoned superior in quality to any other produced in the East Indies; besides which, there are several manufactures of gold and silver lace, silk, and fine cotton goods.

AGRAMEDY. AS. Erynman, sævire, fremere. To rage, to roar.

And if a man be falsely famed
And well make purgation
Then wol the officers be agreed
And assigne him fro toun to toun
So nedde he muste pay ransome
Though he be cleane as is christall
And then haue an absolucion
But all such fals shal foule fall.

Chaucer, *The Plowman's Tale*, *Swicht*, fol. 92, col. 3.

AGRA'RIAN, *adj.* } Agrarius; Agrestes; from
AGRE'STICK. } Ager, a field.
Agrarian is applied to the distribution of fields or
lands.

Agrestick, to that which is rustic, rude, unpolished. Agrarias laws, began to be promulgated within three and twenty years, and continued to the end of the commonwealth to produce the same disorders. *Bellinghrook's Dissertation upon Parity.*

AGRARIAN LAWS, in Roman Antiquity, laws which had for their object the equal distribution, among the citizens, of the lands which fell to Rome by conquest.

As all the territory in Italy and elsewhere, which the Romans held, had become their's by the rights of war, and as the Patricians had possessed themselves of large tracts of land in this way, it met from them the most strenuous opposition; and being a measure which would give a great accession of wealth and political importance to the commons, it became the subject of violent contests between the nobles and the people in general.

The first Agrarian law was proposed by the Consul Sp. Cassius, *v.c.* 267; but by artfully representing to the commons that his aim was the subversion of liberty, the Patricians effected his ruin. *Livy*, *l. i. c.* 41.

Many laws for the division of conquered countries, or the limitation of the quantity of land an individual should possess, were afterwards proposed; among which were the *Lex Licinia*, forbidding any one to possess more than 500 acres, whose author was the first that incurred the penalty. This was passed v. c. 386; the *Lex Flaminiæ*, v. c. 525; *Lex Sempronii Primi*, v. c. 620, and *Secunda*, in the same year; *Lex Cornelia*, v. c. 673; *Lex Servilia*, v. c. 690; *Lex Julii*, v. c. 691. The tribunes of the people frequently brought forward the topic of the Agrarian laws as a means of lessening the power of the Patricians, and of commending themselves to those who had elevated them. Thus *Rullus* proposed a law of this kind, which was prevented from passing by *Cicero*. *Videtur Orat. de lege Agraria*.

AGREDA, a city of South America, province of Popayan, 42 leagues from Quito, and 37 east of the South sea; also a frontier town of some strength in Old Castile, Spain, on the side of Navarre.

AGREE. n.

AGREABILITY,
AGREABLE,
AGREABLENESS,
AGREABLY,
AGREED,
AGREING,
AGREINGLY,
AGREMENT.

Fr. *Agrier*, Grè. From Gratum, says Menage. To accord, to suit, to concur, to please; to become friends. Agree is used by Chaucer, adverbially.

And if that at mine owne lust I beenne
From where cometh my wailing & my plaint
If harme agree me, wherto plaine I thenne
I lost, no why, sayers that I trust

Chaucer, *The first booke of Troilus*, fol. 154, col. 2.

Whom I ne founde forward ne fell
But take agree all whole my pleie.

Id. R. of R. to. 156, col. 3.

But I offer me, les the fatis vnstabill,
Nor Jupiter consent not, ne aggre,
But that are ciets to Tyrrania sold be.

Douglass, book iv, p. 103.

All fortune is blisful to a man, by the agreeableness or by the equality of him that suffereth it.

Chaucer. *Berius*, book ii, fol. 718, col. 1.

Than ilk man smertle tastis the wyne at tabor,
Pray and thare Goddis to be aggraud.

Langens, book viii. p. 250.

Knoweth this child, al be it false or false

And eke my wif, unto him home coming :

Crise what him that may senden me an heire,

Chance. *The Man of Letters Tale*, vol. I, p. 200.

212

AGREE.
—
AGRI-
CULTU-
RAL
IMPLE-
MENTS.

Then it is well seen, how wretched is the selfishness of mortal things that neither is dartsly perceived with him, that every fortune receives agreeably or equally, as it delights not in all to him that has anguishous. *Chaucer. Boecius, book ii. fol. 111. col. 1.*

This house [Synon's in Bethany] procreant into vs, the agreeing, and friendly fellowship of the church; the which being vicious, be washed and purified with his precious blood. *Cliff. Mark, c. xiv. fol. 84. c. 1.*

And thus the covenant that ye made wth death, shall be dissolved; and your agreement that ye made with hell, shall not stand. *Bible, 1:59. Isaiah, c. xlviii.*

For my spirit agreeth not with the spirit of this world, and his desire is wholly against the affections of them, which love the things that be of this world. *Cliff. Matthew, c. xxviii.*

They chauc^d upon an hill not farne away,

Scarcely flock of sheepe and shepherds to agay;

To whom they both agreed to take their way;

To hope there never to leave, how they made best away.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. c. xl.

God be thank'd, we agree thoroughly together in the whole substance of the religion of Christ.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

Thus one by one, kindling each other's fire

Till all inflamed, they all at once expire;

All resolute to prosecute their ire,

Seeking their own, and country's cause to free.

Daniel. Civil War, book iii.

At last he met two knights to him unknowne,

The which were armed both agreeably,

And both coumb'd, what new chancie were betweene

Between them to divide, and each to make his owne.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. c. vii.

Men's passions, and God's directions seldom agree.

Lilien Basilide.

To speak agreeably to him with whom we deal, is more than to speak in good words, or in good order.

Bacon's Essay on Discourse.

The primates had authoritie over other inferior bishops I grant; they had so. How be it, they had it by agreement, and custome; but neither by Christ, nor by Peter or Paul, nor by any right of God's word.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

Men take words to be the constant regular marks of agreed notions, which in truth are no more but the voluntary and unsteady signs of their own ideas.

Locke's Essay on Human Understanding.

As nothing that is agreeable to us can be painful at the same time, and as such, nor any thing disagreeable pleasant, by the same; so neither can any thing agreeable be for that reason (because it is agreeable) not pleasant, nor any thing disagreeable not painful, in some measure or other.

Wicliffe's Religion of Nature.

Agreeably to which, St. Austin, disputing against the Donatists, contendeth most earnestly.

Shelden. On the Miracles of Antichrist.

The immediate perception of the agreement, or disagreement, of two ideas, is when, by the intervention of one or more other ideas, their agreement, or disagreement, is shown.

Locke's Essay on Human Understanding.

Mr. Locke observes, the names of a species denotes those qualities wherein a set of individuals agree selected from those wherein they may differ.

The motives which the heathens had to the practice of their duty, were generally, drawn by their least notions of a deity, from the agreeableness of virtuous actions to human nature, and from the advantage and necessity of them to society.

Percival's Sermons.

What would I not give, to have you read Demosthenes critically in the morning, and understand him better than any body; at noon, behave yourself better than any person at court; and, in the evening, trifle more agreeably than any body in mixed company.

Chatterfield. Letter cxviii.

This general agreement of the actors is yet more evident on minutely considering those of taste and smell.

Burke. On the Sublime and Beautiful.

Politics and the pulpit are terms that have little agreement.

Ed. On the French Revolution.

In short, so provoking a devil was Dick,

We wald^d him fall ten times a day at old Nick;

But missing his mirth and agreeable vein,

As often we wish to have Dick back again.

Goldsmith. Retaliation.

AGREVE, ST., the principal town in a canton of the modern department of the Ardèche, arrondissement of Tournon, in France. It contains upwards of 2500 inhabitants; is 74 leagues N.W. of Privas, and stands at the foot of the mountains in Vivarais.

AGRIANES, a river of Thrace, mentioned by Herodotus, which gave name to a people of the neighbourhood.

AGRICULTURE, *a.* } Ager; a field; colo-
AGRICULTURAL, } cultum. The culture of
AGRICULTURIST. } tillage of land.

Trade yields the sword, and agriculture leaves

Her half-tam'd fowls; or other harvest foe

A soldier's avenger, avenger of wrongs.

Young. Reflections on the Kingdom.

Mechanic arts, as agriculture, manufactures, &c. will indeed be discouraged, where the profits and property are, from the nature of the government, insecure.

Chatterfield. Letter cxlvi.

By giving a sort of monopoly of the home market to its own merchants, artificers, and manufacturers, it raises the rate of mercantile and manufacturing profit, in proportion to that of agricultural profit; and, consequently, draws from agriculture a part of the capital which had before been employed in it.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Among the various directions of modern science its application to agricultural pursuits is most important. Some branches of study are rather curious than useful, and others are so purely intellectual as to be adapted to the understanding of only a small portion of mankind; but the science of Agriculture must be in all countries, and all ages of the world, the first in practical utility. We shall not hesitate to assign to AGRICULTURE that extended consideration, in this work, which we conceive it to demand:—amongst the Applied Sciences, its principles as a science, and its rules as an art,

will come under review. Our design in the present paper is more strictly practical—to give a sketch of the history of these essential and preparatory IMPLEMENTS which are used for the cultivation of the ground. Upon these so much attention has been bestowed in modern times, that to describe them, in a regular treatise on the science, might require a disproportionate space.

We do not here, therefore, think it necessary to describe all the varieties of implements of any one kind. For if we were to instance only the plough, the

AGRI-
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MENTS.

first and most simple implement in its origin, and carry our speculations to all the improvements and various species of this useful machine, we might find matter for a long treatise. Still the various alterations in their parts, with a view to lightness of draught, cheapness and durability of construction, and excellence of workmanship, are subjects of importance, and must be noticed, so far as they tend to adapt the implement to the working of different soils with advantage.

§ 1 Of the plough.

The plough is an implement, which was originally contrived to do the work of a spade, and was probably invented after the introduction of tillage, correctly so called. The existing practice in some countries, and the tenderness and fertility of some lands in warm climates, show, that cutting or scratching the surface was the original preparation for crops, which were then probably set in rows, and tilled by hand, during their growth, as Indian corn still is, in climates which are adapted to it.

There is not, perhaps, any human invention that more highly merits our utmost endeavours to bring it to perfection, than this simple and useful machine. It has been, however, neglected by some persons who have devoted their attention to machinery, as a rude tool, unworthy of regard; hastily conceiving that any instrument may accomplish the clumsy task of turning up the ground; and that there cannot be much accuracy required in a business which is successfully performed by the ignorant peasant. Others acknowledge the value of the implement, and the difficulty of adapting it to various soils; but they think that difficult insuperable, because the operation is in some measure complicated, and the resistances to be overcome so uncertain, or so little understood. Hence they have concluded, that little of unequivocal principle can be connected with the instrument, and that we must look for improvement only from experience or chance.

The operations of the plough are accomplished not by digging, but by its beam pulled along. It does not therefore reduce the ground to that friable and uniform state into which we can bring it with a spade, but it so far effects the same object, that the ordinary operations of the seasons will complete the task. For this purpose the plough is furnished with parts to penetrate the ground, and cut away a slice, or sod, from the firm land. This sod must be removed to one side, that the plough and the ploughman may proceed in their labour; the sod must be turned over, so that the grass and stubble may be buried and rot, and that fresh soil may be brought to the surface; and the whole must be left in such a loose and open condition, that it may easily crumble down, by the influence of the weather, without baking into lumps, or retaining water. Those parts of a plough which cut the ground are called the coulter, and the share (see plate II). The coulter is a large knife, which cuts in a vertical plane, making a simple incision in the earth. The share, which follows after the coulter, is sharp at the point, and cuts in an horizontal plane, in order to undercut that portion of the earth which is already severed laterally from the adjoining land by the coulter; this portion of earth is called the sod. As the share advances, its edge passes horizontally under the sod, lifts it up, and forces it away from the solid land; for this purpose the

share is made to thicken from its cutting edge in the manner of a wedge. The mould-board is a curved surface, forming in some measure a continuation of the wedge of the share; the inclination of its surface is in a continual increase, as it recedes from the point or cutting part of the share, and its office is to push the sod aside and turn it over. The force requisite to draw the plough through the ground must not be applied immediately to the share or to the coulter, because the share would then have no tendency to proceed in a right line with its point forwards; but to ensure this, the coulter, share, and mould-board are firmly fixed to one end of a beam six or seven feet long, and the cattle draw from the other end. Lastly, to guide the plough, a long lever or handle, called the stilt, is affixed to the beam, and extends a long way behind the share, by this the ploughman guides or steers the plough, and makes it advance in a straight line with the same facility as a sailor steers a ship.

The above parts are essential to all ploughs which are required to cut a sod and turn it over. That side of the plough which is towards the solid unploughed land is called the land side; it is an even perpendicular plane. The other side of the plough, where the mould-board is fixed, is called the furrow side; this is usually the right hand side in common ploughs. The lower part of the share is called the sole of the plough, and is a flat horizontal surface, which slides along the bottom of the furrow or trench from which the earth is cut up. Many ploughs have wheels applied to the beam to run upon the ground and keep the beam always steady, and to cause the share to cut to the same depth. This introduces the distinction of swing ploughs and wheel ploughs, the former being simply drawn through the ground by the horses, depending upon the guidance of the ploughman, to cut in a straight line and to an equal depth; the wheels form a sort of carriage to guide the plough in respect to depth. Some ploughs have a rude rod stump or foot to bear on the ground without any wheel.

Having given a general idea of the essential parts of a plough, we may proceed to describe the different varieties delineated in plate II.

SWING PLOUGHS.—The *Rotherham plough*, see plate II. is a very useful swing plough much used in the northern parts of England. This plough is of the most simple structure, and is so nearly according to the description which we have already given, that the reader will identify all its parts. The beam is rather curved, and has a piece of iron-work at the extremity to receive the chain by which the horses draw; this is called the rack, cock, or draft-hook. It admits of placing the hook by which the horses draw, either higher or lower, so as to change the point of draft, and dispose the share of the plough to penetrate deeper into the ground; or the point can be changed to the right or left, and will dispose the coulter to cut a wider or narrower sod: the proper adjustment of this point is most important in a swing plough, and the straightness of the course depends upon it. The coulter passes through the beam of the plough in the mortise, and is fastened in by wedges; it must be adjusted so as to line exactly with the plane of the land side of the plough. The share and mould-board are affixed to the beam by two pieces which are mortised into the beam and stand in a sloping direction. The

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lower ends of these are again mortised into an horizontal piece of wood called the sole, or sock, and to this the share, or head, is fixed, so that its point and cutting edge projects forwards. The lower side of the sole is flat, and is plated with iron; the share is fixed to the sole, so that it can be readily removed to sharpen it; the mould-board is firmly fixed to the inclined pieces which support the sole, and the most advanced part of the mould-board forms an inclined edge, which is called the breast of the plough. Two handles are fixed behind the plough, one of them receives a tension at the end of the beam, and the lower end enters a mortise in the hinder part of the sole; the other handle is fixed at the side behind the mould-board and is steadied by two braces.

Various
other
ploughs.

The *Dutch plough* is another name for the Rotherham plough, as it is supposed to have been brought originally from Holland.

The *Scotch swing plough* is very similar to the *Rotherham plough*, except some slight difference in the curvature of the beam and in the form of the mould-board, which very little affects its operations. It is also sometimes called the *Dervickschire plough*.

Small's plough is a swing plough, like the *Scotch plough*, only an oblique brace is applied from the beam to the coulter, to hold it firm at the required angle. This plough takes its name from the author of a Treatise on Plough-Making, published in 1784; in which he lays down rules for the proportions of its parts. It is also called the *chain plough*, because a chain is extended from the rack at the end of the beam, to a hook near the coulter, and thus strengthens the beam.

The *Argyleshire plough* is a simple swing plough; and the only variation from what we have already described is, that it acts without a coulter; instead of which, a large flat plate is fixed to the share, in a vertical plane, corresponding with the land side of the plough; and the advanced edge of this is sharpened to cut the ground. The object of this change is to remove the resistance necessary to make the vertical incision farther back from the point of draft, than if a coulter were used; and also to avoid the chocking of the plough by weeds and rubbish, which sometimes lodge before the coulter, beneath the beam. The *Argyleshire plough* has a rod of iron in place of the chain of the chain plough, to strengthen the beam; it is attached at one end to the middle of the beam, and connected at the other end with the rack from which the horses draw. In some ploughs two iron rods are used, and they extend quite to the end of the beam, and are attached to a hook near the handles.

Wheel
ploughs.

WHEEL PLOUGH.—When one or two wheels are applied at the foremost extremity of the beam of a plough it proceeds in its work very steadily, and may be managed by a less skilful ploughman. Wheels seem to have been applied from a want of expertness in the ploughman, and are no way necessary in lands which are of an uniform texture; but in stony and uneven land, wheels will prevent the plough from being put out of its course by small obstructions. It is a very common fault of ploughmen who work wheel ploughs, to set the point of the share so that it continually tends to go deeper into the earth, and to depend upon the wheels to bear up the beam in opposition to this tendency. An adroit ploughman can thus rest himself by bearing part of his weight on the handles, and in this way the plough works very steadily, but with a great increase of draft,

for the ploughman spares himself at the expense of his cattle: with a swing plough this cannot be done. Some ploughs, instead of a wheel in front, have only a perpendicular iron stem fixed to the beam, with a knob or foot at the lower end to slide along the ground as the plough advances, and bear up the end of the beam; but this is an awkward substitute for the wheel, and works with great friction.

The comparative properties and advantages of wheel and swing ploughs demand a few remarks. A plough which goes in front upon wheels, must be impelled by a smaller force than one which goes upon a sliding foot; but the degree of this will depend upon the dip of the share, and the force with which the implement is inclined to enter the ground. As wing ploughs, with neither foot nor wheel, will go still easier, and be the complete implement, because its construction ensures that it shall be set to go level at a certain depth, or at least it has so moderate an inclination to dip that it is easily balanced by the ploughman; whereas the wheel and foot ploughs are commonly set so that they would plunge themselves up to the beam in a free soil, if not supported in front. This being the case, it will appear very natural that wheel and foot ploughs should have been adopted on light and deep soils where the draft was easy, and others on stiff and heavy land.

Sir John Sinclair observes, in his Code of Agriculture, that neither good mechanics nor noble ploughmen can ever become numerous, while their ignorance or their unskilfulness can be so easily remedied, as by adding wheels to the plough. Owing to these objections, wherever attentive and expert ploughmen can be had, wheel ploughs have been given up, as expensive and cumbersome. In setting a wheel plough to work, the same care should be used as in a swing plough to adjust the point of draft, so that the beam shall not bear any weight upon the wheel, unless some obstruction, as a root, or a stone, tend to divert the plough from its course, when it will soon recover itself again, but a swing plough requires a greater effort of the workman to recover its course.

The simple wheel plough.—The most obvious mode of applying a single wheel to any plough, is to make an iron axle to the wheel, with a stem bent up from it in a perpendicular direction; this stem being fitted in a mortise through the beam, in the same manner as the coulter, it can be fastened therein by wedges or cross pins so as to admit of supporting the beam at any required height; a wheel of this kind may be applied to any swing plough when it is found necessary; and if two wheels are required, each one may have a separate stem in order to place them at different heights, and adapt one wheel to run upon the solid land, whilst the other runs in the furrow; but when two wheels are required, it is better to place the wheels at the opposite ends of a strong iron or wooden axle-tree; to the middle of this axle-tree a stem is jointed, and the stem is made to pass through a mortise in the end of the beam of the plough: this is called the plough carriage.

The *Old Norfolk plough* is shown in plate II. The fore-end of the beam of this plough is elevated very much, and is supported in the carriage, which consists of two wheels and an axle-tree, with two upright stems of wood erected upon it to receive the plough-beam between them; the beam bears upon the bolster, which

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is a piece fitted between the two uprights, and capable of being fixed at any height by pins passing through holes in the uprights. The plough is attached to the carriage by a strong iron link, which passes round the beam near the middle of its length, and also by a chain on the top of the beam, which is fastened to the top of the carriage. The draft is taken from a rack fixed in front of the axle-tree, which admits of regulating the point of draft, sideways.

Norfolk
plough.

The improved Norfolk plough is shown at the bottom of the same plate, in a view from the land side, but all the other ploughs are viewed from the furrow side. This plough is very similar to its original, but it is put together in a better manner, by the assistance of iron work. The share is united to the beam by a plate of cast iron; and the coulter is wedged into an iron socket at the side of the beam, without weakening the beam by a mortise. At the top of the uprights of the carriage are eyes to conduct the reins by which the ploughman guides his horses.

The Kentish turn-wrest plough, or right and left-handed plough, is sometimes made with wheels and a carriage, like the Norfolk plough, but in a smaller and more compact form; and at others, with only a foot or supporting iron in front. The beam is straight, very long, and thick. The peculiarity of this plough is, that it can be made to throw the sod to either side; whereas the common ploughs uniformly turn over the furrow to the right-hand side of the plough. The share is very long, and tapers in thickness; but its horizontal width is the same at the point as at the heel. Instead of a mould-board, a clumsy log of wood is affixed to the share, by a hook at the fore end, and is held at a given degree of obliquity, by an iron brace or stay, which is only fixed by hooking it into its place. This piece of wood forms the wedge which is to remove and turn the soil, which the coulter and share have cut up. It can readily be removed from the plough and fixed on either side; and it will throw the sod over on that side where it is fixed, because the share itself is parallel, and does not form part of the wedge. The share is usually square at the end, with a cutting edge like a chisel, from four to seven inches wide. As the coulter must always be in the line of that side of the share which is to go against the solid land, it is fitted into a mortise in the beam, with as much play as is necessary to incline its point to the right or left, and make it line with either side of the share. A strong wooden lever is also made to act upon that part of the coulter which projects through the mortise above the beam, by which the coulter can be forced to either side at pleasure, and retained where it is placed.

A turn-wrest plough is very useful for working on the side of steep hills, or in a diagonal direction where the sod or furrow-slice may be turned to the lower side. The turn-wrest plough used in Scotland is described by Mr. Andrew Gray in the Engravings of Scotch Implements, published by the Board of Agriculture.

Duckett's skin-coulter plough, is a swing plough, with a small cutter or share, called a skin, affixed to the coulter, and projecting on one side, in order to skim the surface; that is, to pare off a thin turf. The skin is made of iron plate, sharp at the most advanced edge, and bent so as to turn the turf sideways, and throw it into the bottom of the preceding furrow. The

share and mould-board of the plough, which follow the skin, cut up a large sod and turn it over upon the turf, so as to bury it. The only difference between this and the common plough is, that the coulter is advanced farther before the share, because, in the common position for the coulter, it would chock when in work. When the skin coulter is removed and a common coulter applied, the plough is used for common work. Sometimes the skin coulter is applied to a common plough, before the common coulter: in that case the skin coulter does not cut into the ground any deeper than is necessary to remove the superficial turf.

The paring plough (see plate II.) is a swing plough, with a wide share, adapted to cut up a thin sod of turf from the surface, in order to burn it, for the improvement of the land; an operation which is very extensively practised in some districts. The figure shows, that the cutting edge of the share is very wide, and the mould-board has less curvature than some other ploughs. Instead of a coulter, a circular plate of iron is employed, steeled on the edge and made sharp, so as to cut into the turf to the requisite depth. This is called a scuffer, or wheel coulter, on account of its revolving motion; it makes less resistance than a common fixed coulter; but it could not be used to cut to the depth necessary for common ploughing. This is often called the Lincolnshire plough (being much used in that county, the Isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire, &c.) but more usually, the horse paring-plough, to distinguish it from the breast-plough, which is a simple implement, like a large shovel, with a sharp cutting edge in front, and worked by a man, who pushes it before him.

For paring, the irons are kept very sharp with a file, and the plough is set to go *keen*; that is, the share is beaten thin, and set a little dipping; the foot adjusts the depth, and presses firmly on the ground; the circular blade of iron must also be kept very sharp, and made to run very true, and very near to the share, where it divides the sod, as the share raises it from the land side. The sods thus turned over are from an inch to an inch and a half in thickness, and in a few days, in favourable weather, are dry enough to burn. The paring plough will not work on a hard surface.

Lord Somerville's patent double furrow plough, see plate II. has the beam curved, as the figure plainly shows, so that the line of the land side, of the most advanced share and coulter, is removed from the line of the other as much as the breadth of the furrow which is to be cut, by either of them; and the sod which the last share cuts, is turned over into the furrow opened by the first share. The coulters of this plough are braced by oblique irons, which makes them very strong, and they are double edged; the extreme part of the mould-board is moveable, and its obliquity can be increased or diminished at pleasure to turn over the sod in a greater or less degree as the farmer may require. His lordship's patent was principally for this improvement, which he also applied to a very useful awing plough which bears his name; but which is, in other respects, very much like Small's plough.

Duckett's trenching plough, and Benman's patent plough, are double ploughs, but both shares follow in the same line, and plough at two depths.

Three, four, and five-furrow ploughs are very numerous among agricultural speculations, but as we do

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not know that any are in actual use, we shall not detain the reader to describe them.

Ancient Roman plough. Fig. 1, plate II. represents an ancient Roman plough; which Mr. Spence (the author of *Polymetis*) has produced, with great confidence, from a brass figure in the Jesuits College at Rome, as answering, in the principal part of it (the shaft), to Virgil's description (*Georgics*, l. i 163—175) of the "heavy-timbered plough:"

"*Vomis, et laeviter priusquam grave robur arat.*"

and is given in this work as affording some proof of what is supposed to be the case with the first ploughs, namely, that they were constructed to *tear up* the soil, but were not adapted to *turn it over*. An implement of a similar description has been lately proposed for breaking up old roads or stony foundations, and might perhaps be used to plough with advantage on some heavy soils, when the lands get too hard before the fallows can be broken up. On this subject we shall have more to offer under the head *FALLOWING*, in the article *AGRICULTURE*.

The binot is a better implement for the purpose above contemplated. Sir John Sinclair, in "The Husbandry of the Netherlands," has described this implement, which, from the nature of its action, comes nearest to the Roman plough; and for utility and convenience is infinitely superior to it. The beam is supported at the fore-end by two wheels, with an axle-tree and pole for the horses to draw by, similar to the fore-wheels of a wagon on a small scale: there is no coulter, and there are two mould-boards, one on each side of the beam; but these are not like the mould-boards of other ploughs, being only inclined planes, forming a continuation of the wedge of the share: the whole implement is a wedge, which is drawn through the ground and makes a cut or fissure, raising the earth on each side in small ridges. There is one handle or lever behind for the purpose of guiding the plough, and in the front a staff is raised up to conduct the reins by which the ploughman can guide the horses. This implement has been considerably improved in England.

The double-breasted or double mould-board plough is very similar to the binot in its manner of action, but is made in a lighter manner, and on a more simple construction.

The miner is very similar to the binot.

On the structure of ploughs.

From the above sketch of the different kinds of ploughs, our readers may gain a general idea of their construction; and we must now enter somewhat more fully into the best proportions of some one kind of plough, from which rules may be laid down generally applicable to the rest.

The chief requisites of a good plough are, that it should easily penetrate the earth, cutting both vertically and horizontally, with the least possible expence of labour, and that it should afterwards raise the sod so cut from its primitive bed, to an angle gradually ascending from the advanced point of the share, along the mould-board, or furrow side of the plough, till the earth reaches a proper elevation. When turning over to its new place of rest, its descent also should be so influenced, by the form of the plough, as to make it fall gradually, and in such a manner, that it shall disturb as little as possible the motion of the hinder parts

of the implement. The chief object in ploughing is to expose the greatest surface of earth to the influence of the sun and atmosphere, and to furnish the greatest quantity of mould for covering the seed. And it is evident from the property of right-angled triangles, that the furrow whose depth is about two-thirds of its width, and laid to make an angle of 45 degrees with the horizon, will expose the greatest surface possible, and produce the greatest quantity of mould. The position in which the sod will lie, when cut and turned over, depends on the proportion between the breadth and depth of the furrow, and not on the form of the mould-board; because every sod when turned over, bears against the sod preceding it. Hence it appears that the position of the sod depends very much on the judgment of the ploughman, in properly proportioning the breadth and depth of the furrow.

Plate IV. Fig. 1, *AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS*, is a section of a ridge or load twelve feet wide, properly ploughed in furrows, each of which is nine inches wide, and four inches and a half deep. Here it is evident that not only the surface is increased, but also the depth of the staple, which greatly extends the pasture of plants.

A fundamental maxim in the construction of ploughs is, that the land side, as well as the sole, must present plane surfaces, intersecting each other at right angles; for the share is a sharpened wedge, which is forcibly introduced between the sod and the solid land, the resistance which the sod makes must, therefore, be counteracted by the solid land, which forms a rectangular trough, or furrow, against which the land side and sole of the plough bear. The furrow is a straight and firm groove, into the angle of which the plough is strongly pressed, and its progressive motion is thus directed. The straightness of the course which the plough will follow, depends very much on the straightness of the sole and land side, in the same manner as the direct progression of a ship depends on the keel. It is true, that in either case the steersman may correct any tendency to deviate, but it must always be at the expence of the impelling force. The furrow side of the plough, and mould-board, should be formed to one regular twist from the point of the share to the extremity of the board. As the operations of raising, shifting, turning over, and placing the earth or sod in a proper position, with the least friction, depend in a great measure on the shape of the mould-board, it must be of importance to have a certain rule or method by which its surface may be formed agreeably to any given principle. The mould-board is the most delicate part of the plough, and is to be found in the greatest variety in the works of different artists, each of whom has a nostrum of great value in his own opinion. It would much exceed our limits to give rules upon this subject, as they can hardly be briefly expressed without numerous figures, but we will suggest a few observations: the task to be performed by the mould-board is, to raise, push aside, and turn over to a certain degree, a slice already cut off from the firm ground. Mr. Small's maximum was, that as the plough advances through equal spaces, the twist and the lateral sliding of the sod should increase by equal degrees; and this determines, *a priori*, the form of the mould-board. To construct it, the line called the *wrest* must be divided into equal parts; this line is the edge or boundary of the flat sole on the furrow side of the

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plough; it is a straight line, and is usually inclined to the land side of the plough, in an oblique angle; so that if the plough be turned upside downwards, the flat sole, which applies to the bottom of the furrow, is of a triangular shape. Having divided the wrest into equal parts, then the angle which the surface of the mould-board makes with the flat surface of the sole at each of these divisions must increase by a regular progression. The rules for constructing this kind of mould-board, which are laid down by Mr. Small, in his treatise before alluded to, are not mathematically exact, but his suggestions are adapted to the capacity of those for whom they are intended, and approximate very nearly to the truth of the subject. Small's ploughs have been found to answer extremely well, in a long course of practice.

Amos on
the plough.

Mr. William Amos published a paper in the communications to the Board of Agriculture, on the mathematical construction of a plough, with rules for workmen. He considers a mould-board as composed of two inclined planes, one acting in a perpendicular direction, to raise the furrow; the other is an horizontal direction, to turn it over. Upon the proper form of the curve, which a combination of these inclined planes ought to make, the perfection of a plough depends, as the chief resistances are there met with, and must be overcome.

Mr. Jeff-
erson.

Mr. Jefferson, late President of the United States in America, has given a paper on the construction of a plough and mould-board, which was published in 1802, and is reprinted in the *Philosophical Magazine* for 1805, vol. xxii. His principle is nearly the same as that followed by Mr. Amos.

Mr. Bailey.

Mr. John Bailey, has given a very excellent paper on the true principles for a plough, in his *Essay on the Construction of the Plough*, and in his *Report on the Agriculture of Durham*. In some points he follows Mr. Amos, but his rules for the mould-board are more correct in principle. He states, that for a small slice, or section, an inclined plane may be so twisted as to raise any thin and flexible sod from an horizontal position to a perpendicular one, in which the only resistance to be overcome, arises from the weight of the earth. This will not do so well for the whole sod of old sward, which being bound together throughout by fibrous roots, of different textures, they create an elasticity which affects the whole, from the share point to the hind end of the mould-board.

To find, therefore, the proper curve in this case, a sod of this kind was turned over as if left by the plough, viz. in an horizontal position, at the place where the point of the share is supposed to be, and so twisted, that in the length of the required share, or mould-board, the sod should be turned over, and lie at an angle of 45 degrees; then the inner edge or surface of the sod forms a curve which the mould-board ought to fit so as to be pressed equally alike from one end to the other.

Mr. Wm. Cooke obtained a patent in 1813, for improvements in making ploughs; his specification contains a new principle for setting out the curve of the mould-board. (See *Repository of Arts*, vol. xxiv. Second Series.)

Mr. Robert Beman likewise obtained a patent in 1815, for a new construction of the share and mould-board, which we think is founded on a good principle. The first circumstance is, that the wrest of his plough

is a straight line, and parallel to the land side of the plough, so that the sole of his plough is of a parallel width, and equal to the width of the furrow; the sole is bounded in front by the oblique cutting edge of the share, and on one side by the land side of the plough, and on the other side the wrest or lower edge of the mould-board. The cutting edge of the share is therefore of such width, that the sod, or furrow slice, which is to be removed, will be completely cut or divided from the lower soil, by the oblique edge cutting horizontally under the whole width of the part to be removed, in the same manner as the coulter of the plough cuts, and separates the upright side of the said sod from the land; by this means, the sod is completely severed and cut up from the lower soil, before it is turned, making a flat bottom to the furrow, whereby roots and weeds of every description are cut through.

The mould-board, or plate of the plough, should be of such form, that it will turn over the sod by an uniform action with a kind of rolling motion, and without elevating or removing the sod sideways, any further than is absolutely necessary to turn it over; but turning it upon one of its angles, as a centre of motion.

The particular construction of the share and mould-plate, to obtain these effects, is explained by figs. 2, 3, and 4, plate IV. and is adapted to cut a sod, of a depth equal to two-thirds of the width; fig. 5 represents the share in different positions from the point; a to L is a keen bevelled edge, which cuts up the sod; the line L is also a sharp edge, which is in the same flat surface with the sole or underside of the share; and the line of the edge is parallel to the land-side, or straight tail a , which runs against the land; the breadth L being equal to the width of the furrow which the plough is intended to cut; the line d is that, where the share joins upon the mould-board; and H is a projecting piece, which enters into a corresponding opening in the mould-board to unite them firmly. At K are two holes for the screws, to fasten the share to the iron stem C , which descends from the beam of the plough.

Fig. 2 and 3, show the curvature of the share and mould-board when put together; fig. 2 being an elevation of the furrow-side, and fig. 3 a view of it taken from the point of the share. The lower edge t is straight, and in the plane of the sole or under surface of the share, and is parallel to the land side, being a continuation of the edge L , t , of the share; therefore, when the plough is in action, the line t proceeds forwards in the direction of its length, the several lines marked in fig. 2, — 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. represent straight lines, which may be drawn upon the surface of the mould-board. These lines originate in the line t , being arranged thereupon at equal distances of about two inches from each other; when viewed in the direction of fig. 2, these lines appear to be perpendicular, but each line is inclined at a different angle of inclination to the under surface of the sole, as is shown by the elevation fig. 3, in front, where u shows the inclination of the line 1, and v 2 shows the inclination of the line 2, and so on of all the rest, till the line u 13, which is perpendicular. This arrangement of the lines, forms a regularly winding surface, as is expressed by the perspective view fig. 4; from the horizontal line of the cutting edge 1 L , to the vertical line u 13; the part 1, 2, L of the share being made as thin as is consistent with strength, cuts under the sod, as shown at 2 L ,

Plate IV.

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Plate IV.

fig. 6, and separates it from the under soil, as the share advances; till the line 4 *t* comes beneath the sod, the inclination of its surface will turn the sod to the position of 4 *t*, fig. 6; beyond this line, the same regular curvature is continued by the mould-board, which, at the line 7, inclines the sod as at 7, fig. 6, thence to the line *w* 13, where the sod is turned over one quarter, as at *w* 13, fig. 6. In all these positions it will be seen, that the lower outside angle of the sod has not changed its situation, but the sod turns upon that edge as a centre, because the lower edge of the mould-board *t u*, which is beneath the angle *w* of the sod, is a straight line, proceeding forwards in the direction of its length. After the perpendicular line *w* 13, the mould-board is curved by a different law, as it is intended to turn the sod over upon its upper outer edge *y*, fig. 6, as shown at *x* 16, till it arrives at the position of *x* 18. To form a curve which will produce this effect, an imaginary line *r*, fig. 4, is assumed in the plane of the sole or lower surface of the share, in a direction parallel to the depth of the sod; from the point *u* a line is drawn to *r*, perpendicular to *t u*, and from this point divisions are made on the line *r*, at intervals of two inches, or equal to the distances between the lines 1, 2, 3, and fig. 2; and from these divisions lines are drawn, every one at a different angle of inclination, as is shown by the dotted lines at *r*, in the front elevation T, fig. 3. All the lines being of equal length, give a number of points to form the lower edge of the mould-board; and the curvature or winding of its surface is found, by making the lines 14 *r*, 15 *r*, 16 *r*, 17 *r*, and 18 *r*, at right angles to the different lines *x r*, with which each respectively joins at the point *x*; this causes the last line *x r* to overhang or incline outwards sufficiently to leave the sods in the position of *x* 18, fig. 6. The depth of the furrow being about two-thirds of the width, the mould-board represented is adapted to cut a furrow of nine inches wide and six inches and a half deep; that being the greatest depth for such a width. If it is desired to cut a furrow of less depth and width, the dimensions of the mould-board must be proportionally altered; the breadth of the sole between the land side and the line *t u* (being in all cases equal to the width of the furrow or sod intended to be cut), and the distance between the parallel lines *t u* and the line *v*, is always to be taken equal to the depth of the said furrow or sod.

It may be necessary to remark, that the surface of the mould-board, however obtained, if made of wood and intended to be covered with iron plate, must be sunk or cut away one eighth of an inch (the thickness of the iron), in order that the form may not be altered. But mould-boards of cast iron, from a model made on the above principles, are much preferable, not only on account of the greater certainty of the form, but also in respect to cheapness.

Form of the
share.

On the form of the share. The share must always be flat on the underside to correspond with the flat sole of the plough, and the land side must be a straight line in continuation of the land side of the plough, but the cutting point or edge admits of variation. The shares most commonly in use, are called the spear-pointed share and the feathered share. The spear-point is simply a sharp point like a spear; but the feather share has a projection towards the right hand side to form an oblique cutting edge, as is shown in all the drawings

of plate II, and separately in fig. 7, plate IV. That part of the share which is made hollow, in order to fix it on the end of the piece of wood which forms the sole of the plough, is not so wide as the feather; hence in moving forwards the share cuts a wider surface than the sole occupies at its most advanced part; but in the spear-pointed share the cutting edge does not occupy a greater breadth of the furrow than the sole does at the front; indeed the share forms a continuation of the sole, and terminates it with an advanced point.

The difference between the action in the spear or a Spear and feathered share will best appear by comparing them together. It is evident from the construction of the feathered share, that in stony land it must meet with greater resistance than the spear share by reason of its breadth. It is not so, however, in every case, for as the plough with the feathered share takes the sod off broader than that part of the share which is fixed to the sole, this plough must be easier drawn when the land is free of stones, than that with the spear share, because the firm earth which the spear share must leave to be raised by the lower edge of the mould-board is previously cut from its bed by the feathered share, and consequently raised up more easily. At the same time the feather should not have too great a breadth, but should be in proportion to that of the under side of the plough behind, and of the furrow, slice, or sod, cut off by the coulter. Its breadth also depends on the nature of the soil. As the sole of the plough is usually from eight to ten inches broad, the breadth of the feather should be between six and eight inches. It has been thought an improvement in the plough to make the feather the full breadth of the sole. But when the feather is about two inches narrower than the sod, then that part of the sod next the open furrow not being cut, is held fast until the land side of the sod is raised on the back of the share and fore part of the mould-board, and when the sod is raised nearly on its edge this corner will easily be broken by the mould-board. The slice of earth in this case does not slide into the open furrow, but is regularly raised and turned over as the plough advances. The tearing up of this small corner gives very little resistance to the plough; and the resistance it occasions is perhaps less than if it were wholly cut by the feather, because a greater breadth of feather with the same length would present a more obtuse angle to cut the earth, by which the resistance must be increased. In lands abounding with tough roots or couch grass, or in fact any root that runs deeper than the plough penetrates, the broad feather seems to have the advantage, especially if the length of the feather be in proportion to its breadth; in general, this proportion ought to be as two to one; so that if the extreme point of the back end of the feather be six inches from the straight line, or land side of the share, then the whole length of the feather should at least be twelve inches. Its cutting edge will then form an angle of about twenty-eight degrees with its land side. If the feather is required to be seven inches broad, its length ought to be about fourteen inches, and so on in proportion; and in this form its edge will always cut nearly at the same angle.

Ransom's patent cast iron shares, 1803; the lower side of the share is hard, and the upper soft, so that the wearing of the soft iron keeps the edge sharp; they are very extensively used.

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Feathered
shares.

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On the form of the beam and position of the point of draft.—As the horses or oxen employed in ploughing are compelled to answer the command of their managers, the managers ought therefore to know the limits of their powers, and the manner of employing them to the greatest advantage; hence the construction of a plough, and the manner of harnessing and yoking them to it, become important objects of the husbandman's attention. When a plough is properly made, it should go perfectly level on its sole, without having any tendency to run shallower, or deeper, than what is designed. To obtain this object, the point of yoking at the draft hook, or beam end, should be situated in a right line, drawn from the point of draught at the horse's shoulder, to a point on the coulter, at half the depth of the furrow intended to be ploughed up. On this principle is founded the following practical construction, for determining the position of the most essential parts of a plough:

Point of
draft.

The medium height of the point of draft on the shoulder of a horse fifteen hands and a half high, is forty-eight inches, and when a horse is in the act of pulling, the inclination of his shoulder varies from 69 to 75 degrees; the medium is 72 degrees. See fig. 8, plate IV. These data being obtained from experiment, and the depth to be ploughed (suppose six inches) given, draw a right line AL, and at any point A erect a perpendicular AP, equal to 48 inches, make the angle APB=72 degrees, and produce the line bounding this angle to meet AL at B. Now set the length of the traces and swing trees from P to H: this varies from 98 to 106 inches, the medium is 102. From H let fall a perpendicular HI, which measured upon the scale that AP was taken from, will give the height of the beam = sixteen inches and a half. Then at the distance of half the depth the land is intended to be ploughed, draw a line parallel to AB, and from C where it intersects BP let fall a perpendicular upon AB, which will give the point of the sock at S; and a line drawn through C, making an angle of 45 degrees with BA, will be the position of the fore edge of the coulter. The heel of the plough will be found by setting the length of the sole 36 inches from S to L. The length of the beam may be determined by erecting a perpendicular at L, which will give the length from M to H (78 inches), to which must be added the length of the tenon at the end of the beam, which is to go into land-side stilt, or handle; this will vary from six to eight inches according to the curve of the beam, making the whole length about seven feet.

Coulter.

Position of the coulter. That the coulter may have a perpendicular position, and cut in the same plane as the land-side of the plough, it should be so placed, that a right line, or straight ruler, laid along the land-side of the plough, after the same is plated with iron, should pass exactly along the middle of the back of the coulter. On this account the middle of the coulter hole in the beam should not be cut in the same right line with the land side of the plough (before plated), but so much nearer the land as the thickness of the plating of iron is intended to be, which is generally one-eighth of an inch. The position of the coulter must not deviate much from the angle of 45°, for if it be more oblique, it causes the plough to choke up with stubble and grass roots, by throwing them up beneath the beam; and if

less oblique, it is apt to drive the stones or other obstacles before it, and make it heavier to draw.

It is very common with plough-wrights, to place the beam in a different plane from the land-side of the plough, in order, as they term it, to give the plough land, that is, to give it some tendency to run into the land sideways. If a plough was to be always drawn by horses yoked one before the other, and walking in the furrow, this position would be right, if it was not attended with the inconvenience, of taking the coulter hole considerably to one side of the point of the share, and of giving the coulter an inclining position towards the land; but where the horses are yoked double, the position of the beam should be in the same plane with the land side of the plough, which not only gives the coulter a perpendicular position, but is equally useful for horses yoked single, and walking in the furrow. By means of an iron rack called the cock or cop, at the end of the beam, with several holes or notches in it, on the furrow side, the breadth of the furrow can be easily regulated.

For DRAINING PLOUGHS. See DRAINING.

§ 2. Of harrows.

The harrow is an implement of very simple construction, being only a rectangular frame of wood, the rails or bars of which (called *tells*) are strong and heavy in proportion to the size required, and are generally made of ash; these *tells* are secured by cross *slots* of oak, which are driven through mortises, and this frame of timber is furnished with iron teeth, called *tines*, of different strength and proportion, according to the uses designed. The frames of the larger harrows are strengthened by a cross-bar of iron, diagonally spiked upon the *tells*, and finished with an eye, or hook, to which a short chain (called a *foot-chain*) is fastened when in use.

Most harrows are drawn corner-wise, by which contrivance their teeth do not follow each other in rows, but scratch the surface more effectually. Sometimes a small harrow is attached to the right-hand corner of the whittle-trees (*swing-trees*), when wheat or beans are sown under furrow, on wet land, where it would not be desirable to drive horses on the surface after sowing.

All other harrows, besides such as are here described, are either invented for cheapness or durability, and are generally variations from the *seed-harrow*; or they are local in their use, as the *jingle-harrow* for *brüched-land* (old sward-land ploughed for oats or wheat), or the *gate-harrow* to cover ridges, and some others.

The *break-harrow* is made with a very heavy and strong frame, see plate I. fig. 1. It consists of four parallel pieces of wood, called the *balls* of the harrow, united together by four thinner cross pieces; into each ball four or five long teeth are fixed, as is shown in the side view, and an iron bar is extended diagonally across the frame, as a brace, to preserve it in its square figure.

The second, or *fallow-harrow*, plate I. resembles the former, except in the size and weight of the frame; the tines are smaller and more numerous as shown in the side view; and it can generally be drawn by one horse.

The common *seed harrows* are made on the same construction as the two former, but of smaller size. They are intended to be drawn in pairs, two together, as shown in the figure, by this means they accommodate themselves to the inequalities of the ground. The

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jointed, or chain and screw harrow, plate 1. fig. 4, consists of two triangular harrows so put together by joints as to form a square frame; they are drawn by one of the angles of the square. A chain is applied across the harrow which tends to keep the two parts together, or if this chain is shortened, the two parts of the harrow may be made to incline from one plane, so as to fit the hollow of a furrow, if it is required to pass a harrow down a furrow.

Various
harrow.

This was invented by Mr. Sandulands, and its properties are, that if the ridges of the land are high and narrow, and require to be harrowed from one end to the other, by lengthening the chain (which the screw commands), the harrow, when drawn along, forms an angle downwards, so as to miss none of the curve of the ridge so far as it extends; this may be nine feet in length, in the direction of the joint between the two, and the distance in the direction of the chain is five feet six inches. When the crowns of the ridges have received sufficient harrowing lengthwise, the chain is to be shortened by the screw so as to form an angle upwards, the harrow is then drawn by the horses, one on each side the furrow, which completely harrows it, and the sides of the ridges, if eighteen feet broad. When even ground, or high ridges are to be harrowed across, the harrow can be made horizontal by the screw, so as to work like a solid harrow which has no joint.

The *bush-harrow* is formed by the interweaving of some kind of brush-wood in a frame constructed for the purpose. It is occasionally employed in putting in grass or other small seeds, as well as for harrowing in dung and earthy composts into grass lands.

The *double seed harrow* consists of two small harrows joined together by a piece of wood, or iron, which is screwed at each end to the middle bull of each, and is called a lay-over. This harrow is much in use in the northern parts of England, and is often drawn by one horse. It is very necessary to have some plan to prevent the harrows from getting one upon the other, when more than one is used; the lay-over seems to answer this purpose; or the harrows may be joined together by hooks and eyes.

The *grass harrow* is a small light kind of harrow, with short tines, set very close. It is beneficial in covering grass, or other small kinds of seed, for it is capable not only of rendering the bed of the mould much more fine, but also of introducing the seed to the most proper depth, and covering it in the most complete manner.

The *iron harrow* (constructed wholly of that metal) was invented by Mr. Arthur Young, in consequence of his finding, from experience, that wooden harrows soon decay, and in many cases are much too light to answer the intended purpose.

The *wheeled harrow* consists of a frame of wood somewhat in the form of the common harrow, to the fore part of which a pair of low wheels are attached, which are so managed as to raise and lower the harrow part at pleasure. It was invented by Mr. Knight in Essex.

Mr. Curwen's *drill harrow*. This is a wheeled harrow, to harrow or scarify the spaces of land in the intervals between rows of corn, without injuring the plants, and of course can only apply to the drill husbandry. As machines for this purpose are principally of the

kind, Mr. Curwen's machine has been called a horse-hoe, though its principle of action is that of harrow or scarifier; it is in fact a strong harrow, which is guided by a carriage and wheels, that it may be drawn straight along the drills not to injure the plants.

Planché's cast-iron harrow consists of four similar bars of cast-iron, each having a proper number of strong teeth cast in the same solid as the bars. These four bars are joined together by rivets and pins at the ends, so as to form a square frame, but the joints are capable of motion, so that the frame can be put out of the square into the shape of a rhombus, if required, or it can be retained in any required position by a chain which is extended diagonally across the frame, from one angle to the other, in the direction of the chain by which the harrow is drawn; by lengthening or shortening the diagonal chain, the harrow is made to occupy more or less breadth of land, when it is dragged along; but as the number of its teeth is always the same, it is obvious that a greater effect will be produced on the ground when the frame is so placed as to pass over a small breadth of ground, than when it sweeps over a greater breadth; by this means the same implement is made to serve the purposes of two or three common harrows. If it is required to have other bars across the frame, besides the four outside bars, it may be done, if all the joint pins are capable of motion.

It is evident, that the construction of harrows ought to depend on the nature of the soil; those, for instance, which are best calculated for strong clay cannot be suited to light sandy soils. The following are the principal rules regarding the formation of harrows of any kind; 1st that no two of the teeth should move in one track; 2d, that the tracks should be at equal distances from each other; and 3d, that the teeth should either be round, or perhaps with a sharp edge bent forwards, like so many coulters, these clear themselves better than when they are square, or of any other shape, and follow easier after the borses. The teeth of harrows are often of unequal lengths, the front row being about half an inch longer than the second, and the third one inch shorter than the first; so that each row backwards is about one half inch shorter than the one that precedes it.

The *break, or twitch harrow*, is appropriate to light land which has been ploughed for a turnip fallow; and especially to fen-land for the cleaning process of short-fallowing.—The second harrow is more generally used in fallow-fields, under the old system, as the teeth are somewhat shorter and more numerous; after the first, or second harrow, in all cases, the seed harrows, in pairs, follow to reduce the soil still finer, and to draw out, or expose the root-weeds to the sun, or to the rakes or hands which are to gather and destroy them; this is the process of harrowing, fallowing, or cleaning the land. In other respects, when land is cleaned and ploughed for seed, there is no succession of harrows required; if the seed is sown by hand, the seed harrows follow, two, three, or four times in a place, as the pulverization of the soil, and as the covering of the seed may require; extra harrowing, and sometimes cross-harrowing, or harrowing diagonally, are employed, either to level the furrows (if the land be sown down in grass) or to expose what twitch may yet remain, and facilitate the last process of hand-picking. On the contrary, if the seed be to be sown with the drill, the

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seed harrows go before, to lay the soil level, and make it fine. It has been observed, that the first and second harrows, as they are represented in plate I., cover too much surface, and will not penetrate to the requisite depth; that is, to the depth to which the land is ploughed; but the scarifier may be made to go very readily under, and through the furrows, or flags, so as to stir them and break them effectually.

The *couch-grass drag* is a useful kind of harrow, in the process of summer fallowing. This implement is made in the same form as the scarifier, which is represented in perspective in the third figure of plate III. and will be described more minutely as a scarifier, which may be considered as another name for the same thing; the only difference is in the form of the teeth, which are made more curved forwards at the points, if they are only intended to drag out the couch from light soil; but if the implement be required to work in stiff land, where it should reduce the soil to a pulverent state, as well as draw out the couch, the teeth must be stronger and rather less curved, as is shown in the drawing. This implement is of great utility in clearing land infested with weeds of the couch-grass family, as it tears them up to the surface, without ploughing the ground or much breaking the roots. It is capable of doing as large an extent as fifteen acres in the course of a day, with two men and four horses. It is considered as the proper time for the use of this tool, when the couch-grass has been collected by the common harrow, after the second ploughing.

The *wreck harrow*, invented by Mr. Sandilands, is nearly the same machine as the above; but it acts without any wheels, the shaft for the horse being fixed immediately on the beam of the rake, or rather harrow, for it is a plank with two rows of teeth, the front row containing twelve teeth, and the second thirteen, the teeth being five inches asunder, and interspaced; they act at intervals of two and a half inches distant from each other; the length of the teeth beneath the wood is seven inches.

§ 3. The scarifier or grabber.

The scar-
ifier.

This is an improvement on the harrow by having the iron teeth made with sharp edges and bent forwards like so many coulters. It is an implement heavier than the harrow, but covering less surface, and having tines constructed to penetrate, made triangularly, and going with their acute angle foremost; as the tines are sharpened to a point, and bent a little forward, they have an inclination to enter the subsoil, and consequently to increase the draft beyond necessity; the implement is, therefore, furnished with wheels to regulate its depth of going. It has been extensively used on heavy soils to facilitate the operations of fallowing. The most essential purpose of fallowing is to pulverize the soil, and few of the objects of fallowing can be attained without it; the plough and harrow can accomplish only the stirring or turning of it over, to make fresh exposure; depending on the evaporation from alternate suns and showers, to reduce the clods. The scarifier is shown in perspective in the third figure of plate III. It is a strong triangular frame, with a rail extended across the middle, and joined into the most advanced angle of the triangle; the machine is drawn by a hook or swivel at the end of this piece of wood, which is rather bent upwards to make the point of draft higher; a wheel is

also fixed at this place to bear up the fore part of the machine. The binder part is sustained by two wheels fixed in the handles, by which the machine is steered, and all the wheels are capable of regulation in respect to height, so as to allow the teeth to penetrate to any required depth. The teeth are fixed in rows on all the rails of the triangular frame, they are rather curved forwards at the back, but the advanced sides of the tines or teeth are made sharp to cut and divide the clods of the soil. It has been observed, that if the scarifier is drawn by a chain fastened to the frame itself, the person that holds it is able to work it better than if it were drawn by a beam like a plough; the machine goes more freely than it would if some of the claws were in the piece of timber, the sole use of that piece being to draw by. This implement is sometimes made of a square form, it being found that when it was made in a triangular form, and with the same number of claws, it was apt to go irregularly for want of sufficient bearing on the ground, or by raising the hindmost claws out of the ground, to work frequently at one corner only. Sir John Sinclair in his Code of Agriculture strongly presses the great utility of the scarifier.

Several other light tools of the same description, have been lately provided by implement-makers in different parts of the country, which were well adapted for particular uses in the cultivation of land, and which by their convenience and modes of working save much labour and expence. Some of them are made with two rows of claws or shares, and four or five in each row, about six inches each in breadth, the front one cutting the inter-spaces of the hinder ones, by which means the work is done in an excellent manner. The depth of working is regulated by small wheels that let up and down, and they prepare bean and other stubbles admirably, for wheat or any other crops.

The *cultivator* is a name given occasionally to any of the implements employed for pulverizing the soil after it has been ploughed, viz. scufflers, scarifiers, and horse-hoes. If it were used generally it would be a very applicable term, but as it has been frequently given to particular kinds of these implements, it has introduced some confusion; Lester's cultivator is properly a scuffler, and there are bean cultivators which are properly horse-hoes; one of these, by Mr. C. Westers, is a very useful implement.

§ 4. Of scufflers.

A scuffler is a kind of machine, derived from an implement called the Kentish nidget, it has a number of triangular plates, or feet, the edges of which are steed, and fixed at the bottom of as many iron bars, somewhat similar to the legs and feet of a duck. The operation of the scuffler is, to cut horizontally beneath the surface in the manner of hoeing. It is a useful implement on light lands that are free from stones, and of a plain surface, because it not only cuts up all weeds, but pulverizes the soil. Scuffling strong land, and exposing it to the sun and air, is greatly preferable to harrowing, which tends to consolidate the surface. The *Norfolk scuffler* is described in the agricultural survey of that county, as being formed from a double-breasted foot plough, by taking off the breast and applying a new share, larger and flatter than the original one. At the binder end of the beam of the plough is fixed a cross beam of

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wood, three feet long, four inches broad, and four inches thick, in a direction at right angles to the beam; at the distance of twelve inches and a half each way from the centre of this cross-beam, are inserted two coulter, each twelve inches long, three inches broad, and a quarter of an inch thick in the back, but reduced to three-eighths in the front; and into these coulter, at the bottom, are rivetted two shares of nearly the same size as the first share, which was nine inches broad, but these two are only eight inches. The cross-beam is strengthened by two iron braces fixed to the ends of the cross-beam, and also to the fore-part of the beam of the plough, in the best manner for the purpose. It may also be noticed, that the coulter which are fixed to the cross-beam do not stand perpendicularly, but inclining like the common coulter in the beam of the plough; they are fixed in a cross-beam by means of a screw and a nut, so as to keep them quite fast and steady. This scuffler is used with two horses only, and does the work of more than two ploughs, as the three shares cut nearly the width of thirty inches, whereas two ploughs would cut only twenty-four inches.

Manley's patent scuffler, 1809, is also called an expedition plough. It is very nearly the same as the Norfolk scuffler. Three shares, or boes, are used.

Leater's
cultivator.

Leater's cultivator is another form of the scuffler; the principal difference is in the shape of the teeth, or rather shares, which are of a triangular figure, like trowels, and affixed to stems in a horizontal position, with the points forwards. These shares being sharp at the edges, they cut the ground horizontally at a given depth beneath the surface. For soils of medium strength, and in seasons of moderate drought; and in general, for heavy soils, when the first operations of fallowing are performed earlier, the *scuffler* may be beneficially changed for this form of the implement, a perspective view of which is given in the second figure of plate III. The beam from which the horses draw, is supported by a wheel at the fore end, and has two handles for steering at the hinder end; about the middle of the beam is a joint, to connect it with two oblique pieces which form the sides of the triangle, and each of which carries three shares. The opposite ends of these pieces are attached to a semi-circular sweep, which is fixed to the hinder end of the beam, and is provided with rows of holes to receive bolts, by which the oblique sides are fastened to the sweep, and held in their required position. In this way the angle which the two sides make with the beam, can be made greater or less at pleasure, and the shares will be made to work upon a greater or lesser width of land; and when they are

set nearer together, the shares will follow each other through the same space of ground, and act more powerfully upon the land. At the extremities of the curved sweep are two other wheels, which sustain the hinder part of the machine; but all the wheels may be regulated to the depth at which the shares are to work; also the shares are fixed by their square stems in mortises in the beam, by means of wedges, so that they can be regulated in depth at pleasure.

By the expansion and contraction of the cultivator, the points of the shares are in a small degree moved out of the direct line; but this is so trifling, that it is no impediment to its working. When the machine is first employed on the land, the bars are expanded as much as possible; as the soil becomes more loosened, they are brought nearer to each other; the shares then occupy a less space, and the soil will consequently be better pulverized. This is a very useful implement for cultivating the land in a fallow state, it will work or scuffle over seven acres per day with six horses; from its property of contracting and expanding, it is calculated to work the same land in a rough or fine state, by which means it unites the principles of two implements in one.

When fallows are early ploughed, they must be frequently stirred; and, as this early ploughing facilitates the after operations which are necessary for clearing the land, the cultivator becomes a highly useful and important implement.

§ 5. Of the roll.

In the old-fashioned fallowing, very little use was made of the roll. Almost the only implement of this kind was the *field roller* (plate III), which was a cylindrical lug of wood, of no great weight, drawn by one horse, in the spring of the year, over the growing crops; it merely crushed a few clods, and made the land look level. The same kind of implement is still in use for running over fields of barley that have been sown with clover, and for going before the drill in sowing turnips and wheat; but for the purposes of improved fallowing, heavier rollers have been adopted, and sometimes rollers furnished with acute-angled rings, or charged with spikes.

In hastening the pulverization of hard soils, a *heavy roller* (plate III.) is indispensable; the best land is rather strong, and good ploughing must be performed when the soil is somewhat tender with wet; in that state it cannot be harrowed, and it is often worse than useless to go upon it with any implement whatever, for the furrows must necessarily be a little hardened, before it can be attempted to pulverize them.

AGRIGAN, one of the Iadronne islands, sometimes called the Isle of St. Francis Xavier, in the South Pacific ocean. It is situated between the islands of Pagon and Assomong, and is nearly 50 miles in circumference, containing several mountains, of which some are volcanic. N. lat. 19°, 40'. E. lon. 146°.

AGRIGENTUM, in Ancient Geography, a celebrated city of Sicily on its southern shore.

Authors differ in their account of its founders. Strabo calls it an Ionian colony, but Polybius says its first inhabitants were Rhodians, and is supported by Thucydides,

who, in his 6th book, relates that the Gelo, who were of Rhodian origin, built this city, after having been about 100 years in Sicily, and called it Agragus, from a river near it, under which name it is mentioned in the Greek authors. This event took place about 600 years before the birth of Christ. More fabulous accounts assign its erection to Dedalus, who fled to Sicily from the resentment of Minos.

The situation of the city was peculiarly strong and imposing, standing on a bare and precipitous rock 1100 feet from the level of the sea; protected on the

AGRI-
CULTU-
RAL
IMPLE-
MENTS.

AGRI-
GENTUM.

**AGRI-
GENTUM** south by the river Agrasus, and on the west by the Hypas; but its industrious inhabitants increased their security by a wall along the margin of the rock, and a citadel which rose in the eastern quarter of the town, and was so environed by a deep gulph, that it was approachable by only one narrow path.

To its advantages as a place of great strength, the city added others of a commercial nature, being within two miles and a half of the sea, by which an easy intercourse was afforded with the ports of Africa, and the south of Europe. The soil about Agrigentum was very fertile, and was laid out chiefly in olive yards, the products of which were carried to Carthage, and brought immense wealth to the cultivators. By these means the city rose to such influence as to be considered the second in Sicily, and was so splendidly adorned with temples and other public works, that Polybius, l. ix. says, it surpassed in grandeur of appearance most of its contemporaries. Among the more important of its buildings were the temples of Minerva, and of Jupiter Atabyria, built on the highest ground in the city, and the temples of Jupiter Olympius, and of Hercules.

The temple of Jupiter Olympius, which vied in size and grandeur of design with the finest edifices of Greece, is said by Diodorus Sic. l. xiii. to have been 340 feet long, 60 broad, and 120 high, the foundation not being included, which was itself remarkable for the immense arches upon which it stood; the walls of the building had half columns let into them, measuring twenty feet round on the outside, and flutings of depth sufficient to allow a man to stand in them. The porticoes were very grand; the eastern representing, in admirable sculpture, the battles of the giants; and the western, the siege of Troy. A war prevented the completion of this temple, when the roof only remained unfinished. There was also an artificial lake, cut out of the solid rock, near the city, of about a mile in circuit, and thirty feet deep, from which fish were obtained in abundance for the public feasts, and which was rendered an object of pleasure to the citizens, by the number of swans and other water fowl which frequented it. But the mud being suffered to accumulate in this basin, it was at length filled up, and vines being planted, it became a remarkably fruitful spot. This lake, and the temple just described, were the work of a number of Carthaginian captives, by whose labour were also built the public shores, which were objects of admiration for their strength and size.

The Agrigentines were noted for their luxurious and extravagant habits, their great opulence enabling them to indulge in the most expensive hospitality, for which a citizen of the name of Gellius was so remarkable, that when 500 horsemen were applied for a lodging at his house, they were all liberally entertained by him, and furnished during their stay with garments from his wardrobe. So effeminate, however, and luxurious were the Agrigentines at last, that Empedocles reproached them with building as if they should never die, and feasting as if they were sure of living no longer. They were famous for their attention to the breeding of horses (Virgil, *Æn.* l. iii. v. 705); and as an instance of their possessions in this way, Diodorus relates, that when a native had been crowned victor at the Olympic games, he was brought into the city with great pomp, attended by 300 chariots, each

drawn by a pair of white horses, the property of the citizens. In their early history, the Agrigentines were formidable for their military enterprises; but being involved in the Punic wars, the city suffered greatly from frequent sieges, during one of which it held out seven months, and was reduced by famine. After the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Sicily, Agrigentum fell with little resistance under the power of the Romans. The population, in its best days, is stated by Diodorus to have been not less than 120,000 persons. The remains of its former magnificence are particularly described by Swinburne, in the 4th vol. of his Travels in Sicily. The town, now standing partly on the site of the old city, is called Gergenti. The ruins of the temple of Concord form the church of St. Gregory, and another church has been erected out of the remains of the temple of Ceres and Proserpine.

AGRIMONIA, in Botany, Agrimony; class Dodecandria, order Trigynia. Out of five sorts of this plant, four are the produce of Europe, and the peritrocha only of North America. It is used in its flower, by dyers, for producing different shades of yellow.

AGRIMONIA EUPATORIA (as some think from *grape*, the liver), the name of agrimony in the Pharmacopoeias.

AGRINIUM, in Ancient Geography, a city of Acarnania, near the Achelous.

AGRIONIA, in Antiquity, a Grecian festival observed in honour of Bacchus, who was called Agrionius, from his fondness for savage beasts. It was celebrated at night, when the women present made a search after the god as if he had fled from them, and not finding him declared that he had concealed himself among the Muses. The rest of the time was spent in solving enigmas, and difficult questions. This mystery was thought to teach, that at table the conversation should be such as would give some exercise to the understanding, and prevent excess in drinking. Plutarch, *Sympos.* lib. viii.

AGRIOPHAGI (*αγριοφάγες* wild, and *φαγώ* I eat), in Ancient History, one of the nations of Ethiopia, who are represented by Pliny and others as feeding upon wild beasts. See **ARTAXINIA**.

AGRIPNIA, or **AGRYPNIA**, in Physic (*αγρυπνία* vigilia), a privation of sleep. This is rather a diagnostic or symptom of a disease, than a disease itself. In the Greek church, the term is used to express the vigil of any great feast day.

AGRIPPINIANS, in Ecclesiastical History, the disciples of Agrippinus, a bishop of Carthage, in the third century, who are said to have first introduced the practice of rebaptization.

AGRISE, *v.* } *Ag-rysan, zryjan, agryjan*; to
Or *Agryse*. } crush.

To beat, bruise, or dash against; and consequently to confound, to terrify.

Thou wear the porter agrise more of thine state & estate than the keyen wote that his maute.

R. Glaucopter, p. 530.

Two lingers herts of pitee grae agrie
When he saw so benigne a creature
Falle in disese and in misaventure.

Chaucer. *The Man of Lawes Tale*, vol. i. p. 895.

And as she slept, anon right the her met
How that an egle feathered white as snow
Under her breast his long claws set
And out her herte he rent, and drew anon
And did his harte into her breast to gon

**AGRI-
GENTUM**
AGRISE.

AGRISE.
—
AGUARI-
CO.

Of which she *never* agrees, no nothing smart
And forth he fliech, with hart left for hart.
Chaucer. Triluce, book ii. fol. 162. c. 5.

But more happy he, than wise,
Of that sea nature did him not avise.
The waves thereof so slowe and sluggish were,
Eagrest with mud, which did then *foote* agree,
That every weightie thing they did vpeare,
Ne ought more cure stink downe to the bottome there.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. vi.

For nearst to mortals, though my state I keep,
Yet not the colour of the troubled deep,
These spots supposed, nor the fogs that rise
From the dull earth, me any whit agree.
Dryden's Men in the Moon.

AGROM, a disease frequent in Bengal, produced it is said, by excessive heat in the stomach. The tongue becomes parched, and adheres to the roof of the mouth, and sometimes is cleft in several places, and covered with white ulcerous spots. The black-seeded basilica, taken with mint juice or chalybeate water, is the common remedy.

AGROPE, *v.* See GROPE.

For who so will it wel agree,
To hem longeneth all Europe,
Whiche is the third parte croce,
Of all the worlde vnder the heuene.
Chaucer. Cos. A. book v.

AGROSTEMMA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Polygynia, order Decandria.

AGROSTIS, in Botany from *αγρος* a field, *herb-grass*. It is of the order Triandria, and class Dignia, and belongs to the species of common Gramina.

AGROSTOGRAPHIA (from *αγροστις*, grass, *γραφω*, writing or description), the history or description of grasses. It is the title of a celebrated work, by John Scheuchzer, which describes four hundred different species, but it is still an incomplete history.

AGROTED. Tyrwhit explains, cloyed, surfeited. Skinner, ingurgitated, saturated; from gross.

This honorable queene Phillis doth him chere
Her liketh wel his sport and his manere
But I am agreed here before
To write of hem that in lone been forewore.
Chaucer. The Legend of Good Women, bk. 203. c. ii.

AGROTIRI, in Ancient Geography, a promontory on the southern shore of the Island of Cyprus, now called Cape de Gatti.

AGROUND', *a.* On the ground.

And brauelling downe the master feller, and thrice the *leve* aground.
The water whild, and at the last the wilde sea swallow'd round.
Virgil's Eclogues, Book iiii. By Thom. Piers.

He [Nephtem] beuigled them [the Gervians] a year and a half,
till such time as having drained the channel, and turned the water
another way, he made their gullies lie aground, and the island for the
most part continent.

Hobbes's Thyracide's a.

Tell me ye Trojans, for that name ye own;
Now is your course upon our coast unknown;
Say what you seek, and whither are you bound?
Were you by stress of needier cast aground?
Dryden's Axiad, book vii.

The bear, presuming in his skill,
Is here and there officious still,
Till, striking on the dangerous sands,
Aground the sluttish vessel stuns.

Gey. Fable V.

AGUARICO, a river, in the province of Mainas,

South America. Descending from the Cordillera of AGUARI-
CO, near San Miguel de Ibarra, it washes the
territory of the Sucumbios Indians, and falls into the
Napo, about lat. 1°, 23' 8". The sands of this river
contain much gold.

AGUATULCO, a river of New Spain, which running
in an easterly direction, falls into the Pacific ocean,
near the Capolia.

AGUE, *v.* } Gothic, Agis, trembling. Serenius
AGOUT, *v.* } and Tooke.
AGUED, } A disease; the distinguishing mark
AGOUTISH, } of which is, trembling, shivering,
shuddering.

Tooke quotes with approbation the remark of John-
son that "the cold fit is, in popular language, more
particularly called the *ague*; and the *hot*, the *fever*."
By Tindale and Sir Thomas More this distinction is
disregarded.

For I will bring upon you feverishness, swelling of body, and
the burnings ague, to consume your eyes and gender sorrow of
heart.

Bible, 1539. Levit. ch. xvi.

If he [the cunning physician] have his patient in an ague, to
the cure whereof he needeth his medicines in their working cold;
yet if he hap ere that fever be full cured, to fall into some such cold
disease, as except it were helped with hotte medicines, were likely
to kill the bodye before the fever could be cured, he would for the
while here bys most care to y^e cure of that thog, wherin was most
present perill.
Sir T. More's Works, p. 1195. c. i.

The aforesayde Richard, like an unkinde child perceiving and
taking part with the French king against his father [Henry II.],
brought him to such distress of body and minde that for thought
of heart he fell into an ague, and within foure dayes dyed in Nor-
mandy.

Grafton. Vol. L. p. 219.

But now will canker-sorrow eat my body,
And chase the native beauty from my cheeks,
And he will look as inflow as a ghost,
As dim and meager as an ague's fit,
And so he'll dye.

Shakespeare's K. John, act iii. sc. 3.

Three fits of an ague can change it [locusts] into yellowness and
tanness, and the hollownes and wrinkles of oldenly.

Taylor's Holy Living and Dying.

Cold shivering agues, melancholy care,
And bitter blasting winds, and poison'd air.
Dryden. Folemon and Arctis.

It may enjoy th' advantage of the north,
And squish east, till time shall have transferr'd
These naked ices to a shivering grove.

Cooper's Task.

AGUT, in Medicine, a term significant of all fevers
which return periodically. Thus we have a tertian,
third day's; or quartan, fourth day's, ague, &c. See
MEDICINE.

AGUT-CAKE, a name in some parts of England for
a hard humour on the left side under the false ribs,
which appears after intermittent fevers.

AGUT-TREE, a popular name given to Sassafras, on
account of its fibrous virtues.

AGUELAON, one of the Lacadive islands in the
India sea. N. lat. 11°. E. lon. 73°, 25'.

AGUE-PERSE, or AGUE-PERSA, a town of France,
in the department of the Puy de Dome, arrondissement
of Riom. It is in the head of a cunton, and con-
tains about 5,000 inhabitants. It is a long place,
consisting of a single street, situated on the banks of
Beuron, about 18 miles from Clermont-Ferrand.

AGUERO, a town of the district of Illescas, province
of Aragon, in Spain.

AGUERRY, *v.* Fr. *Aquerir*. To make warlike,

AGUR- or fit for the wars; to train up in martial discipline.
RY. Cotgrave.

AGY- An army the best equipped of any troops in Europe that have
NIANI. never seen an enemy.
Lynceus.

AGUIGNAN, or Island of Holy Angels, one of the Ladrone islands, about a mile distant from Tinan. Servitors, a Spanish priest, visited it in the year 1669. It is about nine miles in circumference. E. lon. 146°. N. lat. 14°, 48'.

AGUILA VILLA OUTIERRE DE LA, formerly a considerable town of Mexico, in the Guadalupe, about nine leagues E. from Xeroc.

AGUILANEUF, in Ancient Customs, (French *a*, to, *gui*, misletoe, and *lan* *neuf*, the new year) principally applied to an old Druidical custom among the Franks of welcoming in the new year. Some of the Druids, or priests, gathered misletoe from the oak with a golden instrument in the month of December, while others received the sacred symbol in a white cloth. On the first day of the year, the misletoe was distributed amongst the people, with cries of "*A gui lan neuf*," which was considered as a sort of blessing, or consecration of it.

AGUIRRA, a river in South America, in Guiana. It has its source about fifty miles north of the Orinoco, into which it falls. It is a navigable river; but only by means of small shallops, large vessels being considerably impeded by the tall trees, which line and overhang its banks.

AGUISE, *v.* See GUISE. To prepare a dress, or ornament.

And other whiles voice tages she would devise

As her fantastick wit did most delight:

Sometimes her head she fondly would aguisse

With gaudie girlonds, or fresh flowrets light

About her neck, or rings of rubies plight

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii, c. vi.

Then gan this craftie couple to devise,

How for the court they might themselves aguisse.

Id. Mother Hubbards's Tale.

AGURAH, in Jewish Antiquity (in the Septuagint, ἀγούρα), a Jewish coin, equal to one-twentieth part of the shekel. Sometimes it was called gerah, or keshitah.

AGUSADURA, in Ancient Customs, a fee paid by the vassals to the lord of a manor, for the sharpening of their plough shares. It was also called reillage.

AGUSTINA, in Mineralogy (a barbarous compound of a non. Gr. and gustus, taste, Lat.), a new earth, which was found in the Saxon beryl in 1800, by professor Trommsdorff. It has scarcely been noticed since.

AGYEL, in Antiquity, obelisks or columns, put up in the streets of cities, and dedicated to Apollo, whose image they bore. Apollo was called Agyieus, from the Greek ἀγυια, a street; his worship being often performed in the public ways. HORACE, l. iv. ode vi.

AGYLLA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Etruria, about four miles inland, built by some Pelasgians, but afterwards possessed by a colony of Lydians, who changed its name to Cære. STRABO, l. v. See CÆRE.

AGYNEIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Monœcia, order Gynandria.

AGYNIANI (from a priv. and γυν, woman), in Ecclesiastical History, a sect of the 7th century, who proscribed marriage and the use of animal food. Sometimes called Agnucenes and Agynii.

VOL. XVII.

AGYRIUM, or AGYRIUM, in Ancient Geography, a town in the interior of Sicily, which gave birth to Diodorus Siculus, so named because born in this island. The inhabitants were sometimes called Agyrigenes.

AHANTA, the richest and most improved district on the Gold coast of Africa, extending from the Anco-bra to the Chamah; having Apollonia on the W. and the Fantee territories on the E. Almost every species of tropical produce is found here in abundance, particularly the sugar cane, which grows to a very great height;—also most kinds of serviceable timber, especially a very fine wood not much inferior to mahogany. Gold appears in considerable quantities on the coast; but is not allowed to be procured, except in some of the inland parts. The gold dust of Waraw and Din-kara is reckoned very fine. The people, who are well disposed towards strangers, are governed by a limited monarchy.

AHEAD. On head.

How among the dregs of custom and prejudice this will be relish'd by such whose capacity, since their youth, run ahead into the easy creek of a system.

Milton on the Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

The centaur and the dolphin brush the brine

With equal oars, advancing in a line;

And now the mighty centaur seems to lead,

And now the speedy dolphin grins a-head.

Dryden's Æneis, book v.

This gale continued till towards noon, when the east end of the island bore but a little a-head of us.

Fiddler's Voyage to Lisbon.

A calm ensues; adjacent shores they dread;

The boats, with rowers mann'd are sent a-head;

With oarlocks fasten'd to the lofty prow,

Aloof to sea the stately ship they tow.

Id.

Some of the people who were looking out for the island to which we were bound, said they saw land a-head, in that part of the horizon where it was expected to appear.

Cook's Voyage.

AHETULLA, in Zoology, the green, long, Borneo snake, and the Bonga-trora of Amboyna. In the order of serpents it is a species of Coluber.

AHIGH' } On high

ABRIGHT' }

And so, some mounted upon the walls, and threw themselves from skybolt, down to the grounds, the more parts of whose dyed.

Wood's Theatricals, fol. 49, c. 2.

The flattering index of a direful pageant

Our head'd alight, in be hudd' down below.

Shakespeare. Rich. III. act iv.

From the dread summit of this chalky bourn

Looke up a-slight, the shrill-gong'd larks so farre

Cannot be seene, or heard: Do but looke up.

Id. Lear, act iv.

AHLDEN, or ALEN, a town and haliwic, in the kingdom of Hanover, principality of Lüneburg, near the river Leine, at a short distance from the Aller. E. lon. 9°, 40'. N. lat. 52°, 49'.

AHLEN, the principal town of an upper bailiwick, in Swabia. It was once a free imperial city, and continued to possess that honour till the year 1802. It is situated in the newly created kingdom of Wirtemberg, district of Ellwangen, on the river Kocker, at no great distance from the town of Gemund, and only forty miles from Augsburg. It contains a population of nearly 2,000 inhabitants.

AHMEDABAD, a town of Hindostan, the capital of the province of Gujerat. It was founded by the sultan

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Ahmed, in the early part of the 15th century. It had, formerly, a considerable manufacture of chintz, brocade, velvet, and military weapons of various kinds, and is now one of the best fortified places in Hindostan. It was taken by the company's troops in 1780; but on the conclusion of peace, three years afterwards, was restored to its former possessors, the Poonah Mah-rattas.

AHRBERG, a market town and castle, in Germany, now included in the Bavarian circle of the Rezat, district of Herrieden, three miles from Olbreubau. It has a population of upwards of 3,300 persons.

AHRENFELS, an ancient imperial domain of Germany, situated on the Rhine, and formerly of some note. It still has a castle on its borders near Lintz. There is also a village of this name 17 miles N. W. of Coblenz.

AHULL, a sea phrase, applied to a ship when nearly abandoned to the wind and sea; her sails are furled, her rudder useless, and she lies in the trough of the sea, or her broadside to the weather.

AHUN, the principal town of a canton, in the department of the Creuse, arrondissement of Guéret, in France. It is a well built town, though containing only about 130 or 140 houses; and 1600 inhabitants.

AHUNGRI, } See HUNGARY.
Or HUNGARY. }

When any of the ghoules would have touched any thing, it vanished suddenly away, and was turned to nothing. And so, when their eyes were full, they put up their knives and rose away again.
Scott's Defence of the Apostles.

As. The dinner attends you, sir.

St. I am not a hungry, I thank you, forward.

Melchior. Merry Wives of Windsor, act 1.

Of this King Henry [the first] it is said, that he seldom did eat but when he was a hungry. *Baker's Chronicle.*

AHUYS, a town of Sweden, in the island of Gothland, province of Schonen, near the Baltic, and about six miles from Christianstadt, in N. lat. 56°, 20'. E. lon. 14°, 10'. This town derives its principal importance from the circumstance of its being the depot for the Christianstadt market. It has a tolerably good harbour, and was at one time a strong town.

AHWAS, sometimes called *Harisa*, a town of Persia, situated in E. lon. 48°, 58'. N. lat. 46°, 10'. It is in the province of Kozistan, near the river Ahwas, or Karasu, and distant about 48 miles from Suster, the capital. Though once a flourishing town, it is now a place of little note.

The Ahwas river, is said to exceed 400 English miles in length. It is one of the largest rivers in all Persia, and has been supposed to be the *Chrysoporus*, of Herodotus, who describes its waters as being so sweet and pleasant, as to induce the Persian kings to refuse all other; and, that they might preserve it during their expeditions, to have previously ordered large quantities of it to be boiled. The Ahwas rises in the mountains of Elwend, pursuing a southern course; one of its branches enters the Tigris, a little above its junction with the Euphrates, while the main stream flows into the estuary of these conjunct rivers. By the edge of this river, at the town to which it gives a name and consequence, stand the ruins of a very large castle or palace, of hewn stone; but by whom, or at what time, it was erected, does not now appear.

AI, in Scripture Geography, a town of Palestine, N. W. of Jericho, and W. of Bethel, contiguous to both

places. It is called by the Septuagint, Agai, and by Josephus, Aina, and was the place at which the Israelites received their first repulse in entering the land of Canaan, on account of Achish's sin.

AJACCIO, or AJAZZO. See AJACCIO.

AJAGHA TAGI, a range, or chain of mountains, in Persia, running along the river Ahwas, until it enters the Tigris. This range is supposed to be the Zagros of the ancients, mentioned by Strabo, as on the confines of Media and Babilonia. Its commencement is between Erivan and Nagawan.

AJALON, in Scripture Geography, a city in the tribe of Dan, between Timnath and Bethshemeth, in those neighbourhood Josiah commanded the moon to stand still. It was also the name of a town in the tribe of Benjamin, three miles east of Bethel; a third in the tribe of Ephraim, near Shechem; and a fourth in the tribe of Zebulun, whose situation is uncertain.

AJAN, or AXAN, a name given to the eastern coast of Africa, from Cape Guardafui to Magdasho, or Magadoxo. This is thought to be the same as the Azania of Ovid, and Pausanias; in which flowed the anti-vinnus fountain of Clitorius. Prior, however, to the accurate and indefatigable researches of Mr. Salt, this maritime district was but little known to modern travellers and geographers. That gentleman describes it as chiefly inhabited by the Sonauli tribes, most of whom are Muhametans. Though itself a desert and arid coast, the Persian tribes carry on a considerable trade in ivory, ambergris, and gold; and in the northern and more inland parts, which are somewhat mountainous, myrris and other aromatics are produced, besides a breed of horses of considerable value. In our map of Africa, the reader will find the coast of Ajan, commencing about 3° N. of the equator, and about 50° E. lon. comprehending about 3° of latitude. See ADEL, which is one of the principal states or kingdoms of this district.

AJAR'. Ou jar; i. e. an char, on the turn: from the AS. Elyan, Aeyan, to turn.

The leays remain vasterd of thare place,

No paris no furthe of reyle, quill per case

The pying wynd blow vp the dore an char,

And drine the leuis. Douglas, book iii, p. 83. Æneid.

There still they lye, nor from their orders move, if nothing touch,
But when the dore by chance doth turne & wind the corer blowes,
Their heaps assailes fall. *Vergil, by Thomas Phœr. li.*

The myric numbers, in the cavern laid,

Are rang'd in order by the sacred maid;

There they repose in ranks along the floor;

At length a casual wind un/locks the dore;

The casual wind un/locks the dore,

And the loose fairs are scatter'd by the breeze.

Par. li.

So rumour says, who will believe,

But that they left the dore ajar,

Where safe, and laughing in his sleeve,

He heard the distant din of war.

Gray's Long Story.

AIAS, or AJASSO, thought to be the Iussus of the ancients, where Alexander the Great defeated, with immense slaughter, the Persian army under Darius. See the art. ISAHUS. Aias, or as it is sometimes called, Aisse, is a sea-port town of Asiatic Turkey, in a bay of the Mediterranean, called the gulph of Ajasso. There are several celebrated warm baths here. Thirty-six miles from Marasch. The surrounding country is remarkably fertile.

AT.

AIAS.

AIAS-
ALUCK.

AID.

AIASALUCK, or AJASALUCK, an obscure village of Natolia, in Asia Minor, built from the ruins of the ancient Ephesus, near the site of which it stands. See EPHESUS.

AJAX, in Grecian Antiquities, a furious dance mentioned by Lucian, and supposed to be so called from its imitating the madness of Ajax, after he was defeated by Ulysses.

AICHSTADT, a town of Franconia, in Germany, founded in the year 748, by Boniface, Archbishop of Mentz; it afterwards became the capital of a surreign bishopric, containing ten towns, and a territory of about 50 miles long and 20 broad, which is now included in the Grand Duchy of Salzburg. The town was once celebrated for a superb vessel of gold, called the Sun of the Holy Sacrament, presented to it by the bishop in 1611, of 40 marcs weight, and adorned with the almost incredible number of 350 diamonds, 1400 pearls, and 250 rubies.

AID, v.

AID, n.

AIDANCE,

AIDANT,

AID'ER,

AID'ESS.

Also thou shalt not swear for envie, neither for favour, nor for wrath, but only for righteousness; and for declaring of trouble to the honour and worship of God, and to the aiding and helping of this even Christen.

Chaucer. *The Person's Tale*, vol. ii. p. 353.

And in the ayde of Terence and supple
A thousand feires folke availeth he.

Douglas, book vii. p. 234.

————— To Terence aid,
A thousand seen the youthful leave led.

Dryden. *Jb.*

She [the Duchess of Burgoyne] promised gladly to the messenger not only to maintain, ayde, further and succour their purposed extent with money and substance, but with all the labour and payne that she might, to encourage, vouchsafe and entice any manner to be aydes, assistants, and partakers of the same conspiracy, and shortly to layne with the conspirators of the ayde conspiracy.

Grafen, v. li. p. 165.

He that spendeth his lucre to helpe the poore at theyr neede, stretcht out unto hym who hath repaid the ayde of this present lyfe in worldly riches.

Udell, *Mark*, chap. ii. fo. 22. col. 2.

————— She can waite.

The chugging charms, and thus the mourning spell,

If she be light involk'd in warbled song,

For maidhood she loves, and will be swift

To aid a virgin, such as was herself. Milton. *Comus*.

The Promise of Meric, the Grace of God, our Faith in Christe, Goddes Word, and the Holy Sacraments, that are the aydes, and helppes of our Faith, are the Holy Antient Writers called a Jewell's Defence of the Apologie.

Oh how I see a timely-parted ghost,
Of ashy countenance, meager, pale, and bloodlesse,
Being all descended to the labouring heart,
Wise, in the conflict that holds with death,
Attracts the same for aydances' joint enemy.

Shakespeare. *Id. part Henry VI.*

GEAT. Many similes operative, whose power
Will close the eyes of anguish.

Cor.

————— All blast secrets

All you unpublish'd vertues of the earth,
Spring with my tears; be aydents, and remediate
To the goodman's desires.

Id. Lear, act iv.

————— I found the place,
Where that damnd' wind, hid in my disguise,
(For by certain signs I know) had nest
Already, ere my best speed could prevent,
The silent innocent lady, his wish'd prey.

Milton. *Comus*.

Our Lord Jesus is the Saviour of all men, so having purchased and procured for them remission of sins, whereby they are enabled to perform the conditions required of them in order to their salvation.

Barnes's *Sermans*.

AID.

A golden offer in her hand she bore,
The present treacherous, but the bearer more;
'Twas fraught with pang; for Jove ordain'd above,
That gold should aid, and pangs attend on love.

Parnell's *Heire*.

As Theodore was born of noble kind,
The brutal action roas'd his newly aid;
Mow'd with unseeing stage of the aid,
He, though unarm'd, resolv'd to give her aid.

Dryden's *Theodore and Hamoria*.

Neither the towers, nor any other part, nor the whole together,
unless well aided by perspective, and the introduction of trees to
hide disgusting parts, can furnish a good picture.

Gilpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

Sure there is need of social intercourse,
Benevolence, and power, and mutual aid,
Between the nations in the world, that seems
To toll the death-bell of its own decay.

Cropper's *Task*.

The person, who shall dare to commit another contrary to this law [the Hebrew Corpus Aet], shall be disabled from bearing any office, shall incur the penalty of a prison, and be incapable of receiving the king's pardon: and the party suffering shall also have his private action against the person committing, and all his advisers, advisers, and abettors, and shall recover treble costs.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

AID, in Feudal Customs, was a sum of money due to the lord from his tenants on customary occasions; and differed from a tax, in that it could not be levied at pleasure. Magna Charta provides that no Aids can be taken by the king without the consent of parliament, nor in anywise by inferior lords, except only the three ancient ones, "for making the lord's eldest son a knight, for marrying his eldest daughter, and for ransoming his person if he shall be taken prisoner."

AID of the KING, in Law, is where a tenant of the king prays aid of the king on account of rent demanded of him by others. This aid stops all other proceedings, until the king's cause shall be heard by his Counsel; but an aid cannot be granted after issue.

An AID in EXTENT is much of the same nature: the king's debtor prays aid of the king, to secure his (the debtor's) claim upon a third party's estate, because if that debt, owing to the king's debtor, be not discharged, he shall be therefore the less able to discharge his own debt to the king. An aid in extent cannot be supported after issue joined between the other parties.

AID PRAYER, in Law, a term used for a petition in court, which imports help from another person interested in the case at issue. This junction gives strength to both the party praying, and to that granting the aid. Thus a tenant for life, or a term of years, may pray in aid of him in reversion.

AID DE CAMP, in Military Tactics, an officer of a certain regimental rank, usually not under that of captain, appointed to accompany the person of a general. His duty, as well in the field, in action, as at all other places and times, is to carry especial messages, orders from battalion to battalion, or any other command of the general, to whose staff he is said to belong. The king may nominate as many aide-de-camp attendants upon his own person as he pleases, and confers the rank of colonel by this appointment. Full generals, being field-marshal, have four aides-de-camp, lieutenant-generals two, and major-generals but one aide-de-

AID. camp. The pay of an aid-de-camp, as such, is 10s. per diem.

AID-MAJOR is a name sometimes given to an Adjutant, which see.

AID, in the Menage, the indolent use of the appointments of a horse, or the personal exertions of the rider, to encourage him in his action, a branch of horsemanship in which foreign riders consider the English school very deficient.

AIGLE, or **ATLAN**, a town and district of Switzerland, in the canton of Vaud, having the title of a government, E. of the lake Geneva. It formerly belonged to the dukes of Savoy. The town contains 2500 inhabitants.

AIGLET, or } Fr. Aiguillette; Lat. Acicula:
AcUT. } Acus, a point.

He grows always by a old point at one end or other some new
egle. But when all his cost is done thereon, it is not at worth an
egle of a good blewé poynte.

Sir T. More's Works, p. 675, c. 2.

All in a stillen came, lilly white,
Purled ypon with many a falded plight,
Which all those heesprikled was thorought,
With golden eggens, that glisterd bright,
Like twinkling starres, and all the skirt about
Was bend with golden fringe.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book li. c. iii.

And yonder pale faced beate there, the moon,
Dottis give consent to that is dour in darkness;
And all those stars that gaze upon her face,
Are agles on her sleeve, pism on her train.

Spanish Tragedy, act iv.

Why give him gold enough, and marrie him to a puppet or an
Agle-table, or an odd trot with ne're a tooth in her head, though
she have as sanie diseases as two and fiftie horses.

Shakespeare. Teming of the Shrew, act I.

AIGLETTE, in Heraldry. See **EOLET**.

AIGRE-FEUILLE, a town of France, the head of a canton, department of the Lower Charente, arrondissement of Rochefort. It is nearly seven miles E. S. E. of Rochelle, and contains about 250 houses.

AIGREMORE, a name sometimes given to charcoal in that state of preparation for the making of gunpowder, which renders it fit for the admixture of the other materials.

AIGUILLON, a town of France, near the conflux of the Lot and Garonne, 15 miles from Agen, in the district of Agenois, in Guienne. Population 2,000.

AIGUES-MORTES, a town of France, in the department of the Gard, in Lower Languedoc; about 21 miles from Nîmes. It contains about 800 houses, with a population of upwards of 2500 inhabitants. This town deserves to be noticed, as the scene of a singular reconciliation between the Emperor Charles V. and Francis I. of France. These two sovereigns, after many years of inveterate warfare and personal hatred, had an interview at this place, in which they appeared mutually anxious to verge towards the extremes of friendship, and personal affection. Charles seemed to have forgotten that Francis was a Prince void of honour or integrity; and Francis that Charles had so frequently accused him of deservng such a character. *Agues-mortes*, a name not very inappropriate to such a circumstance, was honoured by this interview in the year 1558.

AIGUIELLE, in Military Tactics, the name of an engine or instrument which military engineers use in piercing a rock for the lodgment of gunpowder in a mine.

AIGUISCE, in Heraldry, is a cross borne on an escutcheon, its four ends being made acute, but terminating in obtuse angles.

AILE, v. } AS. Ailban; to be sick.
AILE, n. } To disease, disorder, pain; deprive
AILEMENT. } of soundness, health, or strength: to make useless.

Ther I was bred, (also that like day?)
And frosted in a roche of marble gray
So tenderly, that nothing ailed me
I or wist not what was afeverier,
Till I could see full high under the aile.

Gloucester. The Spicers Tale, v. l. p. 430.

Ich wot wel quath Hanger. what sykness gave aile?

Ye have manged overe much, put makyn geve hyske.

Faunce of Petre Prologue, p. 143

Then sayst, that dropping hosen, and che smokes

And chiding nives maken men to flee

Out of his owen hous; a, benedicite

What aileth swiche an old man to be to chide.

Chaucer. The Wyf of Bathes Prologue, p. 339.

— The new and king,

— Ferls sudden terror bring cold shivering;

— Lists not to cut, still mutes, sleeps unmoved,

— His smotherd, his steady eyes unquack,

— And much he ails, and yet he is not sick.

Donne's Civil Wars, book iii.

One who, not knowing what ails me, should come in, and see me in this soft bed, not only cured, but almost cured with cloaths, would confidently conclude, that, whether or no I be distressed by the contrary quality, I cannot at least be troubled with cold.

Boyle's Occasional Reflections. Sec. ii. Med. 2.

Man, who provides for the horse's sustenance, who keeps him clean, carries away his dung, and waits upon him when he has any ailment, is more than slave to the generous beast.

Arbuthnot's Man Wonderful, p. 10.

AILAH, a town of Arabia Petraea, at the N. W. extremity of Bah el Arabah, an arm of the Red sea. This is the Elath or Elath, of the scripture. (Deut. ii. 8.) It is now in a ruinous state, having only a fortress for the governor. Solomon sent vessels from this place to Ophir. It is 108 miles from Suez.

AILE, in Law, from the French *aile*, avus Lat., is a writ issuing when a man's grandfather dies, being seized of lands in fee simple, and a stranger abateeth or entereth the same day, dispossessing the heir of his inheritance.

AILERON, in Military Tactics, signifies a small buttress, or starting, which is placed in the current of a river or strong water-course, to prevent the force of the stream from acting on a bridge or other building, so as to undermine it.

AILESBUURY, or **AYLESBUURY**, an ancient and venerable borough and market town of Buckinghamshire, 18 miles from Buckingham, and 39 from London. This is the *Eglestbury* of the Saxons; and was at one time a well fortified British town, maintaining its independence against the incursions of the Saxon invaders, till reduced by Cuthwulf, brother to Cealwin, king of the West Saxons, in the year 571. St. Osmund, who was beheaded by the Pagans in Essex, was buried at this place, about the year 600, and, agreeably to the superstitious of that age, numerous miracles were ascribed to have been wrought by her relics in the church here; on which account a religious house was erected to her memory on the site of the present parsonage. Camden, speaking of this town, says, that it was bequeathed by Frewald to his daughter Editha; but to whom it descended from this pious lady, does not ap-

AIGUIELLE

AILES-

BURY.

AILES-
BURY.

pear. Subsequently, however, it became a royal manor, belonging to William the Conqueror, who invested his favourite with some of his lands, under the singular tenure of providing "straw for his bed and chamber, and three eels for his use in winter; and in summer, straw, rushes, and two green geese, thrice every year, if he should visit Aylesbury so often." Monarchs of later ages would deem this somewhat "hard measure"; but, as appears by the first volume of the *Archæologia*, straw was used for the royal bed as late as the reign of Henry VIII. In the reign of this monarch, the manor of Aylesbury was purchased by Sir John Baldwin, Lord Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas, having then descended to the heir of the earl of Wilts and Ormond, who had inherited it from the Fitz-Piers, Earls of Essex. The daughter of Sir John Baldwin having been married to one of the Packingtons, this manor came into that family, and has regularly descended in that line to the present times. This town is most delightfully situate in "The Vale of Aylesbury."

"Aylesbury's a vale that walloweth in her wealth,
And (by her wholesome air, continually in health)
Is luscious, firm, and fat; and holds her youthful strength."
Dryden's Poly-Olicon.

Fuller, in his "Worthies of England," says, "the best, and biggest-bodied sheep in England, are in the Vale of Aylesbury, where it is nothing to give ten pounds or more for a breed-ram. So that, should a forrainger here of the price thereof, he would guess the ram rather to be some *Roman eagle of battery*, than the creature commonly so called." The same writer also remarks, that in this vale an "intire pasture, called Beryfield, in the manor of Quarendon, is let yearly for eight hundred pounds, the tenant not complaining of his bargain." Fuller wrote in the year 1662.

In Leland's time the houses were of timber, but now they are mostly of brick. Though the county gaol is at Aylesbury, the summer assizes are holden at Buckingham. They were, however, at one time, removed to this town, and the Lent assizes are still holden here. It consists of several irregular streets, containing, altogether, according to the last census, 729 houses, occupied by 3447 inhabitants. The county hall is a handsome modern fabric, and the church a very ancient and spacious edifice. It was made prebendal to the see of Lincoln by William the First. The town was incorporated by royal charter, and empowered to return two members to Parliament in 1553. In the Rolls chapel, among the writs for the parliamentary returns, in the 14th Eliz. is a curious document, addressed by "Dame Dorothy Packington, late wife of Sir John Packington, Kt. lord and owner of the town of Aylesbury," to "all Christian people, &c." stating, that she had "chosen, named, and appointed her trusty and well-beloved Thomas Litchfield and George Barden, Esqrs. to be her burgesses of her said town of Aylesbury;" and further stating, that whatever the said Thomas and George should "do in the service of the Queen's Highness, in that present parliament, &c." she did ratify and approve to be of her own act, as fully and wholly as if she were witness or present there! On first receiving the privileges of a borough, the electors of Aylesbury were confined to the bailiff, nine aldermen, and twelve burgesses: but this charter being lost through neglect, the elective franchise was ex-

tended to all householders, not receiving alms; who amounted to between 300 and 400. This privilege also having been abused and corrupted, in the year 1804 a bill was brought into parliament for still further extending the right of election to the three adjoining hundreds; so that the number of voters are now nearly tripled. Besides the church, already mentioned, there are places of worship for several denominations of Protestant Dissenters.

During the late exile of the royal family of France, Aylesbury very sensibly felt the benefits of having even a banished monarch in its neighbourhood. Louis XVIII. with various members of his family, resided some years at Hartwell, about two miles from the town; and here his amiable consort, Marie Josephine Louise de Lavoie, Comtesse de Lille, died on the 13th Nov. 1810, in her 58th year.

Aylesbury gives the title of earl to the Brudenel family.

AILSA, a rocky islet, about 940 feet high, and two miles in circumference, near the isle of Bute, on the western coast of Scotland, seven miles from the shore. W. lon. 5°, 8'. N. lat. 55°, 18'. It is of considerable use as a land-mark, and is remarkable for the great quantities of sea-fowl, and solan geese, with which it abounds; as also for the goats and rabbits that inhabit its activities. The ruins of an ancient castle stand on this rock, which some writers have ascribed to Philip II. of Spain, but upon what authority is uncertain.

AILWESTON, a township of England, in the county of Hunts, about two miles from St. Neots and fifty-eight from London. At one time this place was celebrated for some medicinal springs, now disused.

AIM, v. } Pr. Assume. Esme; from the Lat.
AIM, n. } Adrestimare. Menage. Skinner be-
AIM'LESS. } sitates; but adds to Estimare, i. e. to weigh attentively: for we usually, before we throw or strike at a mark, consider it well, and estimate or reckon the distance of it accurately. And in this application it is constantly used, both literally and metaphorically.

Then Taurus aiming long to hard a dart of sturdy oak
Well tipt with Steele, at Pallus forth it flung, and thus he spoke,
Lo, see if that our dart be sharper than thy weapon was.

The stock Book of Aristotle, by Phædrus and Turgus.

Here first this goddesse faire, with passing speedy course doth light,
And from this hillside hure at Aruns aims within her sight.
The cleareste Booke of Aristotle, by Turgus.

First, that I most knowing yield
Both the bow and shaft I held
Unto her; which love might take
At her hand, with outdo, to make
Me the scope of his next shaft,
Aimed, with that self-same shaft.

Ben Jonson's Underwoods.

Distemper'd, discontented thoughts,
Vain hopes, vain aims, inordinate desires,
Blown up with high conceits ingendering pride.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book iv.

All might go well in the common-wealth, if every one in the parliament would lay down his own interest, and aim at the general good.

He that aims at a good end, and knows he uses proper means to obtain it, why should he despair of success.

Burrows's Sermons.

Its proper power to hurt each creature feels,
Bells aim their horns, and asses lift their heels.

Pope's Horace, book ii.

AILES-
BURY.
—AIM.

AIM.

AJMEER.

Make the dead ancients speak the British tongue;
That as each clattering dew, who *stems* at song,
In his own mother-tongue may humbly read
What engines yet are wanting in his head
To make him equal to the mighty dead.

Drury to Mr. Creech.

It has been observed, in speaking of that part of natural philosophy which contemplates substances, that we must never lose sight of capacities, if we aim at acquiring real knowledge.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

I have this moment received your letter of the 2d, from Prague; but I never revised that which you mention, from Ratisbon; this made me think you in such rapid motion, that I did not know where to take it.

Centurypole. Letter extracts.

I solitary court
Th' inspiring breeze; and meditate the book
Of nature ever open; aiming thence,
Warm from the heart, to learn the moral song.

Thomas's Autumn.

When a man aims at dominion, and proudly seeks the place of his lord, there can be no expiation for his offence, but loss of life.

See Hutton Jones's Disquisition.

No man is any further a christian than as he is a follower of Christ, aiming at a more perfect conformity to that most perfect example which he hath set us of universal goodness.

Mason's Self-Knowledge.

There are, who, deaf to mad ambition's call,
Would shrink to hear th' obsequious trumpet of fame;
Supremely blest, if to their portion fall
Health, competence, and peace. Nor higher aim
Had he, whose single task these ardent lines proclaim.

Beattie's Minstrel, book 1.

AIM-FRONTLET, in Military Tactics, an instrument made of wood, fitted to a gun, and of equal height to the breech, so as to assist in taking aim. It is not now in frequent use.

AIMARAÉZ, a district of Peru, bounded on the east by the province of Cotabamba, on the south by Paríacocha, and on the west and north-west by Andahuailas. Its extreme length is from N. to S. about 120 miles, and its breadth 26 miles. There are three inconsiderable rivers running through it, which finally unite into the Pachachaca, on the banks of which are many small settlements. Veins both of gold and silver, as well as some quicksilver-mines, have been discovered in this province, but they have been much neglected of late years, and are now mostly filled with water. The population is estimated at 15,000; a yearly tribute of 800,000 dollars was formerly received by the Spanish corregidor; sugar, cattle, and grain, abound in the few valleys that are found, but the mountains and snowy ridges that cover its surface render the climate cold and cheerless, and the inhabitants are generally poor.

AIMARGUES, or AYMARGUE, a town of France, about nine miles from Nîmes; containing a population of nearly 2,000 inhabitants.

AJMEER, AOMMEER, or RAJPOOTANA, a central province of Hindostan, bounded on the north by Delhi, on the east by Agra, on the south by Guzerat, and on the west by Sind, and the deserts toward the Indus. Its length is about 350 miles, and its breadth 220. It is inhabited by the Rajpoot, or warrior tribe of the Hindoos, who have maintained their position in its fastnesses from the earliest traces of history, being mentioned by Arrian and Diodorus. It consists of three principal states or governments, Marwar, Meywar, and Hadouty, or Jyenagur, which are again divided into several subdivisions, each subject to its own chief. The province yields some of the finest native soldiers

in India, but the want of unity among themselves have exposed all its districts to the ravages of the Mahrattas, from time immemorial; they pay a kind of tribute, annually, to the Mahratta states; and a considerable district in the neighbourhood of the capital is governed by Mahratta chieftains. The rivers are the Banau and Chundul; and its produce salt (from a large salt water lake), lead, and copper. The prince of Meywar, is called the Rama, and esteemed the noblest of all the Hindoo chiefs.

AJMEER, or DARALKHIER, a city of Hindostan, the capital of the above province. It is about six miles in circumference, and contains, with the suburbs, sixty-six pergunnahs or parishes. Though in a declining state, it possesses many marks of former magnificence and strength. Standing at the foot of a range of hills, and in the centre of the Rajpoot states, it has been seized by the Mahrattas, who still reverence its monuments, and never have been able to penetrate far into the neighbourhood. The Great Mogul levied his best troops from these provinces, at the zenith of the Mogul power; and received at this capital the English ambassador in 1716; but he spared the extensive palace and gardens, built here in the preceding century, and the celebrated tomb of Hafiz Jemmal, said to be held in high veneration by the Mahometans and Mahrattas. Near Ajmeer is also a remarkable resort of Hindu superstition called Phokur, a bathing place. Here is also a strong fort, called Tarangur. E. lon. 74°, 48'. N. lat. 26°, 35'.

AIN, in France. See AISNE.

AIN-DAIN, or ENA, a river in France, having its source in the mountains of Jura, Franche Comte, near Nozerol. It falls into the Rhone, about five leagues above the city of Lyons.

AIN-MUSA, or EL AAYON-MOUSSA, i. e. "The Wells of Moses." These are five wells, known by this name traditionally, on the western coast of Arabia, about eleven miles from Suez, and about two from the Red sea. Only one of them contains good water.

AINOS, or AINUS, a peculiar race of mankind, the aboriginals of Jesso, a large island in the N. Pacific ocean, and Saghalin; said to be covered with hair in extraordinary profusion. See JESSO.

AINTAB, a considerable town of Syria, on the banks of the Sejour, about 40 miles north of Aleppo, E. lon. 37°, 25'. N. lat. 36°, 25', and supposed to occupy the site of the Antiochia ad Taurum of the Romans. The town is built chiefly of stone; it has a strong castle, garrisoned by the janissaries, under a governor appointed from Constantinople. Here are five large mosques; but the inhabitants are a mixture of Armenian Christians and Mahometans. A considerable trade is carried on in cotton, coloured woollens, and dyed Turkey leather of various descriptions. It is about three miles in circumference.

AIOU, a cluster of islands, in the eastern seas, near the coast of Waygion. The largest is five miles in circumference; and is raised about 500 feet from the surface of the sea. It is called Aiou Baba. Tropical fruits, fish, and turtle, are the chief productions of these islands. The inhabitants carry on some trade with the Chinese in tortoise-shell, and *bêche de mer*, an animal of the mollusca tribe, much sought after in these seas. E. lon. 131°, 10'. N. lat. 24'.

AJMEER.

AIOU.

AIR.

AIR, v.
AER, n.
ÆRIAL,
ÆRIE,
AERIALS,
AERIALING,
AERLESS,
AERIALING,
AER'Y.

Gr. *āp, aw, ayp, to blow*: to breathe.

The application of this noun is various;—to the wind, to that which is exhaled, evaporated, which gains vent, or utterance.

To that which is light, gay, giddy, unsteady.

To motion through the air; to manner of moving generally, to the carriage or deportment of men.

To motion in the air, of sound, in music and poetry. Aery, is applied to the eagle's nest from its aerial situation.

Quoth that the very god of sleep gao thyde
Forth of the sterny beshy by mychis tyde
And dyd away the drykers of the are
Remouyng schaddid skyns mayd at fyre.

Douglas, book v. p. 126.

Or as a hynde that flyth throw in the ayre, and no man can see
very token where she is flowne, but sayth herselfe that saynt of her
wynges, beatinge the flyth wynde, partynge y^e ayre, sheweth the
homelye of her goynge, and flyth on shynkyng her wynges, where
as afterwards no token of her waye can be founde. Or lyke as when
no aere is shotte at a mark, if partly y^e ayre which immediately
cometh together agayne, so that a man can not knowe where it wylle
thowen.

Bible, 1538. Wyndame, c. v.

Fer Jupiter had from the benymin fare
Send down Iris, quibik ductils in the aere
Unto his spouse and sister thare at hand.
Full schap chargis bringe and command.

Douglas, book ix. p. 507.

For lone into his sister downe her aerie rainbow sent
With message nothing midde, and howe that some should some repent.

The sixth booke of *Ætærida* by Phæar.

— Then if you see,
Be pale, I begge but leave to aye this jewel: See!
And awe vs up again.

Shakespeare, *Cymbeline*, act ii.

It is fifteen yeeres since I saw my country: though I have (for
the most part) been well ayred abroad, I desire to lay my bones
there.

Id. *Winter Tale*, act iv.

Be thou a spirit of health or goblin damn'd,
Bring with thee ayres from heaven, or blasts from hell,
Be thy intents wicked or charitable.

Id. *Hamlet*, act i.

He that at midnight, when the very labourer sleeps securely,
should hear, as I have very often, the dew air, the sweet descant,
the natural rising and falling, the doubling and redoubling of
the voice, might well be lifted above earth, and say, Lord, what music
hast thou provided for the saints in heaven, when thou affordest
but men such music on earth!

Id.

The scripture informs us Christians, how Lucifer, the chief of
them, with his associates, fell from heaven for his pride, and auda-
cious—created of God, placed in heaven, and sometimes an angel of
light, now cast down into the lower aerial sublimary para.

Barton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

There is a little contemptible winged creature, an inhabitant of
my aerial element, namely, the laborious bee, of whose prodigious
policy, and regular government of their own commonwealth, I
might say much.

— But I was borne so high,
Our aerys buildeth in the cedar's top,
And dailies with the wind, and across the same,

Shakespeare, *Richard III.*, act i.

No, know the gallant stomach is in arms,
And like an eagle o'er his aerie towers
To assaye amyssement that comes neere his nest.

Id. *King John*, act iv.

As for the cause, it is not so reasonably imputed onto the break-
ing of the gall as the profection or corruptive fermentation of the
body, whereby the unnatural heat prevailing, the putrifying parts

do suffer a turgescence and inflation, and becoming aery and spongy
affect to approach the ayre and ascend unto the surface of the water.

Brown's *Vulgar Errata*.

The nightingale, another of my airy creatures, breathes such sweet
loud music out of her little instrumental throat, that it might make
mankind to think miracles are not ceased.

Walton's *Angler*.

The waters must by thy command be gathered into one place, the
sea: so the upper waters must be severed by these airy fountains from
the lower.

Beside the remarkable teeth, the tongue of this animal [the
camelion] is a second argument to overthrow this airy contrivance.

Brown's *Vulgar Errata*.

The air serves us, and all animals, to breathe in; containing the
fuel of that vital flame we speak of, without which it would speedily
furnish and go out; so necessary it is for us, and other land animals,
that, without the use of it, we could live but very few minutes.

Ray's *Wisdom of God in the Creation*.

Where power was less, that encompassed the earth with air, so
wonderfully contrived, as at one and the same time to support
clouds for rain, to afford winds for health and traffic, to be proper
for the breath of animals by its spring, for causing sounds by its
friction, for transmitting light by its transparency?

Clerke's *Sermon*.

Or sicker baskets weave, or air the corn.

Or grinded grain betwixt two wheels turn.

No laws divine or human can restrain,

From necessary works the laboring wain

Dryden's *Virgil*. Gen. book i.

— Water stopp'd gives birth

To grass and plants, and thickens into earth.

Diffus'd, it rises in a higher sphere,

Dilates its drops, and softens into air:

These finer parts of air again aspire,

Move into warmth, and brighten into fire.

Prior's *Solomon*.

It is certain, that married persons, who are possessed with a mis-
tall esteem, not only catch the air and way of talk from one another,
but fall into the same traces of thinking and liking.

Id. No. 666.

Should aerial and ethereal vehicles come once, by the prevalence
of that doctrine, to be generally received any where, no doubt those
terms would make impressions on men's minds, so as to establish
them in the persuasion of the reality of such things.

Locke's *Essay on Human Understanding*.

Mr. Chacewell visits very few gentlemen in the country; his most
frequent airings in the summer-time are visits to my lady Lland.

Garrison, No. 9.

Too great liberties taken [in translation] in varying either the ex-
pression or the composition, in order to give a new air to the whole,
will be apt to have a very bad effect.

Locke, *On Insult*. Preliminary Dissertation.

Every animal has an aliment peculiarly suited to its constitution.
The heavy ox seeks nourishment from earth; the light camelion has
been supposed to exist on air.

Goldsmith, *On the Present State of Police Learning*.

I never in my life choosed to see a paruch fly; and yet before,
very long before I considered any aptitude in his form for the aerial
life, I was struck with the extreme beauty which nature had laid
above many of the best flying fowls in the world.

Burke, *On the Sublime and Beautiful*.

The summit of the whole semi-circular range is finely adorned with
scattered trees, which often break the hard bosom of the rock; and by
admitting the light, give an air to the whole.

Gilpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

An airing in his patron's chariot has supplied him with a citizen's
coach on every future occasion.

Goldsmith, *On the Present State of Police Learning*.

— Airy dreams

Sat for the picture; and the poet's hand

Imparting substance to an empty shade

Imposed a gay delirium for a truth.

Cooper, *Fish*. Book ix.

AIR, in Physics. See PNEUMATIC, Div. ii.

AIR, in Chemistry. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii.

AIR.

AIR.

AIR, in Music, signifies the treble part of a composition, or the main, or most leading tone of the piece, by which all other parts are to be regulated. They therefore may be called different modifications of the air, and must be made to harmonize with it, although they may not always harmonize with each other. There are three kinds of airs in dramatic music; the aria cantabile, or the air of song; the aria di bravura, the air of execution; and the aria parlanta, or speaking air. The first is usually applied to the pathos, or effect of music; the second (bravura) to prove the brilliancy and difficulty of execution; and the parlanta to that music which approaches nearest to the natural manner of earnest speech. This last is therefore used in recitative.

AIR, in Painting, is applied similarly to its use in common life, and is equivalent to gesture or graceful action. Air, or air-tint, is likewise a term among painters, to signify the light and airy colours, thrown on the landscape or figures, most commonly in the distance, or middle distance of the piece. It is sometimes applied to the medium of air through which each object is supposed to be viewed, and by which it is harmonized in colour to every other. This is by others, and more properly, called the *tone* of the picture.

AIR-BALLOON. See AERONAUTICS.

AIR-BLADDER, or **AIR-BAG**, in Physiology, names given to certain receptacles of air in the bodies of birds and fish. Hunter first attracted the attention of anatomists to this peculiarity in birds, and considers them as a kind of appendage to the lungs. They are found in the soft parts of the body, and have a common communication with the lungs, and some of them immediately with each other, but with no other parts of the system. They seem to be designed for the assistance of the respiration and retention of air, like the similar vessels in fish; they render the body specifically lighter, materially assist birds in their flight, and, as some have conjectured, in singing. See ZOOLOGY and ANATOMY, Div. ii.

In fishes they are sometimes properly called the swimming bladder, and "the sound." They are situated close to the back bone, and are furnished with a strong muscular coat, by which they are dilated or contracted at pleasure. Some fishes have one; others, two or three of these receptacles. Those of the cartilaginous and cetaceous kinds have none. Upon the formation of the air in these vessels, and its specific uses to the animal, various experiments have been made by Dr. Priestley, Dr. Monro, and others; by emitting air out of the bladder it would sometimes seem that fish can regulate their rising or descent in the water, and as it is certain they do not live without air, to be enabled to breathe less frequently by possessing such a reservoir, appears to be the principal design of this provision in nature. See as above.

AIR-GUN. See PNEUMATICS, Div. ii.

AIR-JACKET, a kind of leather jacket, containing bags or bladders of air, to assist a person in swimming. These bags communicate with each other, and are filled by a common pipe, furnished with a stop-cock; the whole apparatus must be well moistened with water before it is used, or the pores of the leather will let the air escape; and then it is placed like the common bladders used on such occasions, under the breast.

AIR-LAMP. See PNEUMATICS, Div. ii.

AIR-PIPES, are a recent invention for the ventilation of ships by means of the rarefying power of heat. Mr. Sutton, a brewer of London, having observed the easy method by which a continued stream of air may be produced in the neighbourhood of a fire, from the denser particles being made continually to take the place of those which become rarefied by the heat, proposed to avail himself of the common fires which are kept in vessels for the purpose of purifying them from foul air. If the usual aperture to any fire be closed up in front, and another introduced by the side of the fire-place, it will attract the current of air into that direction; and the coppers or boiling-places of ships are well-known to be placed over two holes, separated by a grate, the one for the fire, the other for the ashes; there is also a flue from the top for the discharge of smoke. Now Mr. Sutton's pipes (as they are sometimes called) are introduced into the ash-place, and carried through the hold to any part of the vessel. The two holes, before alluded to, are closed up by strong iron doors, a continued draught of air supplies the fire, and creates a salutary circulation through any part of the vessel into which the pipes may be directed. They are made either of copper or lead.

AIR-PUMP. See PNEUMATICS, Div. ii.

AIR-SHAFTS, in Mining; holes or shafts let down from the open air to communicate with the adits, and discharge the vapours. The expense of these shafts sometimes exceeds that of working the adit itself; hence various methods have been suggested for obviating the necessity of them. At Mendip, boxes of elm, accurately closed, have been taken down to the depth of twenty fathoms for the supply of fresh air, because the miners are unwilling to sink an air-shaft until they obtain a good vein of ore. See *Phil. Trans.* No. 5 and No. 39.

AIR-VESSELS, in Hydraulics, metalline cylinders, which are placed between the two foreign pumps in fire-engines. The water is ejected by means of two pipes with valves into this vessel, when the air previously contained in it becomes compressed, and by its elasticity ejects a constant and equal stream into the external pipe. The principle has of late years been applied to various engines for the ejection of water.

AIR-VESSELS, in Botany, certain canals or ducts, which promote absorption and respiration in vegetables. They are found in the trunks, stems, and even in the leaves of plants. Dr. Darwin made interesting experiments upon them which he gives in his *Phytologia*; see also GREW's *Anatomy of Roots*, chap. iv.

AIRA, in Botany, a genus of plants; class Triandria, order Digynia.

AIRE, a town of France, in the department of Landes, formerly the capital of Gascony Proper, now the head of a populous canton, in the arrondissement of St. Sever, 27 miles from Pau, and 465 from Paris. It was taken by the Romans in the time of Julius Cæsar, and was thence called *Vicus Julii*. This town has experienced many changes, having been successively in the hands of the ancient Franks, the Romans, and the Visigoths, by the last of whom it was greatly improved, and strengthened. Alaric II. who was subsequently overthrown by the personal valour of Clovis, king of the Franks, built a castle here; but this with all the other

AIR.
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AIRE.

AIRE.
AIS-
LINGEN.

fortifications, suffered very much during the sanguinary conquests between the Ariaks, the Paganas, and the Catholics, whose religious wars spread devastation through the fairest portions of France and Italy, until the final establishment of the French monarchy in Gaul. The present population of Aire, including the village of Le Mas, is about 3000 persons. There is another town of this name in France, 13 miles from St. Omer; but, though also the head of a canton, it is not a place of much consequence.

AIRE, or AIZ, one of the most considerable rivers in Yorkshire, which rises in the hills of Craven, about six miles N. E. of Settle, and runs with a slow and silent stream by Skipton; then winding to the E. and S. E. and passing the busy town of Leeds, those of Pontefract, Snaith, and Rawcliffe, it falls into the Ouse, a little below Arman, near Booth Ferry; having been previously augmented by the Calder, about five miles N. E. of Wakefield. This river, which is navigable to Leeds, is extremely useful in transporting the woollen manufactures through various parts of the county. In the year 1208, King John granted an important charter to the town of Leeds, which seems to prove the river Aire to have been navigable as early as the 12th century. This valuable stream finally empties itself into the Humber, and is thus connected with the North sea on the east; while, communicating with the Leeds and Liverpool canal, it may be said also to connect itself with the Irish sea and St. George's channel, on the west.

AIRING, in the Menage, an important part of the management of a horse. It not only purifies the blood, and excites appetite, but inures him to let his wind rate equally, and according to his action. The best time for airing horses is said to be before sun-rise, and after sun-set, especially strong horses and those inclined to feed. In weaker health, a warmer hour of the morning should be taken.

AIRS, in the Menage, the practised motions and artificial action of a horse. Some have divided them into the natural paces, as walking, trotting, galloping, &c. and those practised by management, such as the demi-volt, curvet, capriole, bounding, leaping, &c.

AIRVAULT, or AIRVAUX, a town of France, in the Department of the Deux Sèvres, in the ancient province of Poitou. It contains about 440 houses, and 2070 inhabitants. It is 42 miles from Niort.

AISEAU, a marquise, with a village of the same name in the kingdom of the Netherlands. It is three miles from Chatelet.

AISLE, *n.* Lat. Ala, a wing.

Applied to the wings or sides of churches.

Not you, ye proud, impute to these the fault,
If Memory o'er their tomb an trophies raise,
Where through the long drawn aisle and fretted vault,
The pealing anthem swells the note of praise.

Gray's Elegy.

At the end of the western aisle stands the ruins of a low, simple tower, where the bells of the abbey are supposed to have hung; and from the south side projects a building, which is called the chapter-house.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

AISLINGEN, a district, or county, in the kingdom of Bavaria, in the circle of the Upper Danube, formerly a free county of the German empire, belonging to the bishopric of Augsburg. There is a market-town of this name, lying about four miles S. of Dillenburg.

VOL. XVII.

gen, which has a castle and halliwick, and about 1200 inhabitants.

AISNE, or AIXE, a navigable river of France. It joins the Oise, near Compiègne, after a course of about 120 miles; and becomes navigable near Chateau-Portien. Some ineffectual attempts have been made to connect this river, by means of canals, with the Meuse.

AISNE, or AIX, a department of France, which takes its name from the above river, comprising the ancient districts of Bresse, Bugly, and a part of Burgundy. It contains about 299 square leagues, and is surrounded by the departments of the Loire, the Saône, and the Rhone. It is divided into the arrondissements of Bozorg, Nantua, Belley, and Trevoux.

AITONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Monadelphina, order Octandria, to which this name has been given, in honour of the late Mr. Aiton, his Majesty's gardener at Kew.

AJUGA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Didynamia, order Gymnosperma.

AJUS LOCUTUS, in Mythology, a divinity or deified voice amongst the Romans, to whom an altar was erected in memory of a supernatural warning of the attack of Rome by the Gauls. A voice is said to have been heard, by a plebeian, issuing from the temple of Vesta, which announced that circumstance; and after they had been repulsed, Camillus erected a temple to the interposing deity, under this name.

AJUTAGE, in Hydrodynamics (ajouter, Fr. to adapt), that part of the mechanical apparatus of a fountain which regulates the direction and shape into which the water is thrown. It generally intends the extreme aperture, or small tube fitted to the aperture of the cistern or pipe; by varying which, different kinds of jet d'eau are produced from the same spring or source of water. The application of Hydrodynamics to these ornaments of the garden has been the means of bringing down to us some of the most curious opinions of the ancients on the theory of that science. See HYDRODYNAMICS, Div. ii. Introductory Chapter. In modern times, the French have much excelled in their constructions.

AIX, a very ancient town of France, formerly the capital of Provence, and now of the department of the *Bouches du Rhone*, is situated in a plain near the river Arc, about 489 miles from Paris, 48 S. E. of Avignon, and 21 N. of Marseilles. It was founded by the Roman general Cuius Sextius Calpurnius, *n.* c. 120, and received the name *Aque Sextie*, on account of the numerous medicinal springs in the vicinity. In the most correct maps of the western empire, *Aque Sextie* occupies a conspicuous situation near the northern shores of the Mediterranean; several of the Roman baths were discovered here about the year 1704, with various medals and other relics of antiquity; and until 1779, there were three ancient towers in the centre of the town which exhibited traces of some of the best times of Roman architecture. These were at that time barbarously demolished for the purpose of erecting a public building, not yet finished, and some fragments of the columns are to be seen in the walls and ornaments of the hotel de Ville. The few other relics of antiquity with which the town was adorned, have been almost entirely destroyed by the desolating fury of the Revolution.

Aix has, however, always been distinguished in the

AIS-
LINGEN.
AIX.

AIX.

history of Provence. The counts of Provence resided here; and the parliament of Aix was frequently celebrated for men both of literary and political eminence. Here was also a Jesuit's college, and a famous university founded in 1409, at which the celebrated *Petrarca*, a native of Aix, studied for some time. A lycee was substituted for these institutions at the revolution. Valuable libraries, both public and private, have thus been accumulated, and the cabinets of the opulent in the town and neighbourhood are said to be very rich in the stores of nature and art. The modern city is handsome and very populous; it is surrounded by a wall, and has eight gates. The cathedral of St. Sauveur is a noble gothic structure, and has suffered less from the late changes than the other religious edifices. Its gates of sculptured walnut-tree, bearing date about 1504, contain many figures of delicate execution, and are curious altogether as a specimen of art; they are protected by shutters, which are only removed on particular occasions. St. John's, the church of the Magdalene, and of l'Esprit, are also worth notice; as well as the three excellently conducted hospitals near the town, *La Charité*, *La Trinité* (for Innatics), and the *Hôtel Dieu*. The *palais* is an ancient building, occupying an entire side of one of the principal squares, and containing several large halls, at one time used by the parliament and other public bodies. This square, planted with elms, is called the *Place des Precheurs*, the sides are upwards of 500 feet in length, and there is a handsome jet d'eau in the centre. But the finest quarter of the town is *Orbèille*, a favourite and fashionable cours or promenade, 1500 feet long, adorned with rows of elms, making five elegant avenues, and three fountains in the centre. One of them is said to furnish water warm enough for domestic use. This is the principal entrance to the city from Paris, Lyons, and Avignon, and is terminated towards the environs, by a handsome iron gate and palisade.

The waters of Aix have still some celebrity in cutaneous disorders, consumption, rheumatism, &c. and are found in the *Fauxbourg de Cordelière*. Some marble baths are preserved with care, and are assumed to be of Roman construction. May is the best time for bathing. The inhabitants carry on a good and an increasing trade in oil, velvet, and silks; wine, brandy, almonds, wool, grain, raisins, and other dried fruits; fish, vermicelli, and hardware of various kinds; so that Aix has been long accounted one of the most flourishing trading towns in all France. According to the last census, the number of inhabitants amounted to nearly 27,000. The environs are very beautiful.

Aix, is also a small ancient town of France, in the department of Upper Vienne. *Aix-en-Othe* is in the department of the Aube; and *Aix-d'Angoulême*, in the department of the Cher. There is also a small town of the name of Aix, in Savoy, about 12 miles N. of Chambéry, chiefly remarkable for its warm baths, originally constructed by the Emperor Gratian.

Aix is likewise the name of a small island belonging to France, near Rochefort, on the coast of the *Aunis*. The fort was destroyed in 1757, by the English, under the command of Admiral Knowles, who was sent out for the express purpose of taking this island. The fortifications were afterwards rebuilt, and have since been kept in a respectable state of defence.

AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, a town of Germany, now in-

AIX.

cluded in the Prussian dominions, is situated in N. lat. 51° 55', and E. lon. 5° 54'. Aix-la-Chapelle, once a free imperial city, received its appellation of *La Chapelle*, from a chapel built here to the blessed Virgin, by Charlemagne. Both Cæsar and Tacitus mention a town on this spot, as in the possession of the Romans during their invasion of Germany. It was then strongly fortified, and was denominated by the invaders, *Aquis-Granum*, *Aqua*, and *Urbs Aquensis*; on account of its celebrated baths. The emperors of Germany were generally crowned here, from the time of Charlemagne (who died and was buried in this city, after having long made it his favourite residence) to the reign of Ferdinand I. brother of Charles V. Since that period, the ceremony of coronation has been performed at Frankfurt on the Main. The Emperor Otho being crowned here in 983, built a new palace and church in the city (the cathedral church of Notre Dame), where his tomb is still exhibited, and in which there is a monument to Charlemagne, much admired. Till very lately his sword and belt were also preserved in this city, and the robes and regalia used at the coronation of the emperors. These were kept in the chapel of the convent, where also were a sabre belonging to Charlemagne; a copy of the holy gospels, written upon a blue kind of bark, in characters of gold, and a shrine containing some of the blood of St. Stephen, the protomartyr, several other relics of saints, &c. Most of these valuable deposits were removed during the late political changes on the continent; but the emperor of Austria is said to have transferred the three principal appendages of the chapel to Vienna; i.e. the gospels, Charlemagne's sword, and the shrine above mentioned, as indispensably necessary to the future coronation of the emperors. The town, however, still retains some of the privileges conferred upon it by its early imperial protector, and is to this day of considerable importance, having long held the second rank among the imperial towns of the circle of Westphalia. In the year 1792, it was taken by the revolutionary forces of France, but was retaken in 1793, and finally again seized by the French, under the command of General Jourdan, in 1794, who defeated Clairfait, near Juliers, and soon made the French masters of Cologne and Bonn. It continued to form a part of the French empire, being the capital of the department of the Roer, and head of the arrondissement, till the fall of Bonaparte (upwards of twenty years), when it was ceded to Prussia by the treaty of Vienna. During this period, the bishop and clergy of Aix-la-Chapelle, testified their gratitude to the ex-département emperor (then first consul), as the restorer of the Gallican church, by an elegant column in the area to the principal entrance of the cathedral, bearing in the inscription, *Herui Bonaparte Reipublice Gallicæ Primo Consuli, Episcopus Clerusque Aquensis Pœnestæ*, and recording the triumph of France. The Cossacks, when here, overturned it to get at the coins which were deposited beneath; but the king of Prussia restored it, altering some parts of the inscription dishonourable to Prussia.

This city makes a considerable figure in the history of modern Europe, from the circumstance of its having been the scene of two celebrated treaties of peace between France and Spain, and between the several powers engaged in the war concerning the Austrian succession. The first of these treaties took place in 1688,

AIX.

at the period of the celebrated triple alliance between Great Britain, the States General of the United Netherlands, and the king of Sweden. The other, in 1748.

The thermal sulphureous waters of this place have long been reckoned amongst the most valuable mineral springs of Europe. They are generally denominated the *Aken waters*—*Therma Aquigræuonæ*. A chemical analysis of this water discovers its gaseous contents to be a small portion of carbonic acid, and much sulphurated hydrogen gas, highly supersaturated, and of great volatility and pungency. The sulphur is sublimed, in a cistern, in the form of a fine powder: which is gathered, as it accumulates from time to time, and sold in the shops as *Aix sulphur*. That which is still retained in the water, becomes volatilized by evaporation: for when the water is exhausted by boiling, no particles remain in the residuum. A quantity of uncombined soda, is among the most important articles of its solid contents. There is also a minute portion of common salt and carbonated lime; but it does not appear that there are any purely metallic proportions belonging to these waters. According to Bergmann's analysis, an English pint, wine measure, is found to contain four grains and three quarters of carbonated lime, five grains of common salt, and twelve of carbonated soda.

The springs, five in number, from whence rise these waters, are found in various parts of the town. The chief of them is enclosed within a square stone cistern, covered at the top, which is somewhat contracted by a flat stone, to prevent the evaporation of the sulphureous vapours, and to receive the sublimed sulphur, or powder, before mentioned.

The baths, which these several springs plentifully supply, are numerous, and sufficiently commodious for the purposes both of warm and vapour bathing. The water rises very rapidly from the springs, and sends forth, from small air-bubbles on its surface, a strong smell, not unlike that which issues from similar bubbles in the Harrogate waters of Yorkshire. The highest degree of heat in this water is said to be about 143° of Fahrenheit. This is near the spring; but at the pump, where it is drawn for drinking, it is not more than 112°. It also resembles the Harrogate waters in its clear and transparent appearance when first drawn; as it cools from exposure to the atmospheric air, it becomes turbid and whitish, gradually abating its strong bituminous character. The carbonated soda which it contains renders it somewhat saponaceous; hence it is frequently used for fulling and cleansing wool and linen.

The town itself is situated in a valley, surrounded with mountainous and woody districts, and consists of two great divisions or portions, one inclosed within the other; the inner one being the most ancient, the outer one built about the year 1172. The first is nearly three miles in circumference, the other about six miles, and has eight gates. There are several good stone-built houses in the town; but the principal buildings are the staid-house and the cathedral. Statues of good workmanship, of all the emperors since Charlemagne, adorn the first of these edifices. On the top of a fountain in front, is a fine statue of gilt brass of Charlemagne himself, holding a sceptre in his right hand, and a globe in his left.

The trade of this city is considerable; the needle manufactory is said to be not inferior to any in Europe. There is also a large manufactory for pins, and some others of cloth, copper, and brass; salt, soap, alum, &c. Besides the Roman Catholic cathedral, there are also places of worship for several denominations of Protestants, who enjoy the free exercise of their several religious creeds and practices. The population is about 25,000 souls.

AIZOON, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Icosandria, order Pentagynia.

AKASAKA, a town of Japan, on the S. coast of the island of Niphon, remarkable for the licentiousness of its inhabitants. It is 140 miles from Jeddo.

AKDASCH, a town of Persia, situated on the banks of the Kur or Cyrus, in the province of Schirvan, distant about 30 miles S.W. of Schamaghi. It contains about 300 houses only, but has a considerable trade in silk; and the neighbourhood produces abundance of grain and fruit of various kinds.

AKERMANN, **AKTIEMANN**, or **BIALOGROD**, a fortress of Russia, in Bessarabia, on the coast of the Black sea, near the Dniester. It is 68 miles S.W. of Oczakow. E. lon. 31°, 14'. N. lat. 46°, 8'.

AKHISAR, or **WHITE CASTLE**, a town of Asiatic Turkey; so called from its quarries of white marble. It stands on, or very near to, the site of the ancient Thyatira. It is upwards of 40 miles from Pergamos, on the banks of the Hermus, in a plain, about 18 miles in extent, abounding in grain and cotton. The inhabitants, who are about 5,000 in number, carry on some trade in opium and Turkey carpets.

AKIN. Of kin. See **KIN**.

Not let not a woman cast in her husband's teeth any benefit done unto him by her, which is an uttering & displacement thing, yea, among those that be nothing a kin together.

Instruction of a Christian Woman.—Verse, by Richard Dyer, § 3.
We have sinned our selves only to the legitimate issue of Akin; and after such who are properly princes, we have inserted some who in courtesy and equity may be so accepted, as the heirs to the crown though not possessed thereof, or rise so near as kin therunto, that much of history doth necessarily depend upon them.

Fauler's History of England.
Some blebs again, in ball or stature
Unlike, not akin by nature,
In concert act, like modern friends,
Because one serves the other's ends,
The men thus waits upon the hour,
Be quick to take the bull's part.

The terms of pure and mixed, when applied to bottles, are much akin to simple and compound.
Watts's Logick.

— Their idle sport,
Who past with application misapplied
To trivial toys, and pushing iv'ry balls
Across a velvet level, feel a joy
Akin to rapture, when the laudable finds
Its death in gold.

Emper's Task.

AKISKA, or **GHALZIG**, a province of Asiatic Turkey. See **GHALZIG**.

AKKA, a station of some consequence, of the Lower Suse, on the S. of Morocco, bordering on the Great Desert of Sahara. The surrounding country, or territory, contains, according to Mr. Jackson, a population of 10,000 inhabitants. Caravans, from all parts of Morocco, on their journey to Tombuctoo, make this their place of rendezvous.

AKKER, a city of Syria, seated upon mount Bargylus,

AIX.

AKKER.

AKKER.
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ALABAN-
DINE.

about 27 miles from Tortosa. Shaw conjectures that this is the Kir of the scriptures, mentioned by the prophet Amos, c. l. 5. & c. ix. 7. and intimates that it must formerly have been as celebrated for its strength and beauty, as it is now for its various kinds of fruits, as apricots, peaches, nectarines, &c.

AKOND, in Persian Polity, an officer whose duty it is to preside over the causes of widows and orphans, and to judge of controversies respecting civil contracts. He possesses deputies in all parts of the Persian empire, and gives directions, or, as some say, lectures to all inferior officers.

AKSCHINSK, a fortress and village of Russian Tartary, in Dauria, situated on the right bank of the Onon. It was built by the Russians in the year 1756, and forms one of a series, or chain of military posts, on this portion of the Russian frontiers. E. lon. 132°. N. lat. 50°.

AKSHEHR, a town of Natolia, in Asiatic Turkey, at the foot of a mountain of the same name, from whence copious streams of water constantly descend, forming a rivulet through most of the streets. The neighbourhood abounds in beautiful gardens, rich in almost all the fruits of Europe. Fine carpets, wool, wax, gum tragacanth, and galls, are exported from this place to Smyrna. In the year 1402, Tamerlane took this town. It is 60 miles from Karahissar.

AKSOR, a village of Egypt, on the site of the ancient Thebes. See THEBES.

AKTUBA, a river of Asiatic Russia, originating from the Volga, nearly twelve miles from Tarizten; and which after having rejoined the Parvent, empties its waters into the Caspian sea. Abundance of mulberry trees growing on its banks have induced the Russians to erect several colonies here for the culture of silk.

ALA, a market town of Austria, seated on the Adige, in the principality of Trent. Population 4000.

ALA, or WING, in Anatomy, a term used to describe some parts of the human body which have been thought to resemble wings, such as the alae or lobes of the liver.

ALABAMA, a river in N. America, formed by the junction of the two rivers of Georgia, the Coosa, and Tallapoossee. This is a beautiful river, abounding with excellent fish, having a gentle current running about two miles an hour. After its junction with the two rivers above-named, it takes a south-westerly direction, until it meets the Tombigbee from the N.W. and finally empties itself into the gulf of Mexico. Its banks abound with trees and vegetables of various kinds, and it forms a quick and pleasant conveyance by large boats from Little Tallahassee to Mobile bay, a distance by water, of about 350 miles. There is an Indian village of this name, situated on the bank of the Mississippi. They are the remains of the Alabama nation, who, before they were conquered by the Creeks, inhabited the E. side of the great Mobile river.

ALABANDA, in Ancient Geography, an inland town of Caria, in Asia Minor, so called from Alabandus, the founder, who was worshipped here. The place abounded in scorpions, and the inhabitants were remarkable for their voluptuousness.

ALABANDINE, or ALMONDINE, in Ancient Mineralogy, a gem described as of a deep red colour; and in hardness, between the ruby and garnet, with the latter of which it now classes. It seems to have had its name from being found near the above town.

ALABASTER, α. Αλαβαστρος; perhaps from α et ALABASTER, which, says Vossius, we cannot hold.

A woman even that hidde a boxe of alabastrs of preloome oyment spienard, and wharoe the lote of alabastrs was broken she hidde it on his head. *Udy. Mark. c. xiv.*

Ther cam a woman haaving an alabastr boxe of oyment, called Nardis, that was pure and costly: & she brake the boxe & poured it on his head. *Idle. 1359. Id.*

And northward, in a turret on the wall,
Of alabastr white and red corall
An emulorische for to see,
In worship of Diane of chastiter,
Hath Theresus danc wrought in noble wile.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. i. p. 76.

The dome of Mars was on the gate appoy'd,
And on the north a turret was enclos'd
Within the wall, of alabastr white
A crimson coral for the queen of right.

Dryden. Pal. and Arcite.

Why should a man, whose blood is warm within,
Sit like his grandfather cut in alabastr?
Sleep when he wakes: & creep into the laundries
With being peevish. *Shakespeare. Merch. of Ven. act i.*

He [John Still, D. D.] gave five hundred pounds for the building of an Almshouse in the city of Wells; and, dying February 26, 1607, lies buried in his own Cathedral under a neat tomb of alabastr.

It was a rock
Of alabastr piled up to the clouds
Conspicuous far, winding with one ascent,
Accessible from earth, one entrance high;
The rest was craggy cliff, that overhanging
Stall as it rose impossible to climb.

Milton. Par. L. book ii.

Oh have I said, the praise of doing well
Is to the ear, no ointment to the smell;
Now if some flies, perchance, however small,
Into the alabastr urn should fall,
The odours of the sweets, includ'd would die
And stench corrupt (sad change), their place supply.

Prior. Solon. book iii.

ALABASTER, among Artists, the common name in ancient and modern times for gypsum, and the calciner of modern mineralogy. Pliny uses the term alabastrites for both these substances. See MIXERALOGY, Div. ii.

ALABASTER, in Antiquity, a name sometimes given to boxes or vases containing odoriferous liquors, from their having been frequently made of this material. It was also sometimes used for a liquid measure, containing half a sextary.

ALABASTER, one of the Bahama islands on the Great Bahama bank. It has a healthy and fruitful climate and soil, producing large quantities of pine apples. Here is a small fort with a garrison. W. lon. 76°, 22'. N. lat. 25°, 40'.

ALABASTRITE, ALABASTRITES, ALABASTRUM BRUNOIDE, are names for particular kinds of Alabastr, which, see above.

ALABASTRA, in Botany, the small herbaceous leaves at the bottom of flowers, particularly those around the rose, or the bud of a flower generally, and the calyx that supports it, from their resembling the ancient box of alabastr both in shape and odour.

ALABASTRON, in Ancient Geography, a town of Lower Egypt, in the district of Cynopolis, between the Nile and the Red sea. Alabastr was found in its vicinity of excellent quality. *PLIN. l. v. c. 11.*

ALACH, a bailiwick of Germany, in the Erfurt terri-

ALABAS-
TER.
—
ALACH.

ALACH tory, containing thirteen villages, of which six are attached to the Lutheran church.

ALACHUA SAVANNAH, a level plain, of about 15 miles across, and 50 in circumference, with scarcely any trees or underwood upon it, in East Florida, about 75 miles from St. Augustine. Though this Savannah is itself comparatively barren, the surrounding hills, along the united bases of which it is extended, are richly furnished with forests, groves of fragrant orange trees, and other exuberant foliage. A town of this name once stood on the borders of this plain; but the unhealthiness of the climate induced the Indians to remove about two miles further.

ALACRANES, a long range or chain of hidden rocks, on the south side of the gulf of Mexico, opposite the coast of Yucatan, E. from Stone Bank, and W. from Cape Antonio, within the 23rd degree of N. lat. and the 89th and 91st of W. lon. These rocks are impervious to mariners; and, although there are some good channels and soundings, it is more safe and more usual to pass round them.

ALACRITY, *n.* } Vossius prefers the etymology of Donatus. Alacris from Alacridus, }
ALACRIDUS, } Alacris, non tristis, nat. and.
ALACRIDNESS, } Without sadness, dullness, heaviness; i. e. with cheerfulness, liveliness, readiness.

For as the holy doctor saint Chrysostome saith, though pain be grievous for the nature of y^e affliction yet it is pleasant by the alacrity and quick mind of them that wylfully suffer it.

Sir Tho. More's Works, p. 73. col. 1.

The rogues slighted me into the river with as little remorse as they would have done; de a blisful little pappies, fifteen in the litter: and you may know by my size that I have a kind of alacrity of sinking. *Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor, act. iii.*

To infuse some life, some alacritas into you, I shall descend to the more scintillating, quickening, enlivening part of the text.

Hammond's Sermons.

Satan said not to reply,

But, glad that now his sea should find a shore,

With fresh alacrity, and force renewed,

Springs up, as it were, like a pyramid of fire,

Into the wild expanse. *Milton's Par. L. book ii.*

Whom would not the sight of such a fore-runner animate and quicken in his course; who, by running in the straight way of righteousness with alacrity and constancy, hath obtained himself a most glorious crown. *Barnes's Sermons.*

Avoid disagreeable things as much as by dexterity you can; but when they are unavoidable, do them with seeming willingness and alacrity. *Chesterfield. Let. octulxii.*

The mind of man has naturally a far greater alacrity and satisfaction in tracing resemblances than in searching for differences.

Burke's Sublime and Beautiful.

Epinomis alacritas expired, in confidence that he left behind him a perpetual memory of the victories he had achieved for his country. *Guerrant's of the Tongue, upon Johnson's Dict.*

ALADINI, in Arabian History, a sect of free-thinkers, who multiplied considerably in the reigns of Almanassor and Miramolinus.

ALADULIA, a province of Natolia, or Lesser Asia, in Asiatic Turkey, and one of its principal subdivisions. It comprehends the towns of Ajazzo and Marath, or Marasch, and Cappadocia, and is called by the Turks the Bel-rhégate of Marasch, or Dulgadir. There is but little, if any, arable land in this district; but the pastures are extremely rich, and feed immense quantities of cattle. The Cappadocian horses have been the theme of much deserved panegyric from the pens of several historians. During the reign of Constantine the Great, the plains that stretch from the foot of

mount Argæus to the banks of the Sarus, were covered with a generous race of those animals, who were renowned, above all others in the ancient world, for their majestic shape and incomparable swiftness. Sacred to the service of the palace and the imperial games, they were protected by the laws from the profanation of a vulgar master; whilst the rich demesnes on which they bred and ranged were deemed of sufficient importance to require the constant care and inspection of a count of the empire. The Palmarian horses (one of the finest breeds of them) were originally the forfeiture of a rebel, whose estate lay about sixteen miles from Tyana, near the great road between Constantinople and Antioch. The Commentary of Odoefroy details, with an amusing perspicuity, every circumstance of antiquity relative to these animals; with which, while the imbecile Cappadocians were subject to the king of Persia, they not unfrequently paid their tributes to that monarch. The prejudice of some ancient writers has been transferred from its proper objects—the lazy and supine character of the natives—to the soil which they neglected to cultivate; hence they have not failed to ridicule, with more than sufficient acrimony, the supposed sterility of the district. Strabo, the geographer; St. Basil, and St. Gregory Nazianzen, and others, were natives of these plains. The inhabitants still preserve a rapacious as well as idle character, living for the most part by the ignoble pursuits of war or personal plunder.

ALESA, or ALEA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Sicily, built, according to Diodorus, in 94th Olympiad, *n. c.* 403. The inhabitants were exempted from taxes by the Romans; and near it was a fountain, which is said to have bubbled at the sound of a flute. It stood about eight stadia from the sea, near the site of the present Caronia.

ALAFEOUS, a district in Portugal, about six miles from Viseu, in the province of Beira.

ALAGNON, a river of France, in the department of the Cantal. It enters Allier between Brionde and Issoire.

ALAGON, a town of Spain, in the province of Aragon, about twelve miles from Saragossa, near the confluence of the Ebro, and Xdoca. There is also a river of this name in Estramadura, which, after running in a south-westerly direction, enters the Tagus near Coira.

ALAID, a volcanic peak in the Okhotsk sea, near the first of the Kurile islands. It began to send forth some volumes of smoke in the year 1790, and about three years afterwards flamed with great fury; but no mischief appears to have been done by this eruption.

ALAIN, a South American river, in the province of Quito, which, after running in a north-east direction, enters the Purure.

ALAIS, or ALEX, is a large and populous town of France, in the modern department of the Gard, near the foot of Mount Cevennes. It is about 420 miles from Paris, and 43 from Montpellier. Julius Cæsar, who conquered it (*Bel. Gal.*), calls it Alesia. The country, in the neighbourhood of this place is extremely rich in agricultural produce; particularly grain, olives, and mulberries; and it has long been celebrated for its manufactures of serges and rattens, and for its exportation of raw silk.

ALALCOMENÆ, or ALALCOMENIUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Boeotia, situated on the borders

ALADU-
LIA.

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MENÆ.

ALALCO.
MEN.
ALAN.

of the lake Copia. It was a small and defenceless city, but was held in reverence on account of an ancient temple and statue of Minerva, which it contained. STRAB. l. ix. Minerva is called Alalcomenia for this reason by Homer. H. l. iv. v. 8. Plutarch (Quest. Grec.) says there was also a city of this name in Ithaca, so called because Ulysses was born at Alalcomene, in Bœotia.

ALALCOMENIUS, in Antiquity, the Boeotian name of the month Mæmecteron, the fourth in the Greek year, which began about the end of June. On the 16th day of this month, was celebrated a solemn festival instituted at the suggestion of Aristides, after the battle of Plataea, in honour of those who fell in the engagement. Plutarch (vit. Aristides) thus describes it, "At break of day, one sounding a trumpet goes before the procession, followed by waggons full of myrtle and garlands, and vessels containing wine and milk for the libations. Some free born youths succeed, carrying ointment and perfumes, and a black bull is led along for the sacrifice. The last chosen archon of the Plataeans, who at other times is forbidden to touch any weapons, or to wear any other colour than white, now dresses himself in a military robe of red, and with a sword in his hands passes through the city to the sepulchres. After certain ceremonies, the bull is slain, and the archon having implored Jupiter and Mercury, invites those brave men who died for Greece, to witness these sacred rites. Then having mixed the wine and milk, he pours it out and says, 'I drink to those men who gave up their lives for the liberties of Greece!'"

ALALIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Corsica, built by the Phœnicians, destroyed by Scipio, and rebuilt by Sylla. Also, according to Ptolemy, a town of Syria, near the Euphrates.

ALAMAGAN, or ALAMAGAN ISLAND, one of the Ladrones, about 10 miles from Guajan. This island is remarkable for a volcano, standing near the sea, and forming a cone about 1,500 feet high, with a base of upwards of 1,200 feet. A coating of cinders encompasses the sides of this mount, but at the distance of half a league, a thick covering of black vegetable mould, produces several large trees, with which, indeed, the whole island abounds; some of them resemble the pine-trees of Port Jackson. This island forms a tolerably good land-mark, as it may be seen at a distance of twelve or even fourteen leagues. N. lat. 18° 57'. E. lon. 146° 47'.

ALAMAK, in Arabic Astronomy, a name applied to a star marked by α , of the second magnitude, and placed in the southern foot of the constellation Andromeda.

ALAMODE, in Commerce, commonly called mode: a thin, glossy, black silk, formerly much in use in this country.

ALAN, a river in Cornwall. It is now called *Camel*, and Cambian, a corruption of *Camb-alan*, "the crooked river." Leland calls it Dunmere, i. e. *the Water of the Hills*. It rises about two miles north of the borough of Camelford, where its banks are famous for two battles; in one of which king Arthur received a mortal wound, though he slew his antagonist Modred, who was his nephew, and had been guilty of an incestuous intercourse with his uncle's queen, Guenora. The other was fought between the Cornish Britons and the West Saxons of Devonshire, in the year 824, in which many thousands fell on each side; and the victory remained

doubtful. From Camelford, the Alan, after a course of about twelve miles, in a winding southern direction, becomes navigable for sand and other barges at Parbrook, near Egloskell, at which place it receives the river Lame, or Lyuhir. It afterwards becomes increased by several smaller rivers; and pursuing its course, empties its united streams into Padstow harbour, and finally discharges itself into the Bristol channel. At Padstow it is nearly a mile broad. This river produces some very fine grey trout, the flesh of which in summer is peculiarly red and delicate.

ALANBY. See ALONBY.

ALANÇHE, a town of France, in the department of the Cantal. It is the head of a canton; and is remarkable for its tanneries and its manufactures of fine lace.

ALAND. On land. See LAND.

Her out was eijeth in 5: sje alone byrded by poote.

R. Gloucester, p. 307.

Ther sailen, 681 ther come a londe

At Faase 19th to the cite.

Geogr. Cos. A. Book viii.

Dey with he wol let do, and a down byrge

At put byrge up' Jolep, a londe and a water.

The Faun of Farn Planchen, p. 349.

He made his shippes a land for herette

And in that 16. Jule a day he lette

And said that on the londe he must him rest.

Chaucer. The Legend of Good Women, fol. 197, c. 1.

Till Neptune bath of him compassions

And Therin, Chorus, Trism, and they all

And naden him upland to fall

Wherof that Philib was a wargine.

Jos. fol. 409, col. 2.

In the beginning of the next summer, Agricola sending his horse before him, which often put ahead and spoiled the countries, thereby causing a great and vacutious fear.

Stowe's Chronicle.

Three ships were hurry'd by the northern blast,

And on the secret shores with fury cast.

Three acres force Farn, in his angry mood,

Dash'd on the shallow of the rising sand,

And in mid ocean left them now a land.

Jos. fol. 409, col. 2.

ALAND, or ALAND, a considerable island in the Baltic sea: N. lat. 60°, 18'. E. lon. 19° 40'. It is about 40 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The soil is very fertile, producing corn, and abundance of forest woods, from which a good traffic is carried on by the natives, in wooden utensils of various kinds. There are nearly 4000 acres of land, in a high state of cultivation; and 2500 barrels of wheat are said to be produced here annually. It is an island remarkable for the longevity of the inhabitants, and yielded the king of Sweden, some few years since, 19,980 six dollars per annum. The chief town is Castleholm; and the island itself gives name to a cluster of inferior islets. The inhabitants generally speak the Swedish language. In 1634 it was included in the government of Finland, and has recently been ceded to Russia.

ALANUS BAY, on the south coast of Ireland, between Waterford harbour and Tranmore bay. N. lat. 52° 38'. W. lon. 7° 35'.

ALANGI, SANTIAGO DE, a small but rich city of South America, in the province of Terra Firma. It supplies the city of Panama with cattle and fruits of various kinds.

ALAN.
ALANGI.

ALAN-
QUER.

ALANGUER, a town of Portuguese Estramadura, near the Tagus, between Lisbon and Leiria.

ALARM

ALANGU M, in Bo nay, a genus of plants; class Polyandria, order Monogynia.

ALANI, or ALANS, a people of Tartar origin, who first settled on the banks of the Jaick, near the districts of Cufa and Salsamaki. They afterwards migrated into the plains northward of Circassia, but in A. D. 130, advanced to the banks of the Danube, and in A. D. 400, to the Rhine. Here they united themselves with the Vandals, and traversing Gaul, attacked the Goths and Franks in Spain, but were repulsed, and settled among the Pyrenees. They are said by Ammianus to have had no other houses than their military waggons, though they were followed by large flocks and herds, and derived their principal subsistence from their produce. A natural death was thought disgraceful to their men; their horses were caparisoned with the scalp of their enemies; and they are said to have worshipped a naked scymetar, placed upright in the ground. The name of the Alani was finally lost in that of the Goths and Huns. See Gibbon's *Decline and Fall*, vol. iv.

ALARBES, in Arabian Customs, a name given to those who dwell in tents, and who are distinguished by their dress from those who live in towns.

ALARÉS, in Antiquity, was the name given to the auxiliary cavalry, who were stationed on the wings of the Roman army. Livy, l. x. c. 43.

ALAT'S, ALAROP, in Mahometan Theology (from the Arabic verb *arafa* to distinguish), is a name given to the partition wall separating heaven from hell. Some, however, have explained it to mean a kind of middle or purgatory state of the departed, answering to the purgatory of the Romish church. It gives the name to the 7th chapter of the Koran.

ALARA, a town of Majorca, about nine miles from Palma. It contains a population of 2,400 inhabitants.

ALABA, a river of S. America, in Antioquia, a new kingdom of Grenada. It enters the Cauca.

ALARÇOW, a small insulated town, placed on a rock, in New Castle, Spain. It is nearly surrounded by the river Xucar; 42 leagues from Madrid.

ALARÇED, Given largely, says Tyrwhit. In large, or, as we now say, enlarge.

Though she (nature) would all her coming spend
That to brutish might assile
It were but paine and lost trouble
Such part in their nobilitie
Was then alarged of beauty.

Chaucer's *Dream*, l. 356, c. 4.

A ghe corynthian, oure mouth is open to glou oure herte is alarged
ghe ben not enwicheid in us, but ghe ben enwicheid in gloure
yowendness and I seie as to soncs, ghe that han the eward,
be ghe alarged.

Wiclif. 2 Corin. c. vi.

O ye Corinthians, oure mouth is open to you oure herte is made
large; ye are in no straitie in us, but ye are in a straitie in youre owne
hewdness; I promise vnto you yke reward, as unto children. Set
yourselves at large.

Bible, 1559. Id.

ALARM, v. } From the Italian *all' arme*.
ALARM, n. } To arms.
ALARMING, } To sound to arms; to summon
ALARMINGLY, } to arms; or to be ready,
ALARMIST, } prepared in arms; for defence;
ALARM, v. } and thus generally, to give notice
ALARMING, n. } of danger; to disquiet.

Turms sluggish sloth doth stay, but force with speed he bends
Gulst Traitors all his power, and on the shore about them tends
They blow alarm.

Arcturion, book x. by Thos. Pharr.

ALARM.

ALAS.

Right as the point of day begins to spring,
And larks shift melodiously to sing,
Our trumpets sound the awful battle least;
On dreadful drums our stink alarm is sent.

Shakspeare's *Scottish Chronicle*, v. iii. p. 360.

On the other side, Satan alarmed,
Collecting all his might dilated stood,
Like Teneriff or Atlas unrenov'd;
His stature reach'd the sky, and on his crest
Sat horror plumed.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book iv.

Our power sufficient to disturb his heaven,
And with perpetual ironies to alarm,
Though inaccessible, his fatal throne;
Which, if not victory, is yet revenge.

Id. book ii.

By this time terribly sounded the trumpets of alarm, and then
Severus, a Roman leader, who had the command of the left wing,
when he drew were unto the trenches above all full of armed men,
from whence order had been given afore, that lying there close and
hidde, they should start up of a sudden, and break the array.

Holland's *Ammonius Marcellianus*.

Those petty chimeras, that formerly I regarded not, but was apt
to impute to nothing but fumes of the spleen, or melancholy vapours,
are now able to give us alarm.

Boswell's *Reflections*.

And when he saw my best alarm'd splits,
Bold in the quarrel's right, rous'd to the encounter,
Or whether galled by the noise I made,
Full suddenly he fled.

Shakspeare. *Learn*, act ii.

Now are our browses bound with victorious wreaths,
Our bruised arms hang up for monuments,
Our stern alarms, chang'd to merry meetings,
Our dreadful marches, to delightful measures.

Id. *Rich. III.* act i.

The christians of those times stood in continual alarm and
expectation of the day of judgment, and the end of the world.

Holwell's *Apologie*.

A sudden horror seized his giddy head,
And his ears trickled, and his colour fled;
Nature was in alarm; his danger nigh
Seem'd threat'ning, though unseen to mortal eye.

Dryden. *Theodora and Hamor*.

All men think all men mortal but themselves;
Themselves, when some alarming shock of fate,
Strikes through their wounded hearts the sudden dread;
But their hearts wounded, like the wounded air,
Soon close: where past the shaft, no trace is found.

Young. *Night Thoughts*, Nt. i.

Not only the scenery is defaced, and the out-works of the rain
violently torn away; the main body of the rain itself is, at this very
time, under the alarming hand of destruction.

Gilpin's *Tour to the Lakes*.

ALARM, in Military Affairs; the first tidings of attack,
or of the approach of an enemy, which is generally
signified by the drums beating an alarm, firing of a
cannon, &c. An alarm-bell is sometimes used for the
same purpose, answering to the French *tocin*. In
the field there are alarm-posts assigned by the quarter-
master-general, and in garrison by the governor, for the
troops to repair to, in case of emergency.

ALARM, or ALARUM, an instrument affixed to clocks,
and sometimes to watches, to awaken persons at a fixed
hour of the night.

ALAS, *inter.* } Dutch. *Eylne*; Fr. *Hélas*; Ital.
ALLACE, } *Ahi lasso*; which, Menage thinks
ALLAKE, } are the interjection *ah*; and the
ALACK, } Latin, *Lassus*, wearied.

ALAS. An exclamation of weariness, disappointment, sorrow, or complaint.

ALATA.

ALATA.

ALATA.

For thus he wold his hope rebuke,
As though his wurdie were all forlorn,
And saith, alas that I was born.
How shall I live? how shall I do?
For now fortune is thus my foe.

Greene, *Com. A.* book iv.

He looked on her ugly leper's face,
The while before was white as lily foam,
Wringing his hands, old tapers said above
That he had lived to see that wofull hour.

Chaucer, *Complaint of Criseide*, fol. 196. c. 3.

Allice, allice?
I leys my fader, al comfort and solace,
And al supplie of our trauel and paine,
There, there allice.

Douglas, book iii. p. 93.

Alas, my father there, my only joy in care and we,
Anchises! I do lose (alas) be there deports me too.

Virgil, book iii. by Thos. Phaer.

Alacke, the olde proverbies bee to true: an ape, although she be
clothed in purple, will be but an ape.

Hall, p. 119.

Alas! what boon it with inconstant care
To tend the homely, slighted shepherd's trade,
And strictly meditate the thankless muse?
Were it not better done, as others use,
To sport with Amargyllis in the shade,
Or with the tangles of Nemea's hair?

Milton, *Lycid.*

But why alas, do mortal men in vain
Of fortune, fate or providence complain?
God gives us what he knows our state require,
And better things than those which we desire.

Dryden, *Pelam. and Arct.*

Alas, regardless of their doom,
The little victims play,
No sense have they of ills to come,
Nor care, beyond to-day.

Gray, *Eton College.*

ALASCANI, in Ecclesiastical History, a sect of Anti-Johannans, who derived their name from their leader, John Alasco, a noble Pole. Banished from his own country, and from Germany, he took refuge with his followers in England, under Edward VI., who granted them the use of the church of the Augustine friars, in London. In the reign of Mary they were again driven abroad, and sunk into obscurity on the death of their founder. They held that baptism was no longer necessary in the church, and that the words, "This is my body," in the institution of the Eucharist, denoted the entire celebration of the sacred supper.

ALASCHA, or ALASKA, a peninsula on the north-west coast of North America, formed by the Bristol bay and the ocean on the north-west and north, and by the ocean and the Cook's river on the south and south-east. A number of islands at its extremity, form part of a cluster called the northern Archipelago. N. lat. 55°, 30' to 58°, W. lon. 150° to 163°.

ALASEY MOUNTAINS, a ridge of high hills, in Asiatic Russia, between the sources of the rivers Omecon and Kovima, ending on the shores of the Frozen ocean.

ALASS STRAIT, a channel 48 miles long, and, in its narrowest part, about 6 wide, in the Eastern sea, between the islands of Lombok and Sumbawa. There are some small towns and villages on both sides of its banks.

ALATA, a village on the Abyssinian Nile, near its source; Mr. Bruce describes a cataract which occurs in the river, near this place, as extremely beautiful and grand. It is 35 miles S. S. W. of Gondar.

ALATAMAHA, a navigable river of Georgia, in North

America, which rises in the Cherokee mountains, and traverses, under various names, a tract of country of some hundred miles in extent, till it empties itself into the Atlantic, by several mouths. The northern branch flows toward the heights of Darien, and enters the ocean between the Wolf and Sapelo islands. The southern running between Broughton and M^r Intosh islands, is the principal branch, and is nearly 500 yards wide at the mouth.

ALATA CASTRA, in Ancient Geography, a military station of the Romans in Britain, near the Estuary of Bodotria, and conjectured to be on the site of the city of Edinburgh.

ALATE. See LATE.

SEZ.—What news from Agrippina?
Pons. Faith, none. They all look themselves up alate,
Or talk in character, I have not seen
A company so changed. Ben. Jonson. *Sejuncta*, act II.

ALAVA, one of the divisions of the province of Biscay, in Spain. It is bounded on the south and west, by old Castile, on the east, by Navarre, and on the north, by Guipuscoa and Biscay Proper.

ALAUDA, in Ornithology, the lark. It belongs to the order Passeres. See ZOOLOGY, Div. II.

ALAUNA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Britain, belonging to the Damni, and supposed to be situated near Falkirk, on the Roman wall. Others place it on the site of Stirling. Also a town of Gaul.

ALAUNI, in Ancient Geography, the inhabitants of a country to the north of the Falus Meroitis, situated on the river Tannus, now the Don. PLIN. iv. 25. PROL. I. iii. c. 5.

ALAUSI, a district of South America, in the kingdom of Quito. It is very mountainous, but nevertheless yields abundance of fruit and grain of almost every kind. The capital, which has the same name, has a good parish church, and a Franciscan convent. It has also manufactures of cloths, baize, and cotton goods. N. lat. 9°, 12'. W. lon. 78° 39'. There is a river of this name also in the kingdom of Quito, which empties itself into the bay of Guayaquil.

ALAY, in the Turkish language, signifies a triumph, and is particularly applied to a ceremony resembling a masquerade, with which the inhabitants of Constantinople amuse themselves at the opening of a war. The people first walk in the dresses, and with the respective instruments, of their several trades; then the holy standard of Mahomet is brought from the seraglio, and carried in great state through the city, attended by these motley groups. An emir precedes this standard, who proclaims with a loud voice, that no infidel must dare to approach, or even to look upon it; and enjoins every true Mussulman to give notice, should he perceive one. This ceremony was accidentally witnessed by Baron Tott; and many Christians of all ages were sacrificed to the brutal fury of the populace on the occasion.

ALAYA, a town situated on the eastern side of the gulph of Adalia, on the south coast of Asia Minor, commonly called Karamania. Its general aspect corresponds exactly with the description which Strabo has given of Coracesium, the first town of Cilicia-Aspera, where the ridges of Mount Taurus descend in their rugged sterility to the shore, showing the commencement of that coast. Coracesium was the only place

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that shut its gates against Antiochus, after the submission of every other fortress in Cilicia, according to the testimony of Livy; and Plutarch, in his Life of Pompey, mentions that it was subsequently chosen by the pirates, as a proper point of final resistance to the conquering Romans; for which, indeed, its nearly insular character eminently qualified it.

Alaya is the capital of a pashalik, although its present importance is by no means considerable. The streets and houses are all described as wearing the appearance of wretchedness. It has but few mosques, and these sufficiently mean. The population may be estimated at between fifteen hundred and two thousand. It has no commerce. The situation of Alaya, however, is somewhat romantic, its promontory forming a natural fortress, on which are the decayed remains of a once anxious solitude to render it impregnable, by means of walls and towers. There are some remains on the hill of that species of wall, which has obtained the name of Cyclopean, and a few broken columns, which time has spared as marks and vestiges of antiquity, but without any Greek inscriptions. Over the head-gate is an Arabic inscription, importing that the place had been subdued by Aladdin the conqueror. It is surmounted by a small Corinthian capital, with some well-carved heads, with wings and wreaths of flowers.

The promontory is separated from the neighbouring mountains by a broad plain and a low sandy isthmus, from which it rises abruptly. The town is placed on the eastern side, and the ascent is so steep, that the houses appear to rest upon each other. The cliffs of Alaya are five or six hundred feet in elevation above the level of the sea, and continue below it to the depth of sixty or seventy feet. They consist of a compact white limestone, tinged by a red drip on the outside, and present a most magnificent appearance. The brown schistus base rises up from beneath the limestone on the northern side of the promontory. On the top of a high conical hill, about the distance of three miles north-west of Alaya, and two miles from the coast, are found the deserted remains of an ancient town, once surrounded with walls, and now presenting the ruins of a handsome temple; on the broken sculptures of which are to be seen many Greek inscriptions, which, upon examination, have been found to be all monumental.

The bay of Alaya is open to southerly winds. There is no harbour or pier, and the anchorage is indifferent, although it cannot be doubted, that the colonists of ancient Greece provided some means of shelter for vessels, in a place once of such consequence, which a better acquaintance with the spot might, in all probability, discover.

ALB, or ALBE, n. Lat. *Albus*, white. Applied to the white vestments of the sacerdotal order.

Of priests thou hast no number, all are non amite

Not laced in a haberdash, put in no clerical abate.

R. Browne, p. 510.

And Moses brought Aaron & his sons, and washed them with water and put upon him an alb, & girded him wth a girdle.

Bible, 1539. Lev. viii.

ALB, or ALBE, in the Romish church, a white garment of the clergy, similar to the English surplice. Anciently the newly baptised wore an alb on the Sunday after Easter, which was hence called dominical alb. See the extract above from the Bible, 1539.

VOL. XVII.

ALB, a river of Germany, which falls into the Rhine, about two leagues W.N.W. of Durlach.

ALB, in Commerce, a small Turkish coin; also called *Asper*, and equal to about 1d English.

ALBA, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, on the river Tanaro; the ALBA POMPEIA of the Romans, which see. Its inhabitants are now reckoned at 9,600; it is a bishop's see, and there are, besides the cathedral, three parish churches, and several religious houses for both sexes. It is about 18 miles from Turin; and gives the name of Albesano to the surrounding district.

ALBA FIRMA, in ancient Law, quit rents which were reserved to the crown by payment of silver or white money, as contradistinguished from rents payable in work, grain, or military service. They were also called *white rents*, *black farms*, and *redies albi*.

ALBA FUCENSIS, in Ancient Geography, a city of the Marsi, in Italy, now called Alba. It was called Fucensis, to distinguish it from the other Italian cities of the name of Alba, and the inhabitants *Albanenses*, from a similar reason. Standing in the heart of a mountainous district, it was principally used by the Romans as a state prison, and surrounded by fortifications, of which remains yet exist; as well as those of an amphitheatre and temple.

ALBA LONGA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Latium, in Italy, built by Ascanius, after Lavinium had stood thirty years, on the Mons Albanus (afterwards so called from the city); and on the spot where a white sow, with a litter of thirty young ones, of the same colour, was found, as foretold to ANCA, VIRG. *Æn.* l. viii. v. 43, and 83. *ACREL. Fict. c.* 19. *LIVY, l.* i. c. 3. only says, that the population of Lavinium becoming too great for it, Ascanius founded Alba Longa, and removed the people thither; the city continued to be the capital of the kingdom for three centuries, but Rome eclipsed its glory, and Tullius Hostilius destroyed it entirely, *n. c.* 666, and transferred its inhabitants to Rome, which Livy has beautifully described, *l.* i. c. 29. But the temple, which was in a grove on the mountain, and in which Jupiter was worshipped, was spared. *STRABO, l.* v. *CICERO, Orat. pro Milone, c.* 31. The Mons Albanus, in later ages, became celebrated for the palaces and villas erected on it; among which was a very magnificent one belonging to Pompey. *CICERO, Ibid.* See ALBANUS.

ALBA POMPEIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Liguria, on a small river called the Cebr. From the evidence of some inscriptions, it is supposed to have been a colony planted by Pompey, or to have been settled by Scipio, and restored by him. The Roman emperor, Pertinax, is said to have been born there; but Julius Capitolinus (in vita) assigns him a different birth-place. The town is now called Alba simply. *PLINY, l.* iii. c. 7. *PROLEPY, l.* iii. c. 1.

ALBACETE, anciently called *Cetide*, a small but busy town of Spain, in the province of Murcia, about 80 miles from Valencia. There is a good trade here in wine, saffron, corn, and oil. Its fair, or market, held in September, has long been famous for cattle.

ALBANA, in Ancient Geography, a port of Albania, in Asia, formerly the capital of that kingdom. It was situated on the shore of the Caspian sea, between the rivers Ciesius and Albanus. It is now called Bachu; or, according to others, Nias-abad.

ALBANENSES. See ALBIGNENSES.

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A L B A N I A.

ALBANIA.

Albania in Asia.

ALBANIA, in Ancient Geography, a province of Asia, bounded on the north by the Caucasian mountains; on the east by the Caspian sea; on the south by Armenia; and on the west by Iberia. The district is now that of East Georgia, or Shirwan. It is watered by several rivers, of which the principal ancient names were the Cyrus, or Cyrnus, now the Kur, the Canhyes, the Albanus, the Cusius, the Gierrhus, and the Soana; it had also several cities mentioned in ancient writers, viz. Teleba, Thalbis, Gelda, Thabilaca, Albann, and Cabalica, which last is called, by Pliny, the capital. The country is represented by Strabo, as being, in remoter times, divided into many principalities, speaking not less than twenty-six different languages; but the Albanians, overcoming the other tribes, became masters of the entire district. They established a regular succession of kings, of whom we read occasionally in history, from the time of Alexander the Great. Though defeated by Pompey, against whom they brought an army of 60,000 foot and 12,000 horse, he was unable to possess himself of the country. Adrian summoned the king of Albania to Rome, to account for some of the depredations committed by his subjects on the neighbouring provinces; but he refused to obey; and when he afterwards attended the court of Antoninus Pius, he was treated with great respect and courtesy. Down to the reign of Justinian II. they were governed by their own monarchs; when, according to Zonaras, they were finally subdued by the Roman arms. Valiant as they were in war, the Albanians are represented as having been extremely fond of agriculture, and simple in their manners. They were dexterous in all the sports of the field; of fair complexion, and of a very robust and graceful appearance. The women are to this day proverbially beautiful.

Albania in European Turkey.

ALBANIA, a province of European Turkey, called by the Turks *Arnaud*, extends along the eastern coast of the Adriatic and Ionian seas, between the 30th and 43d degrees of N. latitude. It is no part more than 100 miles in breadth, inland; and in the southern districts, not more than from 30 to 40 miles. Bounded on the north by Montenegro, and on the south by the gulf of Arta and the Sali mountains; its eastern boundaries have never been distinctly fixed, but are rather to be determined by the language and character of the population. Were a line, however, drawn in the Sali mountains, from about the narrowest breadth from the sea above cited, and extended to the country of the Montenegrians, a distance of about 250 miles, where this province has its greatest breadth, it would complete as correct an outline of Albania, as in the present imperfect state of its geography our latest travellers will enable us to describe. Ioannina, the capital of a district of that name, eastward, would be about 20 miles to the S. E. of this line, and here resides the enterprising Albanian chief, Ali Pasha, who now commands the entire resources of this interesting country.

Though Albania has frequently changed its name, its masters, and its boundaries, a people have been embosomed in its mountains, from the earliest records

of history, whose language and habits have retained unusual traces of nationality. The Greek *Illyricum* and the Roman *Epirus* (of which it now nearly occupies the History site) were always stigmatized as barbarous, because unexplored and unconquered, regions. Thucydides applies this epithet to the people on the coast of Epirus, opposite the island of Sybota; and Strabo states that the Epirotic tribes were mixed with the Illyrian, and spoke two languages, probably their own vernacular tongue and the Greek language, as the Albanians do to this day. Polybius calls the Illyrians "the enemies of all nations;" and Livy partly attributes the ferocious character of one of the four Roman divisions of Macedonia to its contiguity to these people. In Epirus, and that part of Illyricum, afterwards called New Epirus, neither the efforts of the Greeks nor of the Romans toward civilizing the inhabitants, ever were so successful as in the interior of the continent; but the Aborigines of the country retained their mountains, their manners, and those remnants of a distinct language, which form the basis of the modern Albanian. Greek words and Latin words still more numerous, are mixed with this dialect, as well as a few of Gothic origin, but not more than obtain in all the other distinct languages of Europe; or than may be easily traced to the successive revolutions in their history.

The earliest geographer who mentions the *Albani* of this district, is Ptolemy, and they appear in his time to have been a small tribe of Illyrians, possessing the town of Albanopolis, of which we hear no more for many centuries. Then it is described (*Ann. Comnenæ*, l. xiii.—*Acropolis*, c. 14, 25) as Albanon, Arbanon, or Elbanon, a town which commands the passes "leading from the country about Ilychnidus to the maritime plains." Some writers have supposed this town to have been originally named from some obscure connection with *Alba*, in Italy, and a tradition of this kind exists in the country itself. The situation and resources of this line of coast seems to have given it that importance with the Greeks of the Lower Empire, which induced them to apply the name *Albania* to all the nations of these and the neighbouring mountains, who spoke the same dialect, and to the country itself that of *Albania*, *Albania*, and *Albania*. But this name is hardly known to the inhabitants, who call the country *Skiperi*, and an Albanian, *Skiperi*.

The Romans gladly availed themselves of many of the fine harbours on this coast, and the traces of the Ignatian road, which communicated from Apollonia to Thessalonica, over an extent of 262 Roman miles, are a proof of the importance once attached to this province and the neighbourhood. On the decay of the empire it was amongst the most important conquests of Alaric and the Goths, who settled here, and were declared masters-general of the country by the Emperor of the east. We afterwards find some of their descendants in quiet possession of the northern districts, and one of them, named Sidimund, in alliance with Theodoric the Great. During the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries, Albania was the prey of the Scla-

Origin of the present name.

ALBANIA. *romian tribes, and chiefly of those called Bulgarians.* In 870, Achris, or Ocreda (the ancient *Lycabidus*), was the sovereign residence of the Bulgarian kings, and an archbishop's see. The same race took possession also of the ancient Nicopolis, and gradually of the whole region.

"It was in these ages of Bulgarian prowess," says Major Lenke (*Researches in Greece*, 4to. p. 240, 1), "that the remains of the Illyrian and Epirotic nations, became finally included within the boundaries which they have ever since held. Many Slavonian words then found their way into the Albanian language, and have been increased in number by the intercourse between Albania and the extensive regions of Servia and Bulgaria, which surround it on the north and east, and throughout which the Bulgarian dialect of Slavonian is spoken. It may be thought surprising, perhaps, that under these circumstances the proportion of Slavonian words is not larger, and it may be considered, as a proof, that the strength of the Epirotic and Illyrian mountains, and the spirit of their inhabitants, were still equal, as in the time of the Romans, to protect them from being completely subdued."

In the year 1079 the Albanians, properly an called, first begin to act an important part in history. They formed one of the four divisions of the army of Nicephorus Basilaces, which was all collected from this neighbourhood. The Roman kings of Sicily afterwards obtained settlements upon this coast; as did the Franks, and other nations, in their alliance during the whole of the crusades. When the oriental empire was dismembered, by the conquest of Constantinople, in 1204, Michael Angelas, an illegitimate relation of the imperial family, established a Despotate in this district, embracing Aetarnia, Etolia, and Epirus, and including the towns of Ioannina, Arta, and Naupactus, which, with some slight interruption, continued an independent state, until, in 1431, it fell under the Turkish yoke. During this period, the despots of Epirus (as they were called), are frequently found connected with the royal families of the surrounding states, and their alliance was sometimes courted by the imperial family. They exercised important influence in the perpetual wars of their neighbours; in the 14th century they extended their conquests into Thessaly, Aetarnia, and Macedonia; but they never long remained in strength beyond their native mountains. In 1383, they were first defeated by the Turks, but the talents and romantic courage of their celebrated chief, George Kastrioti (or Scanderberg), and his family, delayed their subjugation for upwards of fifty years after the Porte had undisputed dominion over the rest of northern Greece, and well sustained the hereditary character of the Albanians for desperate courage. Their last struggle was at the celebrated siege of Scodra, which still preserves its name (in 1478); and which is perpetuated by a contemporary biographer and eye-witness, Marinus Barletius. In this siege they were aided by the Venetians, who afterwards obtained some towns upon the coast, and established themselves, in considerable strength, on the adjacent Ionian islands. These circumstances tended to preserve the people of the mountainous districts from complete subjugation, as well as from complete conversion to the Ottoman faith; and, indeed, though Albania became, from the reign of Mahomet the Second, an acknowledged province of the Turkish dominions, and though

that event has effected many changes in their external character, Christianity has always been professed, and at present is said to number more votaries in this district than Islamism. During the whole of this period, therefore, the Porte has rarely been able to enforce a more absolute obedience to its orders, than of late years, when every provincial governor first establishes his own influence over the country by force of fraud, and then applies to Constantinople for his authority.

The great divisions of modern Albania are inhabited by the Neger, the Toske, the Lape, and the Tzami. The Neger possess the northern district as far downward as Kavala, and the ancient Genuans. Their chief towns are Dultzani, Skodre, or Scutari; Ales, or Lesina, Durazzo, Tarane, and Dibre. The Toske occupy the great plains of the Mianik and Malakastr, which extend from the hills of Dyrrhachium to Berat and Avlona, together with the mountains bordering on the south side of those plains, as far as Lopei, Tepclimi, and Klisara, all of which are situated on the ancient *doms*, now called Viona. They also occupy the mountains which stretch into Macedonia, as far as the district of Koretza. Their chief towns are Berat and Elbasan (the ancient *Albanopolis*); the former being the most important place in Albania, next to Skodre. The wild mountains between Toskeri and the sea coast form the district of the Lape; it extends south to the plain of Delvina. The Tzami inhabit all the region south of the river Kalama, anciently called Thyamis, of which the present name of the tribe has been supposed to be a corruption; the country extends inland toward Ioannina, and is called Dai by the Albanians, Traamouria by the Greeks. The chief places are Suli (the Selli of Strabo), Paramithia, Lianari, Margariti, Pargo, and Agha.

There are inferior districts which have probably been detached from the above by some of the various masters of Albania, comprehending the maritime country opposite Corfu, called Parakalamo, the fertile plain of Delvina, near the ancient Phonicæ, Derrpul, Zagoria, and the mountains east of the Derrpul, Rezo, Khimara, Karamarata, Provodi and Kolosia. The districts of Ioannina, Paleopogoniana and Koniza, are conquests of the Albanians, rather than a portion of this country, and in the above enumeration of its divisions, those which are purely Albanian, have been followed.

Until the middle of the last century, Albania was Ali Pasha, divided into several independent pashaliks, and those of Berat, Ioannina, and Delvina, possessed considerable military power. At this period (1751), the present Ali Pasha was born, at Tepelini, the chief town of one of these petty governments, over which his father presided. His life has been a series of successful brigandage; he first entered into the service of the neighbouring pasha, at Berat, married his daughter, and afterwards the pashalik of Ioannina, which he made the centre of his future operations. The pashalik of Arta soon after submitted to his arms, and he was appointed by the Porte, Derveni-Pasha of Romelia. This office, being that of guardian of all the passes of the country, was an invaluable step to his ambition. He was now (in 1798) made a vizier, or a pasha of three tails (a title of honour among the Turks, derived from the number of horse-tails carried before their great officers in procession); and his father-in-law being dead, he made an

ALBANIA. scruple of attacking his son, then pasha of Berat and Avlona, on a slight pretext of quarrel; this was followed by the reduction of Trevesa, Venitz, and Karli, or Acornania. He was induced, however, to preserve the pasha Ibrahim in authority, at Berat, for a short time, and contracted marriages with the family for his sons. Still the mountains of Sali resisted his progress, and it was not until a bloody contest of sixteen years, that he could possess himself of the whole region over which he now presides. He has lately dethroned Ibrahim, and Mahomet, pasha of Delvino; and extended his dominions into Macedonia, and to the frontiers of the ancient Attica. Albania comprehends all the western part of its territory; and is that which is most valuable from its position and resources, and where his dominion is mostly absolute and entire.

The terms on which the Albanian vizier holds his government, in relation to Constantinople, may be understood from the preceding account of his character and progress. The Porte acknowledges his titles as conferred by the sultan, and the vizier makes a formal acknowledgment of the imperial authority by the respectful reception of an annual firman from Constantinople, to which he remits considerable sums in the shape of a karach, or capitation-tax, as well as certain rents or imposts which he farms under the Turkish government. But in the internal government of Albania the Turks have no interference whatever; nor in Ali Pasha's alliances with foreign states, from which he receives and sends agents regularly in his own name. England, France, and Russia, generally keep a consular here, and the political information of the court of Ioannina is said to be superior to that of Constantinople itself. His army in war is about 30,000 men of all arms; though the inhabitants exaggerate it to double the amount. His naval power is inconsiderable. Dr. Holland's description of the Vizier's government in 1813, will not be uninteresting to the reader, and may develop the character of a despot whose ambition has hitherto been unchecked, and whose future measures may have no inconsiderable effect on the stability of the Turkish empire. "Speaking generally," he says, (*Travels in the Ionian Isles, Albania, &c.* 4to. p. 118), "of his administration, it may be said to be one of absolute individual despotism, supported by a union of powerful personal qualities in that individual. Quick thought, singular acuteness of observation, a conjunction of vigour and firmness in action, and much personal resolution, are connected with an uncommon faculty of artifice, an implacable spirit of revenge, and the utter disregard of every principle interfering with that active movement of ambition, which is the mainspring and master-feeling of his mind. The effect of these remarkable qualities has been exhibited in the progress he has made to his present state of elevation. Their influence is strikingly apparent in the entire subjection of so many warlike tribes, in the perfect tranquillity of his dominions, in the despotic exercise of his government; and above all, in the mysterious awe with which even his name and mandate are regarded by every class of his subjects. It is pleasant to be able to allege, as one proof of his superior understanding, a degree of freedom from national and religious prejudices rarely to be found among Turkish rulers. He has studiously adopted into his territory

several of the improvements of more cultivated nations; he has destroyed the numerous bands of robbers* who infested the peaceful inhabitants of the country; by his direction roads have been made, bridges constructed, and agricultural improvements attempted. This laudable spirit has added respect to the terror inspired by his government; and even those who, out of the immediate reach of his power, can venture to express hatred of his tyranny, are obliged to allow that Albania is more happy and prosperous under this single and stern dominion, than when divided among numerous chieftains, and harassed by incessant wars. From this opinion, no deference to the principles of despotism can be inferred. The experience of history has proved that a single tyrant is less injurious to the happiness of a people, than tyranny divided among several; and the vizier of Albania has himself become a despot, only by the annihilation of the many despots who preyed on that heretofore distracted and divided country."

The Albanian or Skipetarie, is not a written language. Sometimes, in the southern provinces, the Greek characters have been used to represent Albanian words, but as the Greek itself is familiar to the educated classes, it is generally used in writing. Major Leake has formed a grammar and vocabulary of the vernacular tongue, and Mr. Holthouse, in the appendix to his *Travels in Albania*, gives an abridgment of an Albanian grammar, formed as early as the year 1716, by an Italian missionary, of the Propaganda Fide, at Rome, named Da Lecce, to both of which we may refer the curious in philology, in further illustration of the history of a people who have undergone fewer changes in habit and situation than perhaps any other European community. The chief peculiarity of Albanian utterance is the predominance of nasal sounds.

Of the population of Albania various estimates have been given. The standing army of their great leader Scanderberg consisted of 8000 horse and 7000 foot; and perhaps one million, four hundred thousand, will be found as accurate a calculation of the entire inha-

Dr. Hol-
land's char-
acter of
him.

* This can be understood only in a limited sense, according to the most recent testimony. Lord Byron thus describes his visit to the Pasha's court:

To greet Albania's chief, whose dread command
Is lawless law; for with a bloody hand
He sways a nation, turbulent and bold:
Yet here and there were daring mountain-band
Uttered his power, and from their rocky hold
Hurl their defiance far, nor yield, unless to gold.
In marble-paved pavilion, where a spring
Of living water from the centre rose,
Whose bubbling did a genial freshness fling,
And soft voluptuous couches breathed repose,
Ais reclined, a man of war and won;
Yet in his luminous eye no softer trace,
While gentleness her milder radiance throws
Along that aged venerable face.
The deeds that lurk beneath, and stain him with disgrace.
It is not that you hoary lengthening beard,
Ill soits the passions which belong to youth;
Love creeps on age—no! Hafa! hafa! avowed,
So sings the Tetan, and his sings in south—
But crimes that seem the tender voice of truth,
Beseeching all men ill, but most the man
In years, have marked him with a tiger's tooth;
Blood follows blood, and, through their mortal spas,
In bloodier acts conclude those who with blood began.

Language of
Albania.

Population.

ALBANIA bits of the country as can well be obtained. The temperature of the whole district is mild and healthy, especially in the upper part which is consequently the best peopled. In the spring there is seldom much rain or long continued droughts; but the autumnal rains last a month; in the close of the season, the sky presents the most perfect clearness, while the middle of the day is as warm as in our June. The heat in summer is very oppressive, but the winter does not last more than two months. The physicians in all the large towns are Greeks, and well-informed men; the surgeons generally Albanians, and very ignorant. Mr. Hobhouse mentions a method of kneading the shoulders and pulling the limbs which he saw practised for a cold, and as singular a remedy for fevers. The patient stretches out his arm, and the doctor runs his thumb forcibly along the principal artery, from the wrist up to the shoulder. This he repeats several times, until he has thrown the man into a complete perspiration, when he covers him up warm, and considers him in a fair way of recovery.

Make and dress of the Albanians.

The Albanians are of middle stature, muscular, and straight in their make, and particularly small round the loins; the expression of their eyes is very lively; their chests full and broad. They wear a tight girdle round their waists, and puncture and stain their skin. The women are tall and strong, rather than beautiful, and bear many marks of wretchedness in their general appearance. Their common dress is a coarse cotton, with the head covered by a shawl, clasped under their ears. Some of them substitute a white woollen dress; and some of the younger women, wear a kind of skull-cap, under which the hair is bridled, and flows down, strung with their smaller pieces of money. The Albanian women have a general taste for the fantastical in their dress, and are not very scrupulous as to cleanliness. The common attire of the men is a shirt of cotton, generally worn from white to quite black, and often falling to shreds, and well inhabited before it is changed; drawers of the same materials; a mantle of white woollen, and a large great coat, or capote, famed in our poet Spenser's time,

"*high capote Albanian wise.*"

This has loose open sleeves, and a hood which hangs in a square piece behind, but when used upon the head it is fastened into form by a long needle, or sometimes with a pistol ramrod. It is also made of white woollen, or sometimes of horse-hair. Their waist-girdle is a coarse shawl drawn very tight by a belt that contains their pistols. When they go to rest, they loosen this, draw the capote about them, and frequently have no other covering. In the summer they throw off the capote, and sometimes the mantle. The poorest Albanian is not to be found without his pistols; and the long gun, in the use of which, they are very dexterous, has a place in every cottage. Besides their pistols, their belt generally contains a case knife, variously ornamented, and the handle strung with amulets; and the "*calamaro*," a sort of portable inkstand and pen, of which they are said to be very proud, whether they can use it or not.—"The whole Albanian costume, when quite clean and new," says Mr. Hobhouse, "is incomparably more elegant than any worn in the Turkish empire, and it may be made very costly. The agas, who can afford such an expence, to their other two

jackets, add a third without sleeves; and all three of these suits being of velvet, richly worked with inland gold or silver, the body of the dress has the appearance, and, indeed, almost the stiffness, of a coat of mail." Lord Byron says the resemblance between the Albanians and Highlanders, struck him forcibly.

Their cottages are neat, and consist generally of one floor, divided into two rooms, in one of which they keep their maize in the stalk, or their grapes, which they sprinkle with salt to preserve them. Each person generally has a small garden; and the villages have a green for holiday sports, and a circular piece of paved ground attached to it, on which their corn is trodden out by eight or nine horses abreast, driven round a stake fixed in the centre. The principal food of the Albanians is wheaten or barley bread, or cakes of boiled or roasted maize, *hecce* made of goat's milk, rice mixed with butter, eggs, dried fish, olives, and other vegetables. Sometimes they kill a kid or sheep, and fowls are every where plentiful, but their proportion of animal food is always small compared with their vegetables. Both Mahometans and Christians drink wine, and an ardent spirit called *rackie*, extracted from grape husks and barley; they take also water in large draughts, and during the most violent exercise without any apparent inconvenience. Coffee is found in some houses in the towns. The Albanians are generally temperate, economical, and even avaricious; but they are idle and ignorant as husbandmen, many of whose most important avocations they transfer to the women. Until lately, the whole country was infested with strong bands of robbers, and though they have been greatly suppressed by the strict police of Ali Pasha, it is not thought disgraceful to have been connected with them, and they are still very able at their trade. Robbing and stealing are said to be reckoned two such different vices, that while in the former they will even glory, from the latter the lowest orders are remarkably free. The Albanians have some curious forms of salutation. From the rising of the sun to three hours afterwards, they say '*mire nestracim*,' or '*nestracina emire*,' good morning. From the third hour to noon, '*mire minghessi*,' literally, a good cheese-making to you, from the time when the shepherds make their cheese. Good day, good evening, and good night, are used much the same as amongst us. To a man in his own house they say, '*mire mbe sctepi*,' well at home; to a person at a *mire mbe par*, well at your work; and '*mire mbe diti*,' well in the sun, to those who are reclining in the sun. The Albanians are extremely fond of music, and every common troop of soldiers is provided with its maudlin and singer. As soon as the daily occupation is over, the Albanian begins to sing and play; he is his own composer and poet, and the music is generally nothing more than a repetition of monotonous sounds, struck at random with the fingers from an *acacoth* mandoline, and accompanied with rough, howling tones of the voice. Their fondness for the dance is equally strong; and the execution of it, for gracefulness, somewhat similar. As a specimen of Albanian manners we subjoin Mr. Hobhouse's account of this their favourite amusement:—

"Although lazy in the intervals of peace, there is one Albanian amusement of which (as it reminds them of their wars, and is in itself a sort of friendly contest) they partake

ALBANIA.

Albanian
dances.

with the most persevering energy and outrageous glee. I allude to their dances, which, though principally resorted to after the fatigues of a march, and during their nights on the mountains, are yet occasionally their diversion on the green of their own villages. There is in them only one variety: either the hands of the party (a dozen or more in number), are locked in each other behind their backs; or every man has a handkerchief in his hand, which is held by the next to him, and so on through a long string of them. The first is a slow dance: the party stand in a semicircle; and their masicmen in the middle, a fiddler, and a man with a lute, continue walking from side to side, accompanying with their masic the movements, which are nothing but the bending and unbending of the two ends of the semicircle, with some very slow footing, and now and then a hop.

Handkerchief
dance.

“But in the handkerchief dance, which is accompanied by a song from themselves, or which is, more properly speaking, only dancing to a song, they are very violent. It is upon the leader of the string that the principal movements devolve, and all the party take this place by turns. He begins at first opening the song, and footing quietly from side to side; then he hops quickly forward, dragging the whole string after him in a circle; and then twirls round, dropping frequently on his knee, and rebounding from the ground with a shout; every one repeating the burden of the song, and following the example of the leader, who, after hopping, twirling, dropping on the knee, and bounding up again several times round and round, resigns his place to the man next to him. The new Corymbus leads them through the same evolutions, but endeavours to exceed his predecessor in the quickness and violence of his measures; and thus they continue at this sport for several hours, with very short intervals, seeming to derive fresh vigour from the words of the song, which is perhaps changed once or twice during the whole time.

Masic.

“In order to give additional force to their vocal music, it is not unusual for two or three old men of the party to sit in the middle of the ring, and to set the words of the song at the beginning of each verse, at the same time with the leader of the string; and one of them has often a lute to accompany their voices.

“It should have been told that the lute is a very simple instrument; a three-stringed guitar, with a very long neck and a small round base, whose masic is very monotonous, and which is played with what I shall be excused for calling a plectrum, made of a piece of quill, half an inch in length. The majority of the Albanians can play on this lute, which, however, is only used for, and are just sufficient for the accompaniment, and marking the time of their songs.

“The same dance can be executed by one performer; who, in that case, does not himself sing, but dances to the voice and lute of a single masicman. We saw a boy of fifteen, who, by some variation of the figure, and by the ease with which he performed the *pirouette*, and the other difficult movements, made a very agreeable spectacle of this singular performance.”

Trade.

The trade of Albania is not inconsiderable, and is much encouraged by the reigning Pasha. The exports, which are chiefly conducted through the gulf of Arta, are grain, timber, oil, tobacco, cotton, and wool; but

the merchants who conduct it reside principally at Ioannina. The grain is chiefly Indian corn, and upwards of fifty cargoes annually are sent out to the Ionian isles, the shores of Italy, and Malta; but the Vizier has monopolized and injured this trade. The timber is grown almost on the shores; a French agent resided at Arta, during part of the revolutionary war, to contract for supplies of it to the marine arsenals of France. The tobacco is cultivated chiefly in Upper Albania. The cotton and cotton-yarn are received through Thessaly, and exported to the German and Italian ports of the Adriatic. The only manufactured article which is exported is the Albanian *capote*, before described, in which they are said to return 150,000 piastres annually. The imports are sugar, coffee, gunpowder, fire-arms, ironmongery, common cloths, linen, and velvets. The chief connections of the coast are with Greek houses at Trieste, and Maltese houses, through which they receive the manufactures of Great Britain.

The characteristic of this people is their love of war; and they are found in the Turkish service in all parts of the Ottoman empire. Accustomed to the cold temperature of their mountains, and defended by their thick capotes, they dread neither heat nor cold; they seldom make use of barracks or tents when out on service, and are incomparably more active than any other portion of the Turkish soldiery. They are temperate and extremely sober, when engaged in this their favourite pursuit; a few black olives, or pickled, with from one to two pounds of flour of maize, or wheat, is their general military ration. To their bravery we have already adverted, and they seem to have imbibed almost a contempt of death. M. de Vandoncourt (*Memoirs of the Ionian Islands*, &c. 8vo.) gives an instance of this, which occurred under his own observation. “An individual of the Liapis clan being condemned to death, was brought out to be conveyed to the place of execution, which was situated beyond the walls of Prevesa. Being arrived about midday, he passed by a large fig-tree:—“Why,” said he to those who conducted him, “do you wish me to travel half a league further in the hottest part of the day? Can’t you hang me here?” This favour was granted him, and he himself put the rope round his own neck. A few hours afterwards, another Liapis passed by the same place, and seeing that the clothes of the deceased were better than his own, with the greatest indifference he began to undress him, and exchanged them for his own rags. The Albanians are known by the name of *Arants* in the Turkish armies, a name that is transferred occasionally to all the inhabitants of the country; but the title of honour, in which they take the highest pride, is that of *Palikari*, which signifies brave. Their discipline is very imperfect, and imperfect they have hardly any conception of what it is to observe discipline. rank or file. A column of 6000 men will straggle over five or six leagues in marching; and when they arrive at the scene of action, like their remotest ancestors, they begin the battle with loud shrieks and reproaches, which they renew at every pause; their fire commences entirely at their own will, and each troop in battle collects round its chief, and fights separately from the neighbouring one. The usual arms of the Albanians are two pistols in the sash or girdle; an atagar, or cutlass, slightly bent forward, resembling the harpoon of the an-

Anecdote.

ALBANIA. cient Greeks; a salte bent backward, hung to a belt and placed horizontally; and a long musket. They are impatient to come to close quarters with their side-arms, of which they make the most effectual use. The fine arts are unknown amongst the Albanians, and the mechanical arts chiefly exercised by foreign residents. There is an university in the neighbouring district of Ioannina, and some learned Greek professors; but the three exclusive professions of the Albanians, properly so called, are those of shepherd, agriculturalist, and warrior.

Religion and morals. The only two religions publicly acknowledged in Albania are the Mussulman and that of the Greek church. Jews are tolerated, and Latin catholics are found amongst the foreign residents; indeed the system of Ali Pasha is that of the most complete toleration, and the Mahometan makes no difficulty in observing Easter occasionally with the Greeks, who, in return, will assist at the Mussulman Rhamazan, as family alliances or personal interest may require. Little can be said in favour of their morals. The remains of a feudal independence among the clans keep the country in comparative anarchy, even under the most rigid general government, and tombs and bones scattered every where attest the frequency of desperate quarrels. The wandering race, known under the name of gypsies in England, and called by the Turks Tchinguenes, are extremely numerous here. But the rights of hospitality are as much respected in the wildest districts of Albania as in the early days of Greece; and should a traveller among the mountains accidentally enter under the roof of a robber-chief, he may rely on protection, and even courtess. Some of the usages described by Homer will still be found here. When a stranger, for instance, arrives in a village, he is immediately surrounded by its chiefs; if the weather be fine he is invited to the public square, when the old men interrogate him respecting his country and travels, and relate to him their chief affairs. He is presented with wine and fruits; and, at the hour of usual repast, invited to one of their houses; a sheep roasted whole is placed upon the table, which is surrounded by the principal inhabitants, and he is invited to eat it with their home-made unleavened bread. M. de Vauloncourt describes himself as having thus been received in their districts.

Hospitality. The only two religions publicly acknowledged in Albania are the Mussulman and that of the Greek church. Jews are tolerated, and Latin catholics are found amongst the foreign residents; indeed the system of Ali Pasha is that of the most complete toleration, and the Mahometan makes no difficulty in observing Easter occasionally with the Greeks, who, in return, will assist at the Mussulman Rhamazan, as family alliances or personal interest may require. Little can be said in favour of their morals. The remains of a feudal independence among the clans keep the country in comparative anarchy, even under the most rigid general government, and tombs and bones scattered every where attest the frequency of desperate quarrels. The wandering race, known under the name of gypsies in England, and called by the Turks Tchinguenes, are extremely numerous here. But the rights of hospitality are as much respected in the wildest districts of Albania as in the early days of Greece; and should a traveller among the mountains accidentally enter under the roof of a robber-chief, he may rely on protection, and even courtess. Some of the usages described by Homer will still be found here. When a stranger, for instance, arrives in a village, he is immediately surrounded by its chiefs; if the weather be fine he is invited to the public square, when the old men interrogate him respecting his country and travels, and relate to him their chief affairs. He is presented with wine and fruits; and, at the hour of usual repast, invited to one of their houses; a sheep roasted whole is placed upon the table, which is surrounded by the principal inhabitants, and he is invited to eat it with their home-made unleavened bread. M. de Vauloncourt describes himself as having thus been received in their districts.

We cannot conclude this article without again indulging ourselves with an extract from Lord Byron's tribute to the beauties of this country in his *Childe Harold*, not only because of its poetical claims, but as calculated to give the reader the most just and accurate impressions of its topography.

Land of Albania! where Iskander rose,
Thence of the young, and beauteous of the wise,
And he his name sake,* whose oft baffled fies
Struck from his deeds of chivalrous empire:
Land of Albania! let me bend mine eyes
On thee, thou rugged nurse of savage men!
The cross descends, thy minarets arise,
And the pale crescent sparkles in the glen,
Through many a cypress grove within each city's ken.
More dawns; and with it stem Albania's hills,
Dark Solis' rocks, and Pinus' island peak,
Robed half in mist, bedew'd with sunny rills,
Array'd in many a dun and purple streak,
Arise; and, as the clouds along them break,
Disclose the dwelling of the mountaineer:
Here roams the wolf, the eagle scorns his beak,
Bears, brants of prey, and whiter snags appear,
And gathering storms around convulse the closing year.

Anabasis' gulph behold, where once was lost
A world for woman, lovely, barbaic thing?
In yonder riding bay, their naval host
Dil many a Roman chieft and Asian king
To doubtful conflict, certain slaughter bring;
Look where the second Cesar's trophies rose!
Now like the laurels that reared them withering;
Imperial Anarchy, doubling human woes!
God! was thy globe ordained for such to win and lose?

From the dark barriers of that rugged clime,
Ev'n to the coast of Illyria's vales,
Childe Harold passed o'er many a mount sublime,
Through lands scarce noticed in historic tales;
Yet fared in Asia, such lovely dale
Are rarely seen; nor can fair Tempe boast
A chieftain they know not; loved Perseus falls,
Though classic ground and consecrated soil,
To match some spots that lurk within this lowering coast.

HORNBOUSE'S *Albania*, 2 vols. 4to. 1813. LEAKE'S *Researches in Greece*, 4to 1814. HOLLAND'S *Travels*, 4to. 1815. VAULONCOURT'S *Memoirs of the Ionian Islands*, 8vo. 1816.

* Iskander is the Turkish word for Alexander, the christian name of Scanderberg; whose countryman, Mr. Gibbon, makes Alexander the Great.

ALBANIE PORTEE, in Ancient Geography, a name given to the defiles which opened across Caucasus into Albania in Asia.

ALBANO, a well-built town of Italy, standing on or near the site of the ancient *Alba Longa*. It is situated in the once happy and fertile province of Campania, about fifteen miles S. E. of Rome, on a beautiful lake of the same name, and is still frequented by the nobility and gentry of that city as a place of pleasure and retirement during the summer months. Among the remains of antiquity in this place, are still seen the ruins of the supposed tombs of Aeneas, son of Eneas, and of the Horatii and Curatii; or, as some have alleged, of Pompey the Great. Here also are the ruins of the palace of the emperor Domitian; and on the top of Mount Albano, generally called Monte Cavo, those of a temple dedicated to Jupiter and Juno.

ALBAN'S (St.), a market town of great antiquity, in Hertfordshire, whose history is connected with and

elucidates the earliest records of the Christian faith in this island.

At the close of the third century, the first Christian martyrdom in England, of which we have any account, took place on or very near the site of this town, in the person of a man of the name of Alban, a native of the ancient Verulam, from the ruins of which city St. Alban's was erected. Though somewhat irreverently spoken of by Milton, in his History of England, this circumstance stands upon authority which never yet has been disputed; and his persecutors are said to have inscribed the account of his murder upon marble, and inserted it in the city walls. It is true, however, as Milton asserts, that the "story of his martyrdom," has been "soild, and worse martyr'd with the fabled zeal of some idle fancies, more fond of miracles than apprehensive of truth."

The ancient Verulam, or *Fulacium*, was a consi-Verulam. derable city of the Britons, and the seat of the princes

ALBAN'S,
ST.

Martyrdom
of Alban.

ALBAN'S,
ST.
History of
Verulam.

Saxon
names.

Rise of St.
Alban's.

of the Cassii. If the Roman historians may be relied upon, it was built even before London itself. British, Roman, and Saxon antiquities have rewarded the laborious researches of antiquaries, during the period of upwards of 1000 years; nor is the stock of these venerable remains even yet exhausted; a portion of the massy walls of the original city may still be discovered, as also several indications of extensive streets. Tacitus gives this city the name of Verulamium; and Ptolemy that of Urolanium. The Roman invaders, from whom doubtless it derived its greatest strength, beauty, and importance dignified it with the privileges of a *municipium*, and this as early as Aulus Plautius. It was afterwards made a free imperial city of the Roman empire. These advances towards grandeur and importance, at length inflamed the patriotic envy of queen Boadicea, who, at the head of a powerful army, made a vigorous assault upon this rising colony. The elegant pen of Tacitus has recorded these attempts of the native Britons with a portion of acrimony and insinuation hardly worthy so faithful a historian. Boadicea, however, ultimately failed in her enterprise, and Verulam again rose to its former lustre. When the overgrown empire of Rome had become too unwieldy for the management of its proud and extravagant masters, and their legions had finally abandoned the shores of our island, the incursions of the Saxons extended to this city; to which they gave the name of Werlancestre, and Watlingcæstre; the former a corruption of its Romish appellation; the latter evidently derived from its connection with the celebrated Roman via ficalina, called Watlingstreet. Its early name of Verulam was clearly connected with the river *Fer*, near which it stood. Matthew Paris calls this the Werlam river. Uter Pendragon, after an obstinate siege, wrested this city from the Saxons; but they recovered it again; on which occasion it is supposed they demolished the public edifices and other buildings, and put the inhabitants to the sword. After this event, no mention is made of this place in history during more than two centuries, though there is good ground for supposing that it was not completely deserted till the rise of the present town of *St. Alban's*, in connection with the following circumstances.

Offa, the celebrated Mercian king, being at Bath, "in the rest and silence of the night," fancied that an angel appeared to him, directing him to raise the precious relics of the martyr Alban from the ruins of this place, and to enshrine it with ornaments more suitable to the dignity and virtues of the proto-martyr of Britain. The real, or supposed remains of the martyr having been discovered, they were conveyed with great pomp and ceremony to "a certain church, small in size, that had formerly been constructed by the new converts to Christianity, without the walls of Verulam, in honour of the blessed martyr, and on the very spot where he suffered." The venerable Bede, who died only fifty-five years previous to Offa's visit to Verulam, describes this church as one of "admirable workmanship, and worthy of such a martyr." After the body had been enshrined, Offa is said to have placed a circle of gold round the skull of the saint, inscribed with his name and title; and to have set about to fulfil his intention of erecting a monastery in this place. Having obtained the approbation of the Pope, in the granting of which the pontiff contrived to secure to himself, and his suc-

cessors in perpetuity, the payment of *Peter-pence* (which had originally been granted for the maintenance of a Saxon college at Rome); the monastery, which was richly endowed, was dedicated to the perpetual maintenance of one hundred benedictine monks, "and the entertainment of all travellers who should seek relief within its precincts." It is not necessary to detail the history, however curious, of this famous monastery, and the various improvements, &c. it underwent under the abbots by which it was governed till the period of its dissolution by Henry VIII. At that time its entire revenues were estimated, according to Dugdale, at 2102*l.* *7s.* 1*½d.* per annum; but Speed says, they amounted to 2510*l.* *6s.* 1*½d.* a sum, in those days, its revenues admirably calculated to inflame the zeal and tempt the cupidity of the new "head of the church." The abbey church, however, was not disposed of till the reign of Edward VI. who sold it to the inhabitants of St. Alban's for 400*l.* This venerable and beautiful structure is still standing, and contains, besides the remains of its tutelary saint, the ashes of king Offa, and those of Humphrey Duke of Gloucester, the youngest son of Henry IV. The church of St. Michael, in this town, was the burial place of the celebrated Lord Bacon. There is a third parish church dedicated to St. Helen; besides several places of worship for Protestant dissenters. The neighbourhood is also distinguished in history for two decisive battles fought here between the armies attached to the houses of York and Lancaster; the first took place in the year 1451, the last ten years afterwards. In this engagement Queen Margaret, who was along with the troops, rescued her husband from captivity.

The borough gaol of St. Alban's is a wooden building, in which few prisoners are ever confined; but in which the mixture of men and women in the apartments (separated by an open railing alone, the bars of which are six inches distant from each other) is most objectionable. The Abbey of St. Alban's gateway contains the entrance to the House of Correction on one side, and the gaol for the Liberty of St. Alban's on the other. Mr. Buxton, a benevolent individual, who, with S. Hoare, jun. Esq. visited these prisons in January and February of the present year (1818), thus describes their wretched state and regulations:

"*House of Correction, generally for persons sentenced to hard labour.*—There is no salary for a clergyman, and no provision of labour. One pound and a half of bread is the daily allowance to each individual, and no firing. The room in which they pass the day, cook their victuals, and sleep at night, was very close, and emitted a very offensive smell. The necessary is in a closet in the same room. The bed consisted of straw on the floor, with four blankets and two rugs for five men; one of them looked exceedingly ill. There is no infirmary, no clothes allowed, and all were very ragged. I asked the gaoler, do you think the prisoners' morals improved by coming here? "No, sir, quite the contrary, they do one another mischief; they go out worse than they come in; and so it must be till old offenders are separated from others, and till they are employed."

"*The Gaol for the Liberty of St. Alban's.*—No fire; one pound and a half of bread per day. I asked the gaoler if this was sufficient. Some, he said, could eat double as much. No separation, except between men and women. The men's sleeping room is without air or light, except what may be received through a grating,

ALBAN'S,
ST.
Monastery.

Its
revenues.

Churches at
St. Alban's.

Prisons.

Mr. Bux-
ton's ac-
count of
their state.

ALBAN'S
ST.
ALBANY.

which opens into a passage, which opens into the day room, which communicates with the yard. The building is an old fortification, and into this room there is one of the loop-holes, which are common in such buildings; but this was stopped to exclude the cold air. When the door was open, it was so dark that we hesitated about entering, being unable to perceive whether there was or was not a step. We were informed there was a load of straw, which we never saw: one blanket and some straw is the bedding allowed. The men are employed in making straw hats, baskets, &c. Women have no work at all. In the absence of the keeper, we asked the men to tell us truly, whether they were better or worse for being there? A decent looking man answered, 'In truth, sir, we all grow worse; I confess I have.' I asked the greater the same question; his answer was, 'If I must say the truth, they do all grow worse; they go on more corrupted than they come in; it must be so. There are in that yard all manner of offenders. That boy, mentioning a lad about 20, 'robbed his master in London, and was committed to Newgate, and condemned to be hanged. He was saved by the intercession of his father, who is a very respectable and opulent man; he robbed his father to a great extent, and he is sent here for eighteen months for another robbery. Now he is such a desperate wicked character, as to be sufficient to corrupt all the boys, and men too, that come here in that time; he knows all the practices of London, and has told them to his companions. In the same yard are several boys for poisoning, for keeping sporting dogs, and slight offences.'—BUXTON, on *Prison Discipline*, 8vo. 1818. We hold it put these statements upon record, to contribute, at least, to the investigation of such abuses.

On the site of the present market-house, which was built in the year 1810, formerly stood a cross, dedicated to the memory of queen Margaret. Edward VI. in the year 1553, granted to this town the honours and privileges of a corporate borough; and it now returns two members to parliament. The family of Beauclerc derive the title of duke from the place; and the Walter-Crimston family that of baron from its ancient name of *Ferulam*. According to the census of 1811, the population amounts to 2,152 persons, of whom nearly one-third are employed in trade, manufactures, and handicraft. There is a considerable trade in straw-plaiting for bonnets and hats carried on here. The town consists of three principal streets; it is 21 miles from London, and 13 from Hertford.

ALBANY, St. a township in Franklin county, Vermont, in the United States of America; also a village on the shores of lake Champlain, situated between 30 and 40 miles from Burlington.

ALBAN'S HEAD, or HIGHLAND, St. a cape, or point of land lying in the county of Dorset, a little east of the town of Weymouth. W. lon. 2°, 10'. N. lat. 50°, 4'.

ALBANUS, in Ancient Geography, a mountain near Alba, and about sixteen miles from Rome, where the Latins were celebrated. There was a lake at its foot about seven miles in circumference, called the Alban lake, and the neighbourhood was adorned with the villas of the opulent Romans.

ALBANY, a county of North America, in the state of New York, on Hudson's river, between Ulster and Saratoga, by which, with Schenectady county, it is bounded on the N. having the county of Hudson or

Rensselaer on the E.; Green county on the S.; and Schoharie county on the W. It comprehends an extent of about 462 square miles, and is of early origin in the history of America. The state of which it forms a part became a regular settlement, under the Dutch, about the year 1614, and Albany county sent two representatives, or delegates, to its first legislative assembly, in 1691. This district has a great variety of soil and produce; it is agreeably diversified with hills and dales (for perhaps no part of these deserves the name of mountain or valley), and is watered by numerous navigable creeks, lakes, and rivers. In some places, particularly near its northern boundary, the land is nearly barren; indeed, though this county is deemed one of no small importance in North American statistics, the progress of cultivation does not appear to have been very rapid. The population in 1810 amounted to 34,660. The county town is

ALBANY, the capital of the state of New York, situated on the western banks of the Hudson, about 160 miles north of the city of New York, and 394 south of Quebec. This is one of the most important cities, in a statistical point of view, in the United States; being but little inferior to New York itself, in wealth, population, trade, and commerce. It derives some considerable advantages from its situation, as a central point of communication on the great roads between the eastern states and the western country. In 1797, it is said to have contained about 6000 inhabitants, and in 1810 to have doubled that number. Here are several good places of worship for the episcopians, presbyterians, the baptists, the methodists, &c. Besides these, there are numerous public buildings connected with the municipal government of the city, the commerce, manufactures, and amusements of the inhabitants. A reservoir of heavy stone, constructed on a rising ground, near the capitol, or state-house, receives the water from a spring a few miles distant, with which the inhabitants are plentifully supplied, through numerous small aqueducts. There are works for the manufacture of mustard, chocolate, tobacco, snuff, starch, &c. in the neighbourhood, equal in extent of business to any on this continent. The climate is healthy; and the inhabitants a mixture of almost every nation. The communication between this place and the city of New York, has, within these few years past, been greatly facilitated by the construction of steam boats, which perform their passages in about thirty-five hours, notwithstanding some rapids and shoals which are found in the course of this passage; and also against the tides, which often are very strong in the current of the river.

ALBANY RIVER, in North America, falls into James's bay, after running in a N. E. direction, and communicating with several small lakes southward of Winnipeg lake. It lies in 84°, 30' W. lon. and 51°, 30' N. lat.

ALBARIUM OPUS, in Ancient Architecture, the white covering or incrustation of the roofs of houses, and said to be made entirely of lime. The workmen were called Albarii and Albini.

ALBARRAZIN, a strongly-fortified town of Spain, in the province of Aragon, near the river Guadalquivir, on the frontiers of New Castile, about 30 miles from Saragossa. It is one of the most ancient towns of Spain, being the see of a bishop, and containing three parishes. The fine wool, known by the name of Arra-

ALBANY.
ALBARRAZIN.

ALBAR-

MAZIN.

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ALBE.

—

gon wool, is produced in large quantities in the neighbourhood. It is about 100 miles E. from Madrid.

ALBARREGAS, an extensive river of South America, in New Granada. It has its sources in the Bogota mountains, and discharges its waters into the lake Maracaibo.

ALBASANO, a town of Albania, in European Turkey, about 45 miles from Durazzo, 150 S. W. of Sophia, and nearly 400 from Constantinople.

ALBATI EQUI, in Antiquity, a name given to those horses in the public games who were caparisoned in white, and who were thus distinguished from the *præti*, *rusiati*, and *veneti*.

ALBATROSS, in Ornithology, a name given by English navigators to the *DIONEIA*, a marine bird, found in various seas. It has the bill straight, the upper mandible hooked at the point, and the lower truncated; the nostrils oval, wide, and prominent; the tongue very small; and three toes all placed forward. Only four species of this bird have been known; the wandering albatross, or man-of-war bird, chiefly found within the tropics; the chocolate albatross, which inhabits the Pacific ocean; the yellow-nosed albatross, found in the southern hemisphere, from 30° to 60° from the pole; and the sooty albatross, inhabiting the seas within the antarctic circle.

ALBATROSS POINT, a high craggy cape of New Zealand, in 38° 4' S. lat. and 184° 42' W. lon. It was so named by Captain Cook, in his first voyage round the world, on account of the great number of the wandering albatrosses seen by him in these parts.

ALBATROSS ISLAND is on the N. of Van Diemen's Land. S. lat. 40°, 25'. E. lon. 144°, 41'. It derives its name from the same circumstance as the cape above mentioned.

ALBAY, a mountain in the island of Luçon (the largest of the Philippine islands), subject to frequent volcanic eruptions. The last of which we have any account took place in the year 1814, making the most dreadful havoc in the neighbourhood, and destroying many thousands of the inhabitants.

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Al be it. Be all. Be it all.

Saturne anon, to stenten stiff and drede

Al be it that it be again his blood,

Of all this still he get a remedy find.

Chaucer. *The Knights Tale*, book 1.

The quikly Jans now shir lung day is nor serie

Nor nase duyne suffrice any appels

Sche seyns wende, nor may sche help eis

Albeit the power and charge of Jupiter

Resists sche wil, and fairs war bir contrarie.

Douglas. *Book v.*

Jess. Are you, tell me for more certainty,

Albeit I'll revere that I do know your tongue.

Loa. Lorenzo, and thy love.

Jess. Lorenzo certain, and my love indeed.

Shakespeare. *Merchant of Venice*, act 11.

And daily see his wrongs encrease more;

For suret wright he lets to pass that way.

Over his bridge, where he rich or poor,

But he him makes his passage penny pay.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book v. c. 2.

— *Of one whose subdual eyes,*

Albeit vari'd to the melting mood,

Drops tears as fast as the Arabian trees

Their medicinable gum. Shakespeare. *Othello*, act v.

In the meane while the charlants mingled themselves with the battie of footmen, and the troopes of horsemen began far to fly: who albeit they had lately terrified others, were now distressed themselves.

Speed's *Hist. of Great Britain*.

For albeit the Seythes heard of the Romans arms, yet they never felt them.

— *Albeit the world think Machiavel is dead,*

Yet was his soul but flown beyond the Alps,

And, now the Grine is dead, it came from France,

To view this land and frolic with his friends.

Marlow. *Jes of Malta*, act 11.

ALBE, a small German coin, valued at a sol and seven deniers French.

ALBEGIAL, in Astronomy, an Arabian name for the star Lysira.

ALBEGNA, a river in the duchy of Tuscany, in Middle Italy, which throws itself into the lake Orbitello by a canal.

ALBELEN, or **ALBULLA**, in Ichthyology, a fish of a fine silvery colour, found chiefly in the German lakes, and weighing from six to eight or ten pounds.

ALBEMARLE, a county of Virginia, in North America, between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters. It comprehends an area of about thirty-five square miles, and contained, in 1810, 12,585 inhabitants.

ALBEMARLE SOUND, in North America, on the coast of North Carolina. This is a very extensive piece of water, or rather, as it has been aptly called, a kind of inland sea. It communicates with Pamlico sound, and receives the rivers Roanoke and Pamlico.

ALBEMARLE, more generally called **AMULE**, or **ACMARLE**, is a small town of France, in Upper Normandy. It is the head of a canton, in the department of the Lower Seine, arrondissement of Neufchâtel, and is chiefly interesting to an English reader from having conferred the title of duke on General Munk, "because," says Baker in his *Chronicle*, "he was descended from Margaret, one of the daughters and co-heirs of Richard Beauchampe, Earl of Albemarle and Warwick." The family of the Keppels are now earls of Albemarle. They were raised to the peerage in 1696. The dukedom is extinct.

ALBEN, a town of Inner Carniola, in Austria, circle of Adelsberg. It is situated amidst high mountains and sterile deserts. There are, however, some mines of mercury in the neighbourhood.

ALBENGA, or **ALBENGA**, anciently called Albium, Ingannum, or Albingaunum, a town and bishopric of Genoa, lying about 30 miles S. W. of that city, and between Fiasale and Oneglia. The bishop is a suffragan of the archbishop of Genoa; but the town is almost deserted on account of the insalubrity of its soil, and has suffered much devastation from various wars. The country around produces olive-trees and hemp in some abundance. E. lon. 8°, 1'. N. lat. 44°.

ALBENQUE, a small town in Quercy, in France, in the department of the Lot, arrondissement of Cahors. It was formerly under the intendancy and election of Montauban, from which place it is distant about eight leagues, but is at present the head of a canton, and contains about 1900 inhabitants.

ALBENREUTH, NEW AND OLD, two villages of Bavaria, considerable as well for their size as for the produce of their mines of cobalt and the iron works of the neighbourhood. They are situate on the Bohemian frontier of the Upper Palatinate.

ALBEO-LA, in Ornithology, the white and black sarcelle, or snipe, of Buffon; and the white duck of Edwards. It is found in America, from Carolina to Hudson's bay, and is called the spirit by the Newfoundland fishermen.

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ALBERCHE, a small river of Toledo, in Spain, which joins the Tagus nearly on the spot where the Duke of Wellington accomplished his memorable victory on the plain of Talavera, which this river passes through.

ALBERNUO in Commerce, a kind of camlet, brought by way of the Levant into Marseilles.

ALBERTISTS, in the History of the Middle Ages, a sect of scholastics, taking their name from Albertus Magnus, a man of superior erudition, who was honoured with the title of a magician, and regarded by the alchemists as one of the most successful of their brethren.

ALBERTUS, in Commerce, a gold coin, in value about 14 livres French, or 11s. 8d. of our money. It was of the mint of Albertus, archduke of Austria.

ALBESZTI, a market town, situate between the rivers Proava and Chiricon, and near the Syul, in Wallachia. It is about 70 miles N. E. of the large town Bucharest.

ALBI, in Abruzzo Ultra, in the kingdom of Naples, which gives the title of a county. It is about six miles W. of Celano.

ALBI, or ALBIE, a small town situate in the district of Geneva, in Savoy, N. E. of Chambéry about seven leagues.

ALBI, or ALBY, a town of France, in Languedoc, the capital of the department of Tarn, about 340 miles south of Paris. Before the late revolution, this was the capital of the district of Albigeois, which has been supposed to give their name to the Paulicians, or Albigenes. This town is mentioned in history as a place of some consequence, as early as the fifth century. The zealots of the revolution destroyed many relics of antiquity here; but even at present it exhibits some valuable architectural remains. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Cecilia, is described as possessing one of the finest choirs in the kingdom. The archiepiscopal palace (for, prior to the late changes, this was the seat of an archbishop) is finely situated, and commands a pleasing prospect. The promenade, called La Lice, is a very beautiful walk. A few linen and woollen stuffs, baize, and serge, are manufactured here. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about 10,000.

ALBIANI, CAPE, a head-land on the extremity of the island of Cyprus, on the N. W. shore. E. lon. 32°, 18'. N. lat. 35°, 10'.

ALBICILLA, in Ornithology, a species of the Linnaean FALCO, called the great erne, by Buffon. It is about the size of a peregrine, and is sometimes found in the northern parts of Scotland, and the adjoining islands.

ALBIFICATION, *album facere*, to make white.

Our lamps burning both night and day
To bring about our craft, if that we may
Our fourmis eke of calcination
And of waters albification.
Unleaked lime, &c.

Classer. The Chaucer's Femmes Tale, book ii.

ALBIGENES, in Ecclesiastical History, the name of a religious sect of the twelfth century, who were eminently distinguished by their opposition to the church of Rome, and who from the importance of many of the sentiments for which they contended, as well from the zeal with which they maintained them under severe persecutions, have been enrolled in the honourable catalogue of reformers. The routeness of the age in which they lived, and

the difficulties attending the detection of facts, amidst imperfect and often contradictory documents, render it almost impossible to give any very minute and accurate detail, either of their origin or progress. They have been frequently considered as essentially the same with the Waldenses, a question we shall have occasion to notice under that article, remarking, in the mean time, that no evidence of this identity can be deduced from (what writers on this subject have often pleaded) their being confounded with them, and condemned under their name, by the decrees of their enemies; since nothing is more common, even in the present enlightened age, than to class different, and even opposing parties in religion under the same obnoxious and indiscriminating term, for the sake of condemning them all with the least expence of thought.

Waving, however, this subject for the present, we may briefly state, that they first made their appearance in the vicinity of Toulouse, and the Albigeois in Languedoc, and may, with probability, be considered as a sect of the Paulicians, who, having withdrawn from Bulgaria and Thrace, either to escape persecution, or from motives of zeal to extend their doctrines, settled in various parts of Europe. They acquired different names in different countries, as in Italy, whither they originally migrated, they were called Paterini and Cathari, and in France *Albigenses*, from the circumstance, as Mosheim affirms, of their opinions being condemned in a council held at Alby (Lat. *Albiga*) in the year 1176. Others, however, maintain that this appellation was derived from the district itself which was their chief residence, Albigenium being formerly the general name of Narbonne-Gaul. Besides these epithets, they were called, in different times and places, and by various authors, Bulgarians, Publicans, Boni Homines, or good men, Petro-Brussians, Henricians, Abelardists, Arnoldists, and Passagers. In fact, the term was frequently employed to denote any description of heretic or dissentient from the Romish church. Hence it becomes extremely difficult to ascertain their peculiar opinions with precision. Upon the authority of several writers, they are charged with holding Manicheism, in which is said to have consisted their chief disagreement from the Waldenses, who are allowed to have held a purer reformed faith. The book of the Sentences of the Inquisition at Toulouse charges them with believing that there are two Gods and Lords, good and evil; that all things visible and corporal were created by the devil, or the evil god; that the sacraments of the Romish church are vain and unprofitable; and that, in short, its whole constitution is to be condemned. They are stated to have maintained the unlawfulness of marriage; to have denied the incarnation of Christ, and the resurrection of bodies; and to have believed that the souls of men were spirits banished from heaven on account of their transgressions.

These representations must of course be taken cum grano salis, since they proceed from adversaries; and it is, in truth, most probable that their chief sin consisted in rejecting the superstitions of the Romish church, the advocates of which, in consequence, endeavoured to render them odious, by imputing to them doctrines which they never believed, and concealing from view excellencies both of faith and practice for which they were really distinguished. Admitting that they did blend many errors with their system, it

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ALBINO.

is sufficiently obvious that they possessed much truth, and were willing to suffer for its sake. A crusade was formed against them, at the commencement of the thirteenth century, and Innocent III. admonished all princes to oppress and expel them from their dominions. Their chief protector was Raymond, earl of Toulouse, whose friendship drew upon his head the thunders of excommunication. The legate who bore the papal decree was accompanied by twelve Cistercian monks, who promised a plenary remission of sins to all who engaged in the holy league against the Albigenses. Dominick, the inventor of the Inquisition, joined in the service, and Raymond, after much resistance, at length yielded to terror, solicitation, and self-interest. In the year 1209 the dreadful war began, and Simon, the celebrated earl of Montfort, became generalissimo of the army. Notwithstanding the intrepidity displayed by the objects of this military persecution, town after town was captured, and the poor people, who were stigmatised with the name of heretics, but whom Hume (Hist. vol. ii.) has characterised as "the most innocent and the most inoffensive of man-

kind," were hanged, slaughtered, and burnt, without mercy. The earl of Toulouse was assisted by the kings of England and Arragon, but he lost his dominions, and in vain appealed to the Council of Lateran. Raising some forces in Spain, while his son Raymond exerted himself in Provence, he regained the city of Toulouse, and part of his possessions. The earl died in 1221, and his son succeeded to the dominions he had recovered; but pope Honorius III. stimulated Lewis of France to engage in the contest, and though he encountered numerous difficulties, Raymond was necessitated at length to obtain peace upon very degrading conditions, and finally relinquished his Protestantism; the Albigenses became dispersed, and excited no further attention till they united with the Vaudois, and amalgamated with the Genevan reformed church.

ALBIN, or AUBIN, a small town of France, in the department of the Aveyron, and the arrondissement of Ville Franche. It contains about 3200 inhabitants, and lies eight leagues N. W. of Rhodes. E. lon. 2°, 20'. N. lat. 44°, 31'.

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ALBINO.

A L B I N O.

ALBINO, or *Leucethiop*, the designation of a variety of the human species, that frequently occurs in Africa. Instances are also occasionally met with in different parts of Europe; but it has been more remarked in tribes which are generally of a dark complexion; and it is a well-known fact, that races, the hue of whose skin approaches most nearly to black, are in general most liable to deviations in colour. Albinos have been seen in the Indies, in Borneo, in New Guinea, in Java, and in Ceylon. Ptolemy* and Pliny† apply the term *Leucethiopes* to a tribe of people in Nigritia. The Portuguese first gave the name of Albino to the white negro.

The most prominent peculiarities of the Albino may be enumerated as appertaining to the eye, the skin, and the hair. The iris of the eye is either of a bright red hue, or of a blue colour; and the organ of sight is peculiarly sensible to the impression of light. The skin is either uncommonly fair, such as is seen in the most exquisite examples of the sanguineous temperament, or it is of a dull white colour, similar to that of a recently dead body. The hair is either white and silky, or of a very light flaxen colour; and, according to Dr. Prichard, when this variety springs up among negroes, the woolly excrescence which covers the heads of that race is white.

Dapper, in his "*Description de l'Afrique*," describes this variety as occurring in Lower Ethiopia, and remarks, that they have flaxen hair, blue eyes, the countenance and body so white, that at a distance they may be mistaken for Europeans; but when approached, the difference is readily perceived. He observes also, that the colour of the skin is not that of a bright or natural white, but pale and livid, like that of a dead

body, or of one affected with the leprosy; that their eyes are weak by day, but that by the light of the moon they are brilliant, and their sense of sight strong. They generally sleep during the day, and go abroad in the night. They are mostly males; are not so robust and vigorous as other men, but are exceedingly active during the night; and when the moon shines, they run through the forests with as much alacrity as other men do in the brightest day-light. Dapper further remarks, that they are put to labour in the mines of Brasil, but that they prefer death to a life of slavery. The negroes regard them as moosters, and therefore endeavor to prevent them from multiplying their species. As the sight of Albinos is so feeble during the day that they are almost incapable of discerning any object, the negroes, their enemies, attack them during that time, and readily secure them.

Similar characters to those which have been remarked in the Albino may be observed in various species of animals, both wild and domesticated. These characters have been met with in apes, squirrels, rabbits, rats, mice, hamsters, hogs, moles, opossums, martins, pole-cats, goats,* and sometimes, though rarely, in foxes.† They have been seen in the buffalo,‡ in the cervus capreolus, or common roe;§ in the elephant, though but rarely;¶ in the badger;‡ and the beaver.‡ In Norway they have been remarked to occur in the common species of bear;§ and in Siberia, in the brown bear, or Bactrian camel.¶ Several species of birds, as crows, blackbirds, canary birds, partridges, fowls, and peacocks, exhibit similar phenomena, having

* Blumenbach, de Generis Humani Varietate Nativa.

† Shaw's Zoology.

‡ Pennant's History of Quadrupeds.

§ Falis, Spicilleg. Zoolog. Fascic. 14.

¶ Shaw's Zoology.

* Lib. iv. cap. 6.

† Lib. v. cap. 7.

ALBINO. their feathers of a pure white colour and their eyes red.

M. Buffon does not regard the Albinos as forming a particular race, but as individuals who have accidentally degenerated from their original stock; and considers the production of whites by negro parents as supporting his opinion. According to this author, they are among the negroes what Wafer tells us the white Indians are among the yellow or copper-coloured Indians of Darien; and, probably, what the Chacrelas and Bedas are among the brown Indians of the East. "It is singular (he remarks) that this variation of nature takes place from black to white only, and not from white to black. It is no less singular, that all the people in the East Indies, in Africa, and in America, where these white men appear, lie under the same latitude: the Isthmus of Darien, the negro country, and the island of Ceylon, are under the very same parallel. White then (he continues) appears to be the primitive colour of nature, which may be varied by climate, by food, and by manners, to yellow, brown, and black; and which, in certain circumstances, return, but so greatly altered that it has no resemblance to the primitive whiteness."

Wafer, who accompanied Dampier in his voyage round the world, gives the following very curious and interesting account of the Albinos which are occasionally found among the Indians who inhabit the Isthmus of Darien: "They are white, and there are of them of both sexes; yet there are but few of them in comparison of the copper-coloured, possibly but one to two or three hundred. They differ from the other Indians chiefly in respect of colour, though not in that only. Their skins are not of such a white as those of fair people among Europeans, with some tincture of a blush or sanguine complexion; neither yet is their complexion like that of our paler people, but it is rather a milk-white, lighter than the colour of any Europeans, and much like that of a white horse.

"For there is this further remarkable in them, that their bodies are beset all over, more or less, with a fine, short, milk-white down, which adds to the whiteness of their skins; for they are not so thick-set with this down, especially on the cheeks and forehead, but that their skin appears distinct from it. The men would probably have white bristles for beards, did they not prevent them by their custom of plucking the young beard up by the roots continually. Their eye-brows are milk-white also, and so is the hair of their heads, and very fine withal, about the length of six or eight inches, and inclining to a curl.

"They are not so big as the other Indians, and what is yet more strange, their eye-lids bend, and open in an oblong figure, pointing downwards at the corners, and forming an arch, or figure of a crescent, with the points downwards. From hence, and from their seeing so clear as they do in a moon-shiny night, we used to call them moon-eyed. For they see not very well in the sun, poring in the clearest day; their eyes being but weak, and needing with water if the sun shines towards them; so that in the day-time they care not to go abroad, unless it be a cloudy dark day. Besides, they are but a weak people, in comparison of the others, and not very fit for hunting or other laborious exercise,

nor do they delight in any such. But notwithstanding their being thus sluggish and dull in the day-time, yet when moon-shiny nights come, they are all life and activity, running abroad and into the woods, and skipping about like wild hucks, and running as fast by moon-light, even in the gloom and shade of the woods, as the other Indians by day; being as nimble as they, though not so strong and lusty. The copper-coloured Indians seem not to respect them so much as those of their own complexion, looking on them as something monstrous. They are not a distinct race by themselves, but now and then one is bred of a copper-coloured father and mother; and I have seen of less than a year old of this sort. Some would be apt to suspect they might be the offspring of some European father; but, besides that the Europeans come little here, and have little commerce with the Indian women when they do come, these white people are as different from the Europeans in some respects, as from the copper-coloured Indians in others.

"But neither is the child of a man and woman of these white Indians, white like the parents, but copper-coloured as their parents were. For so Lacenta (the chief of one of the Indian tribes) told me, and gave me this as his conjecture, how these came to be white, that it was through the force of the mother's imagination, looking on the moon at the time of the conception; but this I leave others to judge of. He told me withal, that they were but short lived."

M. Saussure, in his "*Voyage dans les Alpes*," has given a very particular account of two young persons at Chaumont, whom he denominates Albinos. One of them was about twenty or twenty-one years of age, and the other about two years younger. The eldest had a dull look, with thickish lips, but his features, in other respects, were not different from those of other people. The youngest was of a more agreeable figure, and more sprightly. Their eyes were not blue; the iris was rose-coloured; and the pupil, when viewed in the light, appeared red; whence he infers, that the interior membranes were deprived of the vasa, and of the black mucous matter with which they should have been covered. In their infancy, their hair, eye-brows, eye-lashes, and the down upon their skin, were very fine, and of a perfect milk-white colour; but, at the age above-mentioned, the hair was of a reddish cast, and more strong. Their sight was also strengthened, and, even in their infancy, was not much offended by the light of the day. They were unable to labour with persons of their age, and were maintained by the charity of a relation. Although they had not the thick lips and flat noses of the white negroes, this difference is owing, as M. Saussure thinks, to their being Albinos of Europe, and not of Africa. The malady that affects the eyes, the complexion, and the colour of the hair, enfeebles also their strength, without altering the conformation of their features; and of this malady, he apprehends, there are different degrees; so that it produces, in various instances, different effects. He at first ascribed it to an organic debility; in consequence of which a relaxation of the lymphatic vessels within the eye might admit the globules of the blood in too great abundance into the iris, and, even the retina, and thus occasion the redness of the iris and of the pupil. This debility, he supposed, might account for the intolerance of the light, and for the whiteness

* Pichardi's Researches into the Physical History of Man, p. 18.

† Buffon's Natural History, by W. Saellie, v. iii. p. 101.

ALBINO. of the hair. But Professor Blumenbach, of the University of Göttingen, attributes it to a different cause. He has observed the same phenomenon in brutes, in white dogs, and in owls; and he says that it generally occurs in warm-blooded animals, and that he has never found it in cold-blooded ones. He is of opinion, that the redness of the iris, and of the other internal parts of the eye, as well as the extreme sensibility that accompanies it, is owing to the total privation of that brown or hickish mucus, which, about the fifth week after conception, covers all the interior parts of the eye in its sound state. He observes, that Simon Pontius, in his treatise "*De Coloribus Oculorum*," long ago remarked, that the interior membranes of blue eyes are less abundantly provided with this black mucus, and are therefore more sensible of the action of light. He adds, that this sensibility of blue eyes is very conformable to the situation of northern people during their long twilight; and that, on the contrary, the deep black in the eyes of negroes enables them to bear the strong glare of the sun's beams in the torrid zone. As to the connection between this red colour of the eyes and the whiteness of the skin and hair, he says it is owing to a similarity of structure, *conveniens ex similitudine fabricæ*. He asserts, that this black mucus is formed only in the delicate cellular substance, which has numerous blood-vessels contiguous to it, but contains no fat like the inside of the eye, the skin of negroes, the spotted palate of several domestic animals, &c.; and the colour of the hair, he adds, generally corresponds with that of the iris.*

What Blumenbach conjectured to be the condition of the eye in the Albino, M. Buzzi, surgeon to the hospital at Milan, had the opportunity of demonstrating by the dissection of that organ in a peasant, who died, at the age of thirty years, of a pulmonary disease.† This man was remarkable for the uncommon whiteness of his skin, hair, beard, and all the other covered parts of his body. M. Buzzi found the iris of the eye perfectly white, and the pupil of a rose colour; and the eyes were altogether destitute of that black membrane, called the uvea, which was not discernible, either behind the iris, or under the retina. Within the eye there was only found the choroid coat, extremely thin, and tinged of a pale red colour, by vessels filled with discoloured blood. The skin, when separated from different parts of the body, appeared to be almost wholly divested of the *rete-mucosum*, nor was the least trace of it to be discovered by maceration, even in the wrinkles of the abdomen, where it is most abundant and most visible.

The defective vision of the Albino during the daytime, appears to be owing to the want of what is called the *nigrum pigmentum*. This pigment, which, in the eyes of other individuals, is of a black or deep brown colour, lies between the choroid coat and the retina, and is in immediate contact with the latter. It serves to suffocate the rays of light after they have impinged on the sensible surface of the retina. The dark pigment, or mucous substance, we know to be almost peculiar to those animals which see in the brightest day-light; whereas, in nocturnal animals, or those which seek their prey during the night, as the lion, tiger, &c. the choroid is of a white or greenish colour. In the Al-

bino the pigment is wanting; and the choroid coat being exceedingly vascular, the blood shines through, and communicates its colour. The eyes of these persons, therefore, appear of a rose-red colour. The ciliary processes forming the anterior margin of the choroid coat are, in a perfect eye, also covered with a black pigment, and hereby all rays of light that enter by the side of the crystalline lens are suffocated. The posterior part of the iris is likewise covered with a black pigment, which in the Albino is wanting. From these circumstances we can readily conceive why the eye of the Albino is so exceedingly sensible to light, and their vision so defective during the day, and, at the same time, account for its perfection during the evening, or by the light of the moon.

The whiteness of the skin in the Albino is owing to the extreme deficiency, if not to the entire absence, of the *rete-mucosum*, converting the nature of which physiologists have entertained such various opinions.

According to Bichat, the internal portion of the hair consists apparently of two systems of minute vessels. One of these has the functions of the vascular system in general, and affords a passage to excreted fluids; the other contains the colouring matter in the form of a stagnant fluid, the absence of which in the Albino occasions the whiteness, or flaxen colour, of the hair.

There appears to be a constant relation preserved between the complexion of the skin, the colour of the hair, and the hue of the pigment of the eye. This is clearly shown in the Albino, and in all kinds of animals liable to a similar variety.

It is by no means correct to regard the Albino as being afflicted with disease. There is defective organization, but not morbid action. The phenomena which result from the absence of the black pigment, &c. in this variety of the human species, point out, in the clearest manner, the uses to which these parts, as far as unconnected with the organ of vision, are subservient in the animal economy.

On a general survey of the animal and vegetable world, we perceive no law of which the influence appears to prevail more extensively than that of the tendency to assume, under circumstances not well ascertained, varieties of form and colour. There is scarcely any species which does not exhibit some disposition of this kind; and its effects are particularly manifest among warm-blooded animals. The science of physiology must be much further advanced, and we require to have far more accurate views of the general process of reproduction than we already possess, before it will be possible for us to ascertain with precision the causes of such deviations. We may, however, in general observe, that when the condition of each species is uniform, and does not differ materially from the natural and original state, the appearances are more constant, and the phenomenon of variation, if they in any degree display themselves, are more rare and less conspicuous than when the race has either been brought, by human art, into a state of cultivation, or domestication, or has been thrown casually into circumstances very different from their simple and primary condition. The condition of man is more diversified than that of almost any other species; for the human kind is exposed to the most various agency of external causes, being spread through more extensive regions than any other race, inhabiting all gradations of cli-

* Gazette Litt. de Göttingen, Oct. 1784.

† Opuscoli Scelti di Milan, 1784, tom. vii. p. 11.

ALBINO, mate, and existing in every different stage and mode of cultivation. It would, therefore, be contrary to all analogy, if we did not discover, in the numerous tribes of men, at least as many and as important diversities as those which we observe in the inferior species. See PRICHARD'S *Researches*, p. 17. *Philos. Trans.* 1766,

ALBION

1707. NICHOLSON'S *Journ.* v. xix. p. 81. SOEMMER-
ING, *Icones Oculi Humani*, p. 6. SAUSSURE, *Voyages*
dans les Alpes, c. xlvii. DAPPER, *Description de*
l'Afrique, fol. Amstel. 1686, p. 332. LIONEL WAFER'S
Account of the Isthmus of America, 1704, p. 106—10.

ALBINO.

AL-
BUERA.

ALBINTIMELIUM, or **ALBUM INTIMELICUM**, in Ancient Geography, a town in Liguria, now Ventimiglia, in the state of Genoa. N. lat. 43°, 48'. E. lon. 7°, 33'.

ALBIOCE, or **ALIBECE**, in Ancient Geography, a town of Gaul (now Riez, in Provence), sometimes called Reii Apollinares, from their worship of Apollo, and sometimes Civitas Rekiniana. Cosar calls the people Albici.

ALBION, in Ancient Geography, a name given to the island of Great Britain by Ptolemy, Agathemorus, &c. as containing England, Scotland, and Wales. It is of very uncertain etymology. The Hebrew *alben* (white), the Phœnician *alp*, or *alpin* (high), and the Greek *αλβος* (white), have each been said to furnish its origin, from the lofty appearance of the white cliffs on the southern shores of the island. Some, however, have derived it from king Albion, a fabulous son of Neptune, who is said to have settled here, and to have first practised astrology and the art of ship-building.

ALBION, NEW. This name is now given to an extensive tract of land on the north-west coast of America. It was originally applied by Sir Francis Drake to the whole of California, but is now chiefly confined to that part of the coast which extends between the 43d and 48th degrees of N. latitude. On the morning of the 7th of March, 1778, Captain Cook discovered this long-looked for shore, extending from the north-east to south-east. The land was observed to be "diversified with a great many rising grounds and small hills; many of which were entirely covered with tall, straight trees, and others which were lower, and grew in spots like coppices; but the interspaces, and sides of many of the rising grounds, were clear." In the year 1792, Vancouver visited this coast, and made a very diligent inspection of all its parts. His account of this country is very interesting. The shore he describes as formed, for the greater part, by nearly perpendicular cliffs; the interior of the country exhibiting a pleasing diversity of hill and dale, and adorned with an abundance of tall forest trees. The open spots are clothed with luxuriant herbage. The finest prospects are stated to abound in those parts lying nearest the sea-coast. They discovered some pretty extensive forests of poplar, arbut-vitæ, common yew, black and white common dwarf oak, American ash, common hazel, sycamore, maple, oriental astintus, American alder, common willow, Canadian alder, small fruited cub, and Pennsylvania cherry-trees. Near the outer borders of the forests on the coast, and all along the shore, aquatic and other birds were seen in abundance; but it does not appear that the quadrupeds of this country are very numerous; at least Vancouver did not see many, though he was shown by the natives the skins of almost every kind of animal common to the western coast of this continent.

The inhabitants appeared to be but few in number; but those whom they saw were, in general, more clean in their persons than most other natives of these shores. Still, however, they are raised but a very small degree from the most depraved and uncultivated tribes of savages. They wear various kinds of dresses of skins and woollen, and some which are curiously manufactured from the bark of trees. Their instruments of hunting and of warfare consist of spears, arrows, and other missiles. Their houses are described as extremely ill constructed of sticks, with matting thrown over them.

ALBIREO, a star in the constellation Cygnus, of the third magnitude, and marked β by Bayer.

ALBIS, the ancient name of the river Elbe, which flows through Germany northward into the German ocean. The part of the country where it rose was formerly inhabited by the Hermunduri. Very little was known by the Romans of the country beyond this river. *TACITUS, Germ. c. xli.*

ALBOGALERUS, or **GALEBUS**, in Roman Antiquity, a sacerdotal cap, or ornament, worn by the flamen dialis, or priests of Jupiter.

ALBOR, a well-built town, giving the title of county, in the province of Algarva, on the coast of Portugal, about three miles E. of Lagos.

ALBOR, one of the Bahama islands in the North Atlantic ocean. It lies between the islands of Neque and St. Salvador.

ALBORAN, a small island, situate in the Mediterranean, nearly in the middle sea, between Capo de Gata on the Spanish shore, and Cape de Tres Forcas on that of Africa. Also an island near Melilla, on the coast of the kingdom of Fez, in Africa. W. lon. 2°, 32'. N. lat. 36°.

ALBORAX, in Mahometan Theology, the beast which is said to have carried the prophet on his journeys into heaven. It seems uncertain whether this animal were an ass or a mule, or some non-descript between both.

ALBOURN, a town and parish of England, in the middle of Wiltshire, about seven miles from Marlborough. A trade of no small extent was carried on here formerly in the manufacture of fustian; but, in 1760, it was reduced very considerably by fire. The town stands on a small river, which runs into the Kennet, and its present population amounts to about 1300 persons.

ALBUCA, in Botany, a genus of plants, of the class Hexandria, order Monogynia.

ALBUERA, a river of Spain, running into the Guadiana, on the banks of which, in the road from Seville to Olivença, is a village of the same name. Here was fought, 16th March, 1811, one of the most important battles of the late peninsular war, between Marshal Beresford, commanding the allied British,

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NEA.

Spanish, and Portuguese troops, amounting to 27,000 infantry, and 2000 cavalry, and the French, under Marshal Soult, of 20,000 infantry, and 3000 cavalry. ALBUFEIRA, a sea-port town of Portugal, in the province of Algarva, about 12 miles E. of Ville Novo de Portimão.

ALBUGINEOUS. From *albus*, white, is formed *albus*, and thence *albigo*; applied to a white speck in the eye. Albiginous appears to be applied, by physical writers, to that which approaches to white.

That, with Aristotle, which is not watery and uncoloured will not coagulate; which perhaps must not be taken strictly; but in the poem and spiced particles: for eggs I suppose will freeze in the *albuginea* part thereof. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

ALBUGO, in Surgery, a white-coloured opaque spot on the cornea of the eye. Leucoma is another scientific name for this obstruction, which is commonly called a film, speck, or scar.

ALBUJA, in Ancient Geography, a name of the river Tiber. *Vitruv. Æ. viii. v. 332. Livy, &c.*

ALBUM, in Ancient Geography, a promontory of Africa, in the Straits of Gibraltar, situated near the city of Tangiers, being the extreme western point of the Mediterranean Sea, on the African side. It is now called Cape Spartel. *Plin. l. iii. c. 1.* It seems to be the same promontory that is noticed by *Mela, l. i. c. 5.* and *Plin. l. v. sec. 1.* under the name of *Amphusa*.

ALBUM, in Antiquity, a white table book, often mentioned in Roman authors, in which the prætors had their edicts written and exhibited to the public. There was also an *Album Senatorium*, in which the names of the senators were written. *Tacitus, Ann. l. iv. c. 42;* where it is related that the name of *Apudius Merula* was struck off the list for some misdeemeanor. An album was also used for the names of the judges, or jurymen. *Sueton. Claud. c. xvi.*

ALBUMEN, ALBUMENA, in Physiology (*albus*, white), one of the radical parts of animal substances, which received its name from being first noticed in the eggs of birds, where it forms "the white." Fourcroy also discovered a similar substance in vegetables.

The animal albumen exists, in its most perfect state, in the whites of eggs and in the serum of the blood. It is a viscous fluid, soluble in water at the common temperature, and coagulating when exposed to a heat above 134° Fahr. and then it is no longer soluble in water. The vitreous and crystalline humours of the eye, and the liquor that fills the abdomen in dropsy, contain large portions of albumen. As contained in milk, it conduces largely to the nutriment of man.

In the vegetable kingdom, it is found principally amongst the narcotic and antiscorbutic plants, where it generally resides in the leaves. Fourcroy first obtained it from the juice of young cresses. For much interesting information respecting this substance, see *Fourcroy, Systeme des Con. Chimique*, and *Phil. Trans.* vol. xc. See also *Chemistry*, Div. ii.

ALBUNEA, in Ancient Geography, a wood on the river Anio, near Tibur, sacred to the Muses, and deriving its name from the sibyl Albunea, to whom a temple was erected at Tibur, the ruins of which yet remain. The ALBUNEA FONS was a name given to some sulphureous waters that were found near this spot, and which were resorted to for medicinal purposes.

ALBUQUERQUE, a town and strong castle of Spain, in the province of Estramadura, on the frontiers of Portugal. This is the sole property of the count of Ledesma. It is about 20 miles from Badajoz. There is some trade in wool and woollen manufactures carried on here, and the number of inhabitants is stated to be 5500.

ALBUQUERQUE, a town of New Mexico, on the shore of the Rio del Norte, and containing a population of 6000 inhabitants.

ALBUQUERQUE, SANTA ROSA DE, a village of New Mexico, under the intendency of Puebla, where the duties of the silver mines from the whole district of Colotian are paid.

ALBURNUM, in Phytology, is a substance found between the hard wood of trees and the inner bark. It is soft and white, and seems to be the preparatory matter which afterwards becomes wood when indurated, and of a darker and more decided colour. It abounds in growing trees, and a young oak of six inches diameter contains as much of it as of hard wood. Some have called it *adeps arborum*, the fat of trees; more commonly it is called *sap*.

ALBURNUS, in Ancient Geography, a lofty mountain of Lucania, near Paestum, mentioned by *Virgil, Georg. iii.*

ALBUS, in commerce, a coin of small size and value, current in some countries of the Lower Rhine, Cologne, &c. Its value is about a halfpenny English.

ALBY, or ALDAY, a village in the county of York, about seven or eight miles from the city of that name. It is a Saxon term, signifying *old habitation*; and has been supposed, by Drake, in his *Eburacum*, to have been a Roman villa, erected for the residence of the prefect of the detachment constantly stationed at Derwent, as an out-post, or guard, to the city of York. Camden, however, asserts, that this village of Aldby, in the site of *Derwentio*, the first Roman station from York; but Drake, with greater probability, places *Derwentio* at Stamford-bridge, about 2½ miles further to the south. Both these places are situated on the Derwent. Aldby is said afterwards to have become a palace of the Northumbrian kings, and to have been the place where the life of Edwin was attempted by an assassin. It is at present an insignificant village, and merits notice only from the facts above stated.

ALCA, in Ornithology, the auk, and razor-bill, a genus of the Linnæan system, in the order Anseres, and of the family Brachypteryx; but according to Latham, of the order Palmpedæ.

ALCÆUS, in Mythology, the grandfather of Hercules, from whom he derived the epithet Alcides.

ALCAICS, in Ancient Poetry, a kind of verse, which takes its name from the inventor, the poet Alcaeus. It is divided into two principal species; the first is of five feet, and is composed of a spondee or an iambic, a second iambic, a long syllable, a dactyl, and a second dactyl. Thus,

Vides, ut albi stet nive candidum
Somnet, nec jam exstinctum onus
Sylvæ laborantis, peloque
Flamma consistit acuto?

Hos. Ode ix.

is to be scanned thus:

ALBU-
QUER-
QUE.
—
ALCAICS.

ALCAICS.

Vlba	1st foot	2d foot	3d foot	4th foot	5th foot
1st foot	2d foot	3d foot	4th foot	5th foot	

ALCANIS, and in like manner the second line. The third line thus:

Sylla | labo | rianis | glio | que;

which is an iambic Archilochian dimeter to complete the stanza. The fourth line exhibits the second sort of Alcaics, composed of two dactyls and two trochees:

Punon | cionis | cinis | cas?

There is, beside these two principal species, which are sometimes called dactylic alcaics, a third kind, which are called simple alcaics, consisting of an epitrite, two choriambuses, and a bacchius.

The ALCAIC Ode generally contains four strophes, each of which has four verses; the first two are alcaic verses of the first dactylic kind; the third consists of four iambic feet with a long syllable; the fourth is an alcaic verse of the second dactylic kind.

ALCAID, ALCALOE, or ALCAID, is a title given to an officer of justice of considerable importance amongst the Moors, Spaniards, and Portuguese. The word comes from the Arabic *cad*, to govern. The office in Spain and Portugal somewhat resembles that of our justice of peace in England.

ALCALA DE GISVERT, or XIBERT, a small town of Valencia, in Spain. It lies 15 miles from Murviedro, and its population is about 3,600 persons.

ALCALA DE HENAREZ, an ancient town of Spain, in the province of Toledo, about 15 miles from Madrid. This was at one time a very flourishing place, but is now greatly reduced. The munificent cardinal Ximenes, archbishop of Toledo, to whom Alcala belonged, founded an university here about the close of the fifteenth century; a most stupendous establishment. The building was finished in eight years. Forty-six professorships were endowed, and the cardinal, at his death, left a settled revenue of 14,000 ducats *per annum*, to the university. Here also he established a printing press, from which, in 1522, issued the celebrated edition of the Holy Scriptures, called the Complutensian Polyglot, from Complutum, the ancient name of this town. It was the first Polyglot Bible ever printed, and is said to have cost him an immense sum. A physician of this town had the honour of correcting the Hebrew text. But the university buildings, which are scattered in various parts of the town, are now fast going to decay. Ximenes was buried in the university church; besides which there are three parish churches, and several religious houses, and hospitals. The inhabitants amount to about 5,000.

ALCALA LA REAL, a small city of Andalusia, in Spain. It is situated on a considerable eminence, in the province of Jaen, about 27 miles from the town of that name. It is chiefly remarkable for a rich abbey, founded here at an early period. The population amounts to nearly 9,000 inhabitants.

ALCALI, in Chemistry. See ALKALI.

ALCAMO, a small town and county of Sicily, situate in the Val di Mazzara, near the gulph of Castellamare, and on the direct road to Palermo, from which it lies about 25 miles S. W.

ALCANIS, or ALCANIE, a town of the province of Arragon, in the kingdom of Spain. It stands about 12 miles from Caspe, and 46 S. E. of Saragossa, on the river Guadalope. This town was once the Spanish capital of the Moors, and when re-taken by the Spaniards, it was constituted a commandery of the

order of Calatrava. There still remain traces of its ALCANIS former magnificence; here is a fountain which ejects water through forty-two pipes, and gardens of some splendour, and beauty. A strong fort defends the town.

ALCANNA, in Commerce, a drug much used in dyeing, and originally from Egypt and the Levant. It is made of the leaves of a plant called *Ligustrum*, Egyptianum, or the Egyptian privet. The colours drawn from it are either red or yellow, from which the women of Cairo give their nails, &c. a golden tinge.

ALCANTARA (the *Norba Caesaris* of Ancient Geography), a small, but strong town in the province of Extremadura, in Spain, on the Portuguese frontier. It stands on a rock, in a strong natural situation, which, together with its fortifications, renders it a town of considerable military importance. The Tagus runs through it, over which is a stone bridge of six arches, said, by an inscription over one of them, to have been built by the Emperor Trajan. Near the entrance of this bridge is an excavation, hewn out of the solid rock by the pagans, but since converted into a chapel. The words of *cantara* signify the bridge, and thence the town takes its name. It has some trade in cloth and wool, and contains 3,000 inhabitants. It is 45 miles from Madrid, and 125 from Seville. W. lon. 7°, 12'. N. lat. 39°, 30'.

ALCASTARA, or ALCANTARILLA, a town in the province of Seville, in Spain, situate not far from the Guadalquivir, and 14 miles from Seville. In this town there is also a Roman bridge, which was formerly shut at each end by a gate, and fortified by a tower.

ALCANTARA, a town in the province of Maranhão, in the bay of St. Marcos, in the kingdom of Brazil. Cotton plantations abound in the neighbourhood. There is a handsome quay, opening upon the harbour, around which the town stands, on a semicircular eminence.

ALCANTARA, a considerable river of the kingdom of Sicily, which takes its rise on the north side of Mount Etna, and runs round the bottom of the mountain for about 60 miles. Its waters bear that whitish tinge which is generally seen in rivers flowing from the glaciers of the Alps, and it is supposed, by Brydone, that the snows of Etna form this river. The current is at some places so rapid and strong, as to have worn away the bed of lava, which not unfrequently interrupts its course.

ALCANTARA, KNIGHTS OF, in Chivalry, a celebrated and very ancient order of knighthood, in Spain. Ferdinand and Isabella settled the sovereign of the order, in conjunction with the grand master of the knights of Calatrava, at Castile, on the expulsion of the Moors; against whom they obtained those successes that principally occupy their history. They possess thirty-seven commanderies, and are distinguished by wearing a cross fleur-de-lis, of green, over a large white cloak.

ALCARAZ, a town in the province of La Mancha, in the kingdom of Spain. It stands on a mountain also named Alcaraz, and in a fertile country, called Campo di Montell, near the source of the Guadarmenia, containing about 3,300 inhabitants, and is about 54 miles E. of Ciudad Real, 105 S. E. of Madrid. W. lon. 2°, 53'. N. lat. 38°, 56'. Also a village in Catalonia, on the Arragonese frontier of Spain, two leagues from Lerida.

ALCARRAZAS, in Pottery are porous vessels, formerly made only in Spain, but lately introduced into England for wine coolers, and now manufactured

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RAZAS.ALCHY-
MIZE.

here. In Spain they are used for the purpose of cooling water for drinking. The liquid slowly oozes through the pores of these vessels, and collects in drops on the outside. In England, the bottle, or decanter of wine, is placed in them after they have been first saturated with water, and the evaporation thus produced on the vessel effectually cools the wine within.

ALCASSAR, or ALCAZAR, a city on the coast of Barbary, in the kingdom of Fez, in Africa, built in 1180. It was formerly a place of much trade, and a governor resided there, but though it was taken by the Portuguese, in the middle of the fifteenth century, and continued long in the possession of that enterprising people, it sunk into decay, and now lies in ruins. It was near this place that the memorable battle was fought, in 1578, in which three sovereigns were slain, viz. the famous Sebastian, king of Portugal; Abdelmelech, king of Morocco; and Mahomet, the usurper. This city is also called by historians Alcazar Gaiber, or the Great Castle. W. lon. 12° 35'. N. lat. 35° 15'.

ALCAVALA, in Spanish and Neapolitan Finance, a tax, or per centage on transferable property, imposed every time it is sold, similarly to our auction duty. It has varied in these countries from 3 to 14 per cent.

ALCE, in Ancient Geography, the town now called Alcazar, in Spain, mentioned by Livy as taken by Gracchus.

ALCE, in Zoology, a species of the cervus, or stag, commonly called the elk.

ALCEA, in Botany, the hollyhock; class Monadelph., and order Polyandria.

ALCEDO, in Ornithology, the king-fisher; a genus of birds, in the Linnean order of Picæ, and placed by Cuvier in the family of Tenuirostræ, order Passeræ.

ALCENTER, or ALKENTER, a town of Warwickshire, in England, situated on the conflux of the two rivers Ala and Arrow. It is distant from Stratford on Avon eight miles N. W. and 102 N. W. from London.

ALCHENILLA, in Botany, ladies mantle; of the class Tetrandria, order Monogynia. It is a powerful astringent in hemorrhages, and takes its name from its being a favourite drug of the ancient alchymists.

ALCHYMIZE, v.

ALCHYMY, n.

ALCHYMISTRIE,

ALCHYM'ICALLY,

ALCHYMYT,

ALCHYMISTICAL,

ALCHYMIST'ICALLY.

Perhaps from *χημα*; a *χέω*, to pour; for he (says Vossius) who pours or mixes metals, changes them, and converts the baser to a purer.

And when this alchymist saw his time,

Riseth up, sire preest, quod he, and stouthe by me;

And for I wote wel I have ye non.

Goeth, walketh forth, and bringeth a chalk ston.

Chaucer. The Chaucer's Remains Tale, book ii.

The discarding cold

Might alchymist his silver into gold.

Lucifer. Inc. Phars.

Then of their avision ended they hid cry

With trumpets regal sound the grand result:

Towards the four winds four speedily cherubim

Fat to their mouths the sounding alchemis.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ii.

Some alchemists there may be yet or old

Seigne of the squibs against the present day

May to thy name a valedict say.

Ben Jonson. Underwood. On Vulcan.

The alchymical cabalists, or cabalistical alchymists, have enclosed the name, or number, whether you will, out of the word Jehovah, after a strange manner.

Lightfoot's Miscellaneous Works.

As the first sort of legislators attended to the different kinds of citizens, and combined them into six constitutions, the others, the metaphysical and alchymical legislators, have taken the direct contrary course.

It was by the means of fantastical ideas and notions, that chemistry was turned into alchemy; and astronomy into judicial astrology.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

Time was, when I knew not what mystical meanings were drawn, by a certain cabalistic alchemy, from the simplest operations of holy writ.

ALCHYMY, an occult science which would scarcely deserve more than a simple definition of the term, were it not for the extensive and injurious influence it has at certain periods obtained; so much so, as to induce several ancient states to enact severe laws against its practice, particularly the Romans, who sent all pretenders to the art into exile. Our own country has not been deficient in imposing upon it legal restrictions. It consists in a pretence to a sublime species of chemistry, to transmute metals into gold, and particularly to form the philosopher's stone, the universal medicine, or panacea, and universal solvent. The extraneous changes produced in bodies by means of chemical agents suggested to some of the ancients who have been dignified with the name of philosophers, the idea of transmuting the elements of which any substance in nature is composed into other elements, and hence of changing even portions of inferior metals into those of a superior quality and value.

Aiming to sustain their credulity by the venerable names of antiquity, the alchymists pretend that their art was known by Adam and by Noah, whose descendants diffused it through the various countries of the earth, whither they were dispersed after the deluge. To the Egyptians they assign a very high degree of attainment in this splendid knowledge, and they are said to have communicated it to Pythagoras and other Grecian philosophers of eminence. In the fourth century, the attention of alchymists, of whom the Greek ecclesiastics were the principal, seems to have been particularly turned to the formation of silver and gold; and in consequence of the Mahometan conquests, the art spread more extensively, and acquired a greater influence among persons of distinction. Having successfully introduced mercurial preparations into medicine, the Arabian physicians cherished the notion of an universal remedy for all diseases, and the possibility of effecting the indefinite prolongation of human life; while men of great opulence and literary distinction gave it their decided patronage and support. After this period it seems to have declined, till about the middle of the thirteenth century, it resumed its celebrity under the auspices of Albert Magnus, Roger Bacon, and other distinguished names: and it was confidently believed, not only that precious gems and metals might be produced by the discovery of the philosopher's stone, but many profound mysteries, both of science and religion, developed. The belief in Alchymy, for several centuries, became, in consequence of such an illustrious advocacy, almost universal; and impostors, who pretended to sell the secret, multiplied to an extraordinary degree, and succeeded to a great extent in swindling the deluded populace.

That branch of the alchymic art which aimed at the discovery of an universal medicine, was maintained, with great zeal and boldness, by Paracelsus, in the sixteenth century, who succeeded in healing many diseases which the imperfect science of the age deemed incurable. He did not hesitate to promise longevity to

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ALCHY-
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RAN.

his patients, which, however, proved most injurious to the interests of his pretended art; and although some reliance upon its virtue and efficacy lingered long in the minds even of men otherwise eminent for their wisdom, even in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, it has at length yielded to the true philosophic spirit.

The writers on Alchemy generally adopted the most studied and mystical obscurity of phrase in their compositions, with the evident purpose of impressing the conviction that none but the peculiar favourites of heaven (for such their disciples were uniformly represented) might understand them. A few select persons only were described as possessing the knowledge of the philosopher's stone, and the most awful vengeance of heaven was denounced upon such as should disclose the sublime secret to the vulgar. After suffering perpetual disappointments in making the experiments to which they were directed, persons were still led on, under various pretexts, to renew the trial, till the exhaustion of their patience or their property induced them ultimately to desist.

The theory avowed by the most recent alchemists is as follows: They believe that the metals were composed of two substances—metallic earth and an inflammable substance called sulphur. Gold possesses these principles in nearly a pure state; in other metals they are more or less corrupted and intermixed with other ingredients. Hence it is only necessary to purify them from these obstructions to convert them into gold, and this is the precise object of all the different alchemical processes. The instrument of this purification is the philosopher's stone, a small portion of which being injected into any of the inferior metals while in a state of fusion, the whole would be converted into gold or silver. Respecting the *mode* of the operation a diversity of opinions prevailed; a similar disagreement existed with regard to its *potens*. When formed according to one process, one ounce of the stone was supposed capable of converting only ten ounces of lead or copper into gold; according to another, it could transmute a thousand times its own weight.

The colour of the lapis philosophorum, or philosopher's stone, was universally agreed to be red, but there is by no means an union of opinion on the subject of the substances from which it is composed; in consequence of which, unavailing efforts have been employed to discover it in numberless bodies and substances, and by processes as various as proflex.

Considering the natural credulity which attaches to an unenlightened age, it is no wonder that Alchemy should have arisen into practice, and aspired to notoriety and distinction; and reflecting on the extension of knowledge and the progress of discovery, it has at length become equally intelligible how it should have sunk into disrepute; nor needs it now, if it ever needed, an argumentative refutation. Perhaps, how-

ever, it is due to this exploded science, to observe, that by provoking inquiry into the secrets of nature, and into the various combinations of natural substances, it developed many interesting facts which had otherwise been much longer hid, and prepared the way for better systems.

ALCINA, in Botany, a Mexican plant, described by Cavanilles, and placed by the French botanists in the *Corymbifere* of Jussieu.

ALCIS, in Ancient Mythology, the name of a deity worshipped by the Germans; and of Minerva, amongst the Macedonians.

ALCKMAAR, or ALKMAAR, the principal town of North Holland. It is well built, and contained, before the devastations of the French revolution 10,000 inhabitants, and about 2,600 houses. In 1796 the population was taken at 8,373, by far the largest part of whom were Catholics. In the order of town sending deputies to the states, it was the twelfth town. Its articles of trade consist of corn, cheese, flour, butter, flower-roots, and seeds. It is 24 miles N. N. W. of Amsterdam. E. lon. 21°. N. lat. 52°, 38'.

ALCMANIAN, in Classic Poetry, a kind of verse which takes its name from Alcan, the Greek poet, consisting generally of seven feet, of which the first four are either dactyle or spondees, and the last three trochees, as

Solentia | verba hy | dno gra | in vice | Veru | ei Pa | via.

ALCMENA, in Ancient Mythology, the fabled mother of Hercules, by Jupiter, who assuming the shape of Amphitryon, her betrothed lover, introduced himself to her bed, and ordered Mercury to stay the rising of Phœbus for three days; an amour of which Alcmena is said to have been so proud, that she wore three moons upon her crest, as a symbol of the circumstance.

ALCO, in Zoology, a name sometimes given to the *Canis Americanus* of Linnæus.

ALCOBACA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura, 17 miles S. S. W. of Leira.

ALCOHOL, in Eastern Customs, a kind of impalpable powder (generally of lead ore), with which the ladies of Barbary and Egypt tinge their hair, and the edges of their eye-lids. See KOSOL.

ALCOHOL, in Chemistry, a term applied by modern chemists to the pure vinous spirit of liquors, which have undergone distillation and vinous fermentation. See CHYMISTRY, Div. II.

ALCOLEA, a town of Andalusia, on the river Guadalquivir, in Spain. It is six miles N. of Carmona. There is another town of this name on the river Cinca, in Aragon, situate 15 miles S. of Balbastro.

ALCOMENE, in Ancient Geography, a town of Ithaca, which gave the name of Alcomenus to Ulysses. Also a town of Illyria.

ALCOR, in Astronomy, the Arabian name of the small star adjoining the large one (Alloth); in the middle of the tail of the Great Bear.

ALCHY-
MIZE.
ALCO-
RAN.

A L C O R A N,

AL-CORAN, AL-KORAN, or THE KORAN, the term by which the Mahometans designate the volume which contains the revelations, doctrines, and precepts of Mahomet, or Mohammed, and in which they place an implicit confidence similar to that which Christians possess in the Bible. The word is derived from the Arabic verb

AL-
KURAN.

kaara, to read; whence Al-Koran signifies the reading, or that which ought to be read; and this appellation is bestowed not only on the entire volume, but also on each chapter, or section. It is called, besides, *Al-Mushaf*, the volume, and *Al-Kitab*, the book.

During the life of Mahomet, the Koran existed only in loose sheets, which were first collected into a volume by his successor Abubeker, committing the transcript to the custody of Haphsa, one of the prophet's widows, from which, in the thirteenth year of the Hegira, Othman, Abubeker's successor, had a number of copies taken, ordering the suppression of every other as spurious. The principal differences in the copies at present in circulation relate to the points, which have been added since the time of Mahomet, and his immediate successors, for the purpose of fixing the genuine reading.

Division of
the Alcoran.

The general divisions of the Koran are into 114 suras, or sowars, answering to our term *chapters*, which are of very unequal length, and are distinguished in the manuscript copies, not by being numbered in the ordinary manner, but by particular titles, taken either from the subject treated, the person mentioned, or the first important word that occurs in the section; precisely in the same manner in which the Jews have named their Sedarim. Some of the chapters have more than one distinguishing title, which, it is supposed, has been occasioned by the variety of the copies. Another notation arises from the circumstance of some of the sections having been revealed at Mecca, others at Medina, and several of them partly at both places. Each sura is subdivided into verses, called in Arabic *ayat*, signs or wonders; unequal also in length, and many of them having particular titles, similar to the larger portions of the volume. The Koran is besides divided, in another form, into sixty equal parts, denominated *ahzab*, each of which is subdivided into four equal parts. The most usual division, however, is, into thirty parts, *ajza*, subdivided as before. These sections are intended to facilitate the reading of the book in the royal temples, and in the chapels adjoining the cemeteries of emperors and distinguished persons. Thirty readers belong to each chapel, each of whom reads his allotted portion, so that the whole is read over every day. At the head of every chapter, except the ninth, a solemn form, called the *Bismillah*, "in the name of the most merciful God," is written, which, indeed, is prefixed to most of the Mahometan books and writings, as a testimony of their religion. There is a difference of opinion as to the origin of this form. It is probable that Mahomet took the hint from the practice of the Persian magi, who began their books with these words, *Benam Yazdan bahshahshahgherdade*, "in the name of the most merciful just God." Twenty-nine of the chapters begin with certain letters of the alphabet, some with a single letter, others more, which are considered as characteristic marks of the Koran, and believed to conceal some deep mysteries which Heaven imparted to none but the prophet himself. There are abrogated passages classed under three divisions; the first, where both the letter and the sense are abrogated; the second, where this is the case with the letter only; the third, where the sense, and not the letter is abrogated.

Copies.

There are seven principal copies of the Koran: two published at Medina, a third at Mecca, a fourth at Cufa, a fifth at Bassorah, a sixth in Syria, and a seventh, which is the vulgate edition. The following are the most

beautiful manuscript copies found in Europe. One, supposed to have been used by Solymán the Great, in the Museum Kircherianum, at Rome; one in the library of Christian of Sweden; one in the Imperial library at Vienna; one, with a commentary, by Abi Saïd Rades, obtained among the spoils at the defeat of the Turks, in 1683, by George, elector of Saxony. The first edition of the whole, in Arabic, was published at Venice, in 1530, by Paganinus of Brescia, which was burnt by order of the pope. Afterwards, in 1684, it was printed at Hamburg. In 1698, the original, with a Latin version, and a partial confutation, was published at Padua, by Father Lewis Maracci, by desire of Pope Innocent XI. An edition of the Arabic, with Scholia, was printed in folio, at Petersburg, by the Empress Catharine, with a studious imitation of a manuscript character, in order to meet the prejudices of her Mahometan subjects. The first Latin version by a Christian was in 1143, when an Englishman, with the aid of Hermannus Dalmata, performed the task. In 1550, it was published by Biliand, and, about the close of the fifteenth century, was translated into the Arragonian language, by Johannes Andreas, a convert from the Mahometan faith. Reineccius published an edition of Maracci's translation, with notes, at Leipsic, in 1721. Sale's well-known translation was published in London, in 1734; a German translation, by Boysen, at Halle, in 1773, and a French one, by Savary, at Paris, 1782.

It is most solemnly believed by the Mahometans, alleged to that the Koran was not dictated by Mahomet, who was inspired, unlearned, but was sent by God, through the instrumentality of the angel Gabriel, in small portions, or verses, which occupied three years in the communication. By this statement, they attempt to obviate any objections arising out of the confusion visible throughout the volume, and the contradictions that occur; asserting that several doctrines and precepts previously received by the prophet, were, in the course of this time, altered and abrogated. This representation has appeared to pious Christian minds not only absurd, but the worst explanation of the fact that is possible, charging upon the Deity the errors which could only be committed by weak or wicked men.

By the orthodox Mahometans, or Somites, the Koran Different is held to be uncreated and eternal, remaining, as they opinions, say, in the very essence of God, written from everlasting on a large table, called the preserved tablet, in which also all the divine decrees are recorded. They affirm, that a copy was taken on paper, from this tablet, in one volume, and was sent down, by the ministry of Gabriel, to the lowest heaven, in the month of Ramadan, in the night of power, whence it was communicated to Mahomet, who, once every year, and in the last year of his life twice, enjoyed the privilege of seeing this blessed volume, bound in silk, and adorned with gold and jewels of paradise. Some Mahometan sects, however, do not admit the Koran to be uncreated, and accuse the maintainers of this doctrine of infidelity, as asserting two eternal beings. This was particularly the case with the sect called Motazinites, and the followers of Isa Ebn Sobeh Abu Musa, surnamed Al-Mozdat.

The avowed object of the Koran was to unite the professors of three different religions, at that period prevalent in Arabia, in the worship of one God; namely, idolaters, Jews, and Christians. That there is but one God, and Mahomet is his prophet, is the ever-reiterated

AL-
KURAN.

Editions.

AL-
CORAN.

theme of the soi-disant sacred Koran, and this doctrine is enforced by the most awful threatnings. The unity of God is, therefore, the chief thing which Mahomet represented himself as sent to establish. It was inculcated by him as a fundamental and essential doctrine, that there never was, nor ever can be, more than one true orthodox religion; and that, whenever this became in any essential degree corrupted, the Divine Being commissioned distinguished persons to effect a reformation; of whom Moses and Jesus were the most eminent among the rest of the prophets, till the appearance of Mahomet, after whom no other is to be expected. A considerable part of the Koran is occupied in details of the punishments inflicted by God on those who rejected his messengers, several of which are taken from the Old and New Testaments, others from the apocryphal books and traditions of Jews and Christians, which are introduced into the Koran to contradict the testimony of the Scriptures; the Jews and Christians being charged with having corrupted them. The rest of the work is occupied in prescribing laws, in admonitions to the practice of moral and divine virtues, to the worship of the Supreme Being, and submission to his will. Besides these, there are a number of occasional passages relating to particular emergencies; for, by the convenient pretension of receiving this revelation piecemeal, Mahomet was enabled to obviate any unexpected difficulty. It was sufficient for his purpose to assert a new revelation, and his followers were contented.

With regard to that most prominent feature of the Koran, and which its admirers have ever represented as its grand excellence, the inculcation of the worship of the one God, as a being of infinite perfection and glory, it might easily be shown, that whatever accurate descriptions are given of his attributes, they were borrowed from the Christian Scriptures: nor can it be imagined that they should be primarily communicated to the pretended prophet of Arabia, amidst such a mass of contradiction and absurdity. As to other representations, such especially as relate to paradise, nothing can be more completely in contrast than the Holy Scriptures and the Mahometan Bible. The former exhibits to the view of mortals a scene replenished with felicity, but felicity of the purest kind, such as sanctified spirits may be expected to relish, and such as a holy God might be believed to communicate; whereas the paradise of the Koran is neither moral nor rational. It is neither more nor less than an abode of selfishness and sensuality—degrading, instead of elevating to the pure and Infinite Spirit, and mean and sordid in all its arrangements.

The Koran, thus ill sustaining its own claims to inspiration, studiously acknowledges the missions both of Moses and Christ, though it charges their disciples with corrupting the Scriptures of each dispensation. Jesus is allowed to be the true Messiah, and a worker of miracles, but his crucifixion is denied, the traitor Judas, it is asserted, being changed into his likeness and put to death in his stead. Every circumstance, indeed, connected with the histories of the Holy Scripture, is either distorted or blended with the fictions of Rabbinical tradition, or with spurious gospels. Its doctrinal principles are borrowed frequently from the Arianism of the Arabian Christians, and the notions of the Persian magi.

The style of the Koran is elegant and pure. It is

written principally in the dialect of the tribe of Koreish, who are confessedly the most refined of the Arabians. It is still the standard of the language, though there is some intermixture of other dialects. It abounds in figures and florid expressions, and contains many evident imitations of the manner of the prophets. Though written in prose, yet each sentence commonly concludes in rhyme, which occasions many repetitions, and some interruptions of the sense. The orthodox disciples of Islamism conceive, as the book itself affirms, that it is inimitable by any human pen, and is regarded as a continued miracle, greater than even that of raising the dead. Mahomet appealed to this as a confirmation of his mission, giving a public challenge to the most eloquent men in Arabia to produce any thing that could be brought into comparison with it. Notwithstanding this boasted superiority, Hamzah Ben-hamed wrote a book against the Koran with equal elegance of diction; and Moselema another, which was considered as so decidedly surpassing it that it gave occasion to a great defection among the Mussulmans.

"It is probable," says Mr. Sale, "the harmony of expression which the Arabians find in the Koran might contribute not a little to make them relish the doctrine therein taught, and give an efficacy to arguments, which, had they been nakedly proposed without this rhetorical dress, might not have so easily prevailed. Very extraordinary effects are related of the power of words well chosen and artfully placed, which are no less powerful either to ravish or amaze than music itself; wherefore as much has been ascribed by the best orators to this part of rhetoric as to any other. He must have a very bad ear who is not uncommonly moved with the very cadence of a well-turned sentence; and Mohammed seems not to have been ignorant of the enthusiastic operation of rhetoric on the minds of men; for which reason he has not only employed his utmost skill in these pretended revelations to preserve that dignity and sublimity of style, which might seem not unworthy of the majesty of that Being whom he gave out to be the author of them, and to imitate the prophetic manner of the Old Testament; but he has not neglected even the other arts of oratory, wherein he succeeded so well, and so strangely captivated the minds of his audience, that several of his opponents thought it the effect of witchcraft and enchantment, as he sometimes complains."—*Preface. Disc.*

The followers of the prophet dare not so much as touch the venerated Koran without being first washed or legally purified; and, lest they should do this inadvertently, they write on the cover or label, "Let none touch it but they who are clean." They read it with great reverence, and never hold it below their girdles. They swear by it; consult it on all important occasions; carry it with them to war; write sentences of it on their banners; adorn it with gold and precious stones; and, if possible, prevent its ever being in the possession of persons of a different persuasion, though they have it translated into the Persian, Java, Malayan, and other languages; but, out of respect to the original Arabic, these versions are generally interlinear.

The opening of the Koran is somewhat solemn and imposing.—"In the name of the most merciful God! Praise be to God, the Lord of all creatures; the most merciful; the King of the day of judgment. Thee do we worship, and of thee do we beg assistance. Direct us in the right way; in the way of those to whom thou

AL-
CORAN.
Elegance of
its diction.It owes
much to
the Bible.Acknow-
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Moses and
Christ.Supersti-
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ALCO-
RAN.
—
ALCOVE

Specimens

hast been gracious; not of those against whom thou art incensed, nor of those who go astray." This is the first chapter, and is entitled, "The preface, or introduction, revealed at Mecca." In Arabic it is called "Al Fâtibat," and is esteemed the quintessence of the whole Koran, the Mahometans often repeating it in their devotions, both public and private, as Christians do the Lord's prayer. One or two other specimens will serve to convey to the reader some general idea of this volume. "Now hath God in truth verified unto his apostle the vision (or dream which Mahomet had at Medina), wherein he said, ye shall surely enter the holy temple of Mecca, if God please, in full security; having your heads shaved and your hair cut; ye shall not fear; for God knoweth that which ye know not; and he hath appointed you, besides this, a speedy victory. It is he who hath sent his apostle with the direction, and the religion of truth; that he may exalt the same above every religion; and God is a sufficient witness hereof. Mohammed is the apostle of God, and those who are with him are fierce against the unbelievers, but compassionate towards one another. Thou mayest see them bowing down prostrate, seeking a recompense from God and his good will. Their signs are in their faces, being marks of frequent prostration. This is their description in the Pentateuch, and their description in the Gospel; they are as seed which putteth forth its stalk and strengtheneth it, and swelleth in the ear and riseth upon its stem, giving delight unto the sower. Such are the Moslems described to be, that the infidels may swell with indignation at them. God hath promised unto such of them as believe, and do good works, pardon and a great reward."—Ch. xlviii.

The following is one of the smaller sections (ch. lxxii) entire,

"Intitled, the Genii; revealed at Mecca.
Ch. xlviii. "In the name of the Most Merciful God,
"Say, It hath been revealed unto me, that a company of genii attentively heard me reading the Koran, and said, verily we have heard an admirable discourse, which directeth unto the right institution; wherefore we believe therein, and we will by no means associate any other with our Lord. He (may the majesty of our Lord be exalted!) hath taken no wife, nor hath he begotten any issue; yet the foolish among us have spoken that which is extremely false of God; but we verily thought that neither man nor genius would by any means have uttered a lie concerning God. And there are certain men who fly for refuge unto certain of the genii; but they increase their folly and transgression; and they also thought as ye thought, that God would not raise any one to life. And we formerly

ALCO-
RAN.
—
ALCOVE

attempted to pry into what was transacting in heaven; but we found the same filled with a strong guard of angels, and with flaming darts; and we sat on some of the seats thereof, to hear the discourse of its inhabitants; but whoever listeneth now, findeth a flame laid in ambush for him, to guard the celestial confines. And we know not whether evil he hereby intended against those who are on the earth, or whether their Lord intendeth to direct them aright. There are some among us who are upright; and there are some among us who are otherwise. We are of different ways. And we verily thought that we could by no means frustrate God in the earth; neither could we escape him by flight; wherefore, when we had heard the direction contained in the Koran, we believed therein. And whoever believeth in his Lord, need not fear any diminution of his reward, nor any injustice. There are some Moslems among us; and there are others of us who swerve from righteousness. And whoso embraceth Islam, they earnestly seek true direction; but those who swerve from righteousness shall be fuel for hell. If they tread in the way of truth, we will surely water them with abundant rain, that we may prove them thereby; but whoso turneth aside from the admonition of his Lord, him will he send into a severe torment. Verily the places of worship are set apart unto God; wherefore invoke not any other therein together with God. When the sarrant of God stood up to invoke him, it wanted little but that the genii had pressed on him in crowds, to hear him rehearse the Koran. Say, verily I call upon my Lord only, and I associate no other God with him. Say, verily I am not able, of myself, to procure you either hurt or a right institution. Say, verily none can protect me against God; neither shall I find any refuge besides him. I can do no more than publish what hath been revealed unto me from God, and his messages. And whosoever shall be disobedient unto God and his apostle, for him is the fire of hell prepared; they shall remain therein for ever. Until they see he vengeance with which they are threatened, they will not cease their opposition; but then shall they know who were the weaker in a protector, and the fewer in number. Say, I know not whether the punishment with which ye are threatened be nigh, or whether my Lord will appoint for it a distant term. He knoweth the secrets of futurity; and he doth not communicate his secrets unto any, except an apostle in whom he is well pleased; and he causeth a guard of angels to march before him and behind him, that he may know that they have executed the commission of their Lord; he comprehendeth whatever is with them, and counteth all things by number."

ALCORANISTS, in Mahometan Theology, a term that has been applied to a set of devotees to the letter of the Alcoran, similar to the scribes and textuaries among the Jews; as also to all believers in the inspiration of that book.

ALCOVE. In the Spanish, *Alcova*, or *Alcoba*; and this from the Arabic *Alcoba*. An apartment arched or vaulted, by which the bed is surrounded. Menage. Applied to any shady recess.

The king [James II.] brought over with him from Whitehall a great many peers and privy counsellors. And of these eighteen

were let into the bed-chamber; but they stood at the furthest end of the room. The ladies stood within the alcove.

Great Villages lies—alas, how chang'd from him,
That life of pleasure, and that seat of whim!
Gallant and gay, in Cliveden's proud alcove,
The bower of wanton Shewsbury and love.

Pope's Epistle to Ales, Lord Parkhurst.

On mossy banks, beneath the elum grove,
The youthful wailers form'd a wild alcove.

Falconer's Shipwreck.

ALCOVE, in Architecture, is more generally applied

ALCOVE. to a recess in a chamber, from which it is separated by means of columns, arches, or a ballustrade; and is generally elevated a few steps above the other part of the room. In the alcove of state rooms, the bed of state was usually placed, and sometimes seats for company. Many vestiges of this mode of building are found in the palace of the Alhambra, in Spain, in which country it still obtains. It is probable that the Spaniards introduced alcoves into Germany and France, and that they themselves adopted the fashion from their Moorish conquerors. It is now almost entirely disused in other European countries.

ALCOY, a considerable manufacturing town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, about 19 miles from Alicante, on a river of the same name. The population, according to a late estimation, amounts to about 9,887 inhabitants.

ALCUDIA DE CASTEL, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, containing about 2,000 inhabitants. Here is an ancient parochial church, and a convent of religious, of the Franciscan order.

ALCUDIA, a small city of Majorca, nearly opposite to Minorca. It was formerly a place of considerable consequence; but it is now much reduced. In the neighbourhood they fish for coral.

ALCYON, or **ALCYONIUM,** in Ancient Ornithology, a name by which the Ispida, or king-fisher, was designated. The classic poets feigned that the Alcyon, building its nest on the sea, made the waters calm in all the neighbourhood. See **HALCYON.**

ALCYONE, in Astronomy, the star of the greatest lustre in the Pleiades; it is in our catalogues marked γ.

ALCYONI, in Entomology, a species of the papilio symphyla.

ALCYONIA, in Ancient Geography, a lake in Corinth, a third of a furlong in circumference, visited by Pausanias, of which he relates that no one had ever succeeded in determining its depth. Nero made a fruitless attempt of this kind with ropes joined together, to the length of several furlongs. The historian was informed, that though the surface of the water was always tranquil, yet any one attempting to swim in it was quickly drawn under. Through this lake Bacchus is said to have descended to the infernal regions to bring up his mother Semele.—*Pars. lib. ii. c. 37.*

ALCYONIUM, in Zoology, a term given by Linnaeus to a species of zoophytes. This animal grows like a plant; the stem is fleshy, fixed, gelatinous, and coriaceous, set round with polyp; bearing stellate cells. Gmelin mentions twenty-eight species.

ALCYONIUM MARE, in Ancient Geography, a bay about 25 miles long, at the extremity of the Corinthian gulph. On the north it had the coast of Boeotia, on the south that of Megaris, and a small part of Corinth. *Strabo, lib. viii. & ix.*

ALDAN, a considerable river of Siberia, having its source on the Chinese frontier. It passes, after several meanderings, through the province of Yakutsk; and sables of the finest quality are obtained in its neighbourhood.

ALDAY. All day.

Withoute tyf-er after pis kyng so great bi con,
For þe grete treweit manerliche þat he alday com,
Dat he was not use y paid to halke þis kyndom.

R. of Gloucester, p. 93.

And yet these clerkes sholde preche
And seyne, good dedes may none be,
Whiche sholde mought upon charitee.

Govens. The Prologue

ALDAY.

ALDBO-

ROU GH.

ALDBOROUGH, or **ALDNUAG** (the *Isurian Brigantium* of the Romans), a very ancient town in the west riding of Yorkshire, about a mile and a half to the east of Boroughbridge, and 208 distant from London.

It was once a British city, but was enlarged and strengthened by the Romans, who appear to have built the walls, the ruins of which are still found to be from four to five yards thick, upon a foundation of large pebble stones. These walls formed a complete square, and included at least sixty acres of land, now, for the most part, laid out in fields. Few places have afforded a greater variety of Roman antiquities. Here have been discovered the fragments of aqueducts cut in great stones, and covered with tiles; a vault, which it is thought led to the river Ouse, near whose banks the present town is seated, and supposed to have been a dormitory; vast quantities of Roman coins, mostly of brass, from the reign of Augustus to Constantine; together with several signets, urns, and other utensils of red earth, wrought with a variety of figures, knots, and flowers. Some beautiful Mosaic pavement, consisting of small stones, of about a quarter of an inch square, with a border nearly four times that size, were discovered in 1770; and in the year 1808, a great number of urns, containing calcined bones, with a lacrymatory, a fibula vestaria, and eighteen human skeletons. These remains, which, there is little doubt, had been in the ground upwards of 1,400 years, were all in a high degree of preservation; and a thin stratum of black earth which surrounded them, affords a strong presumption that the bodies of those whose ashes were contained in the urns, had been burned on the place where they were deposited. On the south side of the town are the reliques of a Roman encampment, containing about two acres of ground. The Roman Isurium was, in all probability, built about the year 80; after Julius Agricola had completed the reduction of the Brigantines, one of the most powerful of all the British tribes, and possessing the entire districts, now forming the counties of York, Lancaster, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Durham. Before the foundation of Eboracum, now the city of York, it appears to have been the principal city of the district. Some have supposed that it was burnt by the Danes; others that it was more gradually destroyed, and afterwards rebuilt by the Saxons, who gave it the name of *Aldburg*, or the Old Town. Aldborough at present contains about 760 inhabitants. It is a corporate borough, returning two members to parliament; and all the inhabitants who pay taxes, enjoy the elective franchise; but the duke of Newcastle holds the principal burgage property. The church is supposed to have been built out of the ruins of Isurium. There is also a small township of the name of Aldborough, in the North Riding of Yorkshire.

ALDBOURGH, a sea-port and market town of Suffolk, in the hundred of Plumstead, 94 miles from London, on the river Ald, whence its name is derived. Two centuries ago, Aldborough was a place of considerable importance; but latterly the sea has encroached so seriously on its site, that one whole street which ran parallel with the other two, of which the

ALDR-
BOUGH.
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ALDER.

town is comprised, was swallowed up during the last century and the market-place and cross were destroyed by the same means. A plan of this town, published in the year 1559, represents the church as standing upwards of ten times its present distance from the shore. The harbour is defended by a martello tower and some pieces of artillery; and to the southward of the quay are conveniences for drying fish; this town having been long famous for the cure of sprats, in the manner of red herrings. The inhabitants export some corn, and carry on a trade in coals with Newcastle upon Tyne. Aldborough has lately been resorted to as a bathing-place, and several handsome seats adorn the neighbourhood.

ALDEBARAN, or *PALITEUM*, in Astronomy, the Arabian term for a star of the first magnitude, in the middle of the eye of Taurus, and from its situation called the Bull's eye.

ALDENAH, a bailiwick and town on the river Ahr, in the Prussian grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, 20 miles S. from Cologne, and 30 N. W. of Coblenz. It is the chief town of a canton. E. lon. 6° 50'. N. lat. 50° 35'.

ALDENHOVEN, a town and bailiwick in the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, containing a population of about 1,100 inhabitants. It is three miles from Juliers.

ALDER, or } Aller, or Alder, Alle, All. Tyr-
Al'tra. } whit (after Junius) calls it the
genitive case plural, Of all. It was used much in com-
position. Aller best; best of all. Aller last; last of
all. Aller first; first of all. Aller most; most of all.
Or, wholly best; wholly last, &c.

Grete townes in Engeland he amendece y now,
And London after most for per to hyz herie done.
R. Gloucester, p. 44.

In pe alder next pat pe bataille was of Lozes,
De geynyng of berms, as pe story shewes,
Com synoun to feld. R. Brune, v. l. p. 221.

Sex and twenty banners of Englonde last,
Of armys pat knewe pe matters, to were were alle prest.
Id. v. ii. p. 571.

And which of you that bereth him best of alle,
That is to sayn, that trelth in this cas,
Tales of best entencet and most solas,
Shal have a smugge at youre alder cost.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 55.

Wel coude he rede a lesson or a storie,
But alderbest he sang an offertorie. Id. v. l. p. 29.

Allderst thou shalt consider that in thilke thing that thou pur-
posest, and upon what thing that thou wolt have counsel, that veray
trouth be said and conserved. Id. The Tale of Melibeus, v. ii. p. 91.

And alderlast of coerieborne
Was painted Poerit all alone,
That not a prey had he hold,
Although he her clothes sold.
Id. The Iliad of the Rine, f. 112, c. 5.

Example why, are now these great clerkes,
That erren aldermost ayen a law.
And ben converted from his wicked werkes
Throgh grace of God, y' lest he to withdraw.
Id. First Booke of Tristram, f. 157, c. 2.

Thou y'art alderfaire, bearing y' fair world in thy thought: foremost
this world to thy hertes sensible, of y' fair world in thy thought.
Id. Third Booke of Rucina, f. 226, c. 1.

Quere, Great king of England, and my gracious lord,
The mutual conference that my minde hath had,
By day, by night; waking, and in my dremes,
In courtly company, or at my beddes,

With you mine alder lightest sovereigne,
Makes me the holder to salute my king.
Shakespeare's 2d part of Henry VI. act i.

ALDER-TREE, or *BETULIA*, in Botany, a genus of
plants of the class *Mouretia*, order *Tetrandria*.
ALDERAMIN, or *ALDERAMIN*, in Astronomy, the
Arabie name of a star of the third magnitude, situated
in the left shoulder of the constellation *Cepheus*. Bayer
marks it α.

ALDERHOLM, an island of Sweden, in the gulf of
Bothnia, 80 miles N. of Stockholm, formed by the
mouths of the river Gefle. It has a considerable trade
in deals, and dock, arsenal, and some respectable
warehouses.

ALDERMAN, n. } A. S. *Ealdburman* (a word
ALDERMAN'ITY, } which, even in A. S., says
ALDERMANLIKE, } Skinner, had become a title
ALDERMANLY, } of dignity), from *Ælb*,
ALDERMANSHIP. } *Ælbop*, old, noble, and man.

The which Synaide he haled hym so well after, that he was ad-
myned for an alderman; in that short pryncesse after, he demeaned
hym so stille and so cōtēpōrablye unto the weale and good orde of
y' cite, that he was dyscharged of his aldermanlytie, and dyscharged
from all rule and cōsēquētye of the cytie. Fabian, p. 351.

Everich, for the wisdom that he can
Was shapeliich for to be an alderman.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 16.

In a secular common weale he is called to be a maior, that
before weel hymself stōd in the wardenship, and anywe he is
promoted from being maior to be judge, or the alderman, because
he behaved hymself well in his maynetye.

Udal. Paul to Timothee, cap. iii.

By the lawes of King Ina, 100 yeares before Alfred, as they are
extant in the Saxon tongue, and by the lawes of Ælfrith, king of
Seots, there is mention made of shirens and of the shiremen or
aldermen, whom we now call sherrifs or sherrifs.

Stow's Chronicle.

O happy art! and wise epitome
Of bearing arms! most civil soldiery!
Thou canst draw forth the forces, and fight dry
The battles of thy aldermanity;
Without the hazard of a drop of blood.

Ben Jonson. Satire on the Artillery-yard. Underwood's. N° liiii.

Then followed Sancha upon his name, leading Routinette by the
bittle; and last of all came the counte and harbor upon their
mighty saules, and with their faces covered; all in a grave posture,
and with an alderman-like pace, and travelling no faster then the
slow steps of the heavie oven permitted them.

Shelton's Towns of Don Quinte. Ed. 1652.

These [Lord Bacon, the earl of Strafford, archbishop Laud], and
many more, under different printers, and in different kingdoms,
were disgraced, or banished, or suffered death, merely in envy
in their virtues and superior genius, which emboldened them in great
experiences and distances of state (wanting a reasonable infusion
of this aldermanly discretion) to attempt the service of their prince
and country out of their common form.

Swift's Essay on the Fates of Clergymen.

The new machine, and it became a chair.
* * * * * The lumber stood
Pond'ron and fir'd by its own mummy weight.
But elms still were wanting: these, some say,
An alderman of Cripplegate contrived.

Cropper's Task, book i.

ALDERMAN, or *ELDERMAN*, in Ancient Customs,
appears to have been a title of various offices of Saxon
and British polity. It was the second rank of Saxon
nobility (atheling being the first, and thane the lowest),
and synonymous with our earl, or count, though not
always an hereditary title.

"The alderman of the county," says Spelman of the
Ancient Government of England, "whom confusedly
they call an earl, was in parallel equal with the bishop,
and therefore both their estimations valued alike in the

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laws of Ethelstan at eight thousand *thrymsas*.^{*} He was a man learned in the laws, and had the government of the whole shire, and cognizance over all the inferior courts and persons, both in civil matters and criminal; for which purpose he held his ordinary court by the shire once every month, and there resorted as suitors, and bound by duty, all the lords of manors, and principal men of the county, with the rest of the freeholders, who were not only assistants, but judges with him of all matters there depending, whether entered there originally, or coming thither by appeal or procreation from the inferior courts.* From the same author we find an ancient title of *Aldermannus totius Anglia* was sometimes applied to an officer like that of our present lord chief justice of England; there was likewise an *aldermannus hundredi*, according to Du Fresnoie, first introduced in the reign of Henry I.

This title, at present, is given to the principal magistrates of various cities in England, who govern them conjointly with, and subordinate to, a mayor. In London there are twenty-six *aldermen*, one for each ward, which (with the exception of the twenty-sixth, erected, according to Maidland, in 1550, and serving only to dignify the senior alderman as *father of the city*) are offices of great personal respectability, and of considerable importance to the public peace. All aldermen are justices of the peace within the city of London; they are chosen for life by the freemen householders of their several wards, according to the ancient customs of each ward respectively; and may be called the *peers* of the city, which much resembles in its government the three estates of the kingdom. In the wardmote the alderman presides over the election of the common councilmen; he is exempt, by office, from serving on juries, and all inferior duties of a citizen; and from the court of aldermen, of which the lord mayor is the official chairman, the latter officer is annually chosen. The livery nominate, in common-hall, two aldermen to this dignity, one of whom, generally the senior, is finally elected by the court of aldermen. Those aldermen who have passed the civic chair are justices of the quorum; and the lord mayor, recorder, common sergeant, and aldermen, are judges of oyer and terminer for the city of London and county of Middlesex. The aldermen attend, or should attend, daily at the public offices, to dispose of all charges and breaches of the public peace within the city.

ALDERNEY, a small island in the English channel, subject to Great Britain, about seven miles from cape la Hague, on the coast of Normandy. It is about four miles long from E. to W. and one and a half broad, and was well known to the ancients; as some suppose, under the name of Arica, and others, under that of Riduna. In the earliest records of our history it is called Aurney, Aurney, or Aurney; and in the French Gazetteers, "Alderney or Aurney." Like other isles of the channel, it is governed by old French laws, and has a peculiar jurisdiction, subject to the courts of Guernsey, from which island it is distant about eighteen

miles N. E. It forms a link in that chain of rocks which extend to "the Caskets," where stands a light-house, and has only one town of any consequence, containing a population of 1,300 persons. The general aspect of the country is sterile and uncomfortable; but a considerable portion of it is cultivated. Its cows are in great repute; they are of a yellow red colour, and have very fine small bones; the milk they yield, though less in quantity, is of a superior richness, and this circumstance, together with the beauty of their appearance, renders them favourites in England. They are also said to fatten well, yielding beef of a fine grain, though high in colour. What is called "the Race of Alderney," being the intermediate channel between this island and the coast of Normandy, is extremely dangerous to mariners. In the year 1120 these rocks proved fatal to Henry, duke of Normandy, son of our first Henry; and, in 1744, to the Victory man of war, when 1,100 men lost their lives here. The ruins of an unfinished castle, begun by the earl of Essex, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, are still to be seen.

ALDESCUS in Ancient Geography, a river of European Sarmatia, rising among the Ripham mountains, and falling into the Euxine or Black sea. *DIOXY. Perieg.* ver. 314.

ALDHAFERA, in Astronomy, an Arabic name for a star in the Lion's mane, of the third magnitude, marked γ .

ALDPORT, in Ancient Topography, a name sometimes given to the town of Manchester.

ALDRINGTON (supposed to have been the *Portus Adurni* of the Romans), formerly a small coast town of Sussex, between Brightelmston and Shoreham. The encroachments of the sea on this part of the coast have been such as completely to destroy every building here, with the exception of the parish church, which is in a ruinous state; though, as late as the year 1742, persons were living who could remember an entire street standing along the coast.

ALDROVANDA, in Botany, a water plant, deriving its name from the celebrated Italian naturalist Ulysses Aldrovandi. It is of the Linnæan class Pentandria, and order Pentagynia.

ALDSTONE MOOR, or ALSTONE MOOR, a town and small parish of Cumberland, eleven miles from Hexham, and 302 from London, having a population of 5,079 inhabitants, of whom upwards of one quarter are usually employed in the lead mines of the neighbourhood, which are very productive.

ALDUABIS, or DUBIS, in Ancient Geography, a considerable river of Celtic Gaul, rising from Mount Jura, and, after a northern course, running westward through the territory of the Sequani till it unites with the Arar. STRABO, lib. iv. CASAR. *Bel. Gal.* lib. i. c. 38. It is now the Doubs.

ALDWINKLE, and ALDWINKLE ST. PETER's, two parishes in the hundred of Huxley, Northamptonshire, now only remarkable as the birth-place of the celebrated poet Dryden, and the quaint and honest Dr. Thomas Fuller, author of the *Worthies of England*.

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* A silver coin that Spelman values at about 5s.

ALE

ALE. A. S. *Xlo*, the third person singular, indicative of *Ælaw*, to kindle and inflame, applied to a strong beer, from its warming, heating quality. And to certain festivals at which it was a principal promoter of mirth.

Wel coude he knowe a draught of *London ale*.
Chaucer. *The Prologue*, v. l. p. 16.
A geiende hadde he seten upon his bede,
As greet as it were for an elechke.

Id. *ib.* v. l. p. 28.

For as a size keepeth ale,
Right so can Cheste kepe a tale,
All that he wote, he wold disclose,
And speke it any man oppose.

Gower. *Conf.* A. book iii.

For the *alepis* doth but signifye that there is good ale in the house, where the *alepis* standeth, and wyl tell him that he muste goo nere the house and there he shall finde the drink; and not stande suckinge the *alepis* in vayne.

A *Bale* made by John Fryth, book iv.

And that same sword and buckler prince of Wales;
But that I thinke his father looses him not,
And would be glad he met with some mischance,
I would have payn't him with a pot of ale.

Shakespeare's 1st part of *Henry IV.* act i.

In this island the old drink was ale, noble ale; than which, as I heard a great foreign Doctor affirm, there is no figure that more increaseth the radical moisture, and preserves the natural heat, which are the two pillars that support the life of man.

Houell's Letters.

From old records,
Of antique proverbs, drawn from Whittens-hornd:
And their authorities, at wakes and ales,
With country precedents, and old wives tales,
We bring you now, to shew what different things
The cozier of climates are from the courts of kings.

Ben Jonson's *Tale of a Tub*. Prolog.

Yet ne'er to those dark paths by night retire;
Mind only safety, and contemn the mire.
Then no imperious courts thy hasty detain,
Nor sneering climates bid thee turn again.

Gay's *Tristram*, book iii.

Where village stonemasons talk'd with looks profound,
And news much older than their ale went round.
Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*.

ALE is a well-known fermented liquor, made from malt, hops, and water, by a particular process of boiling, mashing, &c. Certain narcotic drugs, which, from the cupidity of gain, in modern times, have been used in its composition to enhance the profit of the manufacturer, cannot be supposed to enter into any just definition of this good old English beverage. Ale is, in this article, to be considered simply as it was, and still is, in some public breweries, a plain and wholesome concoction of malt and hops; and more particularly what it is in the cellars of the nobility and gentry, and farm-houses of the country, as known under the name of *home-brewed ale*. A sketch of the history of this ancient liquor may very properly precede the general description of the ingredients of which it is composed, and of the mode of making, fermenting, and keeping it; while, for the more extended and scientific principles of preparing it, the reader may refer to the

article *BREWING*. Our present design is to present a popular treatise on a subject occasionally interesting to all Englishmen.

It is a curious fact in the general history of man, its history, that almost all nations, from the remotest antiquity, have had some method of producing intoxication; some liquor, root, or drug, the stimulating effect of which upon the stomach produced a degree of pleasurable excitement, ending in senseless stupor. Among these means, it appears that a liquor made from barley is of very high antiquity. It is said to have been the natural substitute for wine in such countries as could not produce the grape, and to have been originally made in Egypt, where, from the periodical overflowing of the Nile, grapes could not be extensively cultivated. Egypt, indeed, was never a wine country; but the art of brewing this fermented barley-liquor was consistently attributed to Osiris. The Egyptian name of this liquid was *zythum*, in Pliny's time; by which, according to Diodorus Siculus, it was extensively known on the shores of the Levant. The Greeks distinguished it by a variety of names, one of which signified *barley-wine*; and more sorts of it than one are described by their historians.

From Egypt this liquor passed to the west, through Galatia, and various countries that were too cold for vines; and even where they could be cultivated, the process of making intoxicating liquor from corn was much more rapid than the cultivation of vines. Every migratory race, passing into a colder climate, would, therefore, naturally cherish this invention; hence the knowledge of this liquor spread over all the countries of Europe, under the various appellations of *cervia* and *cervia* in Spain; of *cervisia* in France; and amongst the aborigines of Britain by that of *curni*; all of which literally denoted at first, the *strong water*. Strong ale is distinguished to this day in Wales by a similar name.

But though it may thus appear that the use of an intoxicating liquor made from barley is of great antiquity, we are not much nearer a satisfactory history of English ale. The *barley-wine* of the ancients was probably made at first without either malting, or fermenting with yeast; and it is still less likely that they used hops or any other bitter ingredient. They might at first steep their bruised corn till it *soured*, and obtain a spirit by a rude process of distillation, something after the manner of making brandy from the milk of mares by the Calmuck Tartars; or drink it in its soured state, under the name of *curni*, without any approaches, in the process of making, to our modern method of brewing. It seems easy to suppose that the art of malting might also be discovered by the accident of having barley sprouted in the field, which being found superior for the purposes of the brewery, the accident would suggest a regular process of malting, drying, and grinding. Still their drink would appear to be used in the form of a spirit; or, at any rate, we are yet

ALE

Passes from
Egypt to
the west.

ALF. at a great distance from brewing with hops, and fermenting with yeast. This chasm in the history there is no satisfactory method of filling.

"After the introduction of agriculture into this island" (it has been said, that) "ale or beer was substituted instead of mead, and became the general drink of all the British nations;" which is as much as to say, that mead was the general drink of all these nations before the introduction of agriculture; and it does not inform us whether the British nations understood the management of beer before they had learned the cultivation of land. All these considerations seem only to determine a point which requires no authority to establish it; namely, that the British nations had no beer before they had corn. We are, however, willing to admit, that beer came into England with barley; though much uncertainty attends the date of so important an importation.

Fig. With regard to the use of liquor made from corn, we have a curious passage from Pliny, demonstrating that it was common to all the nations we have mentioned. "All the several nations (says he) who inhabit the west of Europe, have a liquor with which they intoxicate themselves, made with corn and water, *fruge miscida*. The manner of making this liquor is somewhat different in Gaul, Spain, and other countries; and it is called by many various names, but its nature and properties are every where the same. The people in Spain in particular brew this liquor so well, that it will keep good a long time. So exquisite is the ingenuity of mankind in gratifying their vicious appetites, that they have thus invented a method to make even water itself intoxicant."

The first authority which regards the process of making malt liquor, is cited from Isidorus and Orosius, by Origen (lib. x. c. 2.), and quoted by Henry (*Hist. of England*, vol. ii., p. 364, 8vo). "The grain is steeped in water, and made to germinate, by which its spirits are excited and set at liberty; it is then dried and ground; after which it is infused in a certain quantity of water, which being fermented becomes a pleassant, warming, strengthening, and intoxicating liquor." As these authorities are nearly coeval with the Christian era, it is certain that the art of making malt is of very ancient invention, and it is very probable that the liquor thus obtained was substantially the same, until by the addition of hops, and more skill in the management and the fermentation, it became home-brewed ale.

First appearance in English law. In England, this liquor is mentioned as early as the laws of Ina, king of Wessex. It was the favourite liquor of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes, as it had been of their ancestors the Germans. In the Edda, the drinking large and frequent draughts of this beverage is placed amongst the chief delights of the hall of Odin, by which we may estimate the value that was set upon such draughts by those who were waiting for this promotion.

Amongst the liquors provided for a royal banquet, in the reign of Edward the Confessor, ale is particularly mentioned. As the use of ale increased, its improvement was studiously attended to;—the monasteries, from early periods, had always breweries and good cellars included in their precincts: and among their rules and regulations, we find the allowance of ale to each class of the orders very exactly set down, and its

quality specified; that called *contratual ale* being always the strongest and the best. But it was not until 1524 that hops were first brought to England, and it was more than fifty years later, about the beginning of the reign of James I. that they became generally used. How much earlier they were used in Germany, or other European countries, from whence they were imported into England, does not appear; but it is not much more than two hundred and fifty years ago since ale was first made in England, according to the definition with which we commenced.

ALE. In Scotland and in Wales, we are told, they had two Scottish kinds, called common ale and spiced ale, and their relative value may be estimated by a quotation from an ancient law—"If a farmer hath no mead, he shall pay two casks of spiced ale, or four casks of common ale, for one cask of mead." This was at a time when they had no wine in England, for less any such thing as sugar, and, therefore, mead was the most elegant and costly liquor they could procure. But even ale, at this period, was by no means a constant beverage, nor within the reach of the common people; it was still a luxury, confined to the tables of the opulent. About the period of the conquest, a cask of spiced ale, nine palms long and eighteen palms in diameter, we are informed, was valued at a sum equal to 7l. 10s. of our present money; but as this measurement would give a cask of a preposterous shape, the account may not be very accurate. It is a long time after this that regulations for selling ale occur; by a statute of 35 Henry III. in 1272, mentioned by Hume (*Hist. Eng.* vol. ii. p. 224.), a brewer was allowed to sell two gallons of ale for a penny in cities, and three or four gallons for the same price in the country. The first assize of ale was fixed by the famous statute of the 51st of Henry II.

Ale became early an article of trade, and being likely to be used to excess, and one that might justly be considered as a luxury, it was made subject to a duty to government in 1643, when the excise was first established; again by Charles II. and by numerous subsequent acts of parliament. It will appear, however, from this recent date of the commencement of the duties, that however much may be said of the antiquity of ale, and of the estimation in which it was held, it did not become the common drink of the people until late times.

From the time of the introduction of hops it may be supposed that ale continued to improve in flavour, and an increasing attention was paid to brewing, fermenting, and cleansing the liquor. The method of making malt has also been placed on more scientific principles. There is reason, however, to believe that the great contention for superiority in the ale of public breweries is now in some measure suspended, the foreign trade having much declined; and in private houses it is comparatively neglected, for the less national object of excelling in wines.

Of the ales which have been long celebrated, it is idle to select any one with a decided preference, because no single authority is entitled to pronounce upon a point on which the appeal is to such a multitude of tastes. The Scotch ale, the Burton ale, and the Taunton ale, have long been known in commerce as well as Madeira or Port wine, and are as easily identified.

During the brisk trade in ale to Russia, great pains were taken in and near the ports of Liverpool and

ALE.

Mashing.

Bristol to improve the flavour of it, and particular attention was directed to the mashing process, both in the growing and the drying. It was found that the superiority of the flavour depended on two essential points in the mashing (allowing the hops to be of the finest quality); the first, that the malt should be well-grown; that is, that the aereospire should be drawn to the end of the grain; the other, that the malt should be slowly and pale dried. These points have been laboriously explained, in an ingenious Treatise on Mashing, published some years ago, by John Reynoldson, Esq. of Newark; and in close comparison of the observations of this gentleman with practical results, the writer of this article has been fully convinced of the injurious effects of the exsicc regulations, which direct the manner in which malt shall be made; and that while as much strength or body may be given to the ale as if the grain were steeped shorter, and might be worked cooler on the floor, and sprinkled when necessary, the same flavour cannot be obtained as if it might be worked in the best manner, according to the weather and the quality of the barley.

Principal faults of ale.

The difference in the colour of ales is not, however, wholly owing to the drying of the malt, but is partly produced by the kind or quality of the hop and partly by the duration, or difference, in the care in the boiling; and it may be in some degree affected by the difference in the fermentation. If we advert to home-brewed ale in farm-houses, we shall find it of so many shades as to colour, and of so many qualities as to flavour, that it is a beverage as different as can well be imagined to be produced from the same ingredients; generally it is light coloured; in some instances too bitter; in others sharp, or, as it is more commonly called, hard; it is frequently not fine; often flat; generally too mild, and somewhat yeasty in flavour; and, of later times, seldom strong. All these faults, except the last, arise from mismanagement, and if there be any reason in the distinction (which otherwise appears merely arbitrary), all this imperfect liquor might be called *beer*, in contradistinction from *ale*, which ought always to be "fine, old, malt liquor."

In beauty and flavour the pale amber ale is the best; when too pale it has a greenish hue, and the flavour is not necessarily improved, as this depends more upon the growing of the malt than the drying of it; but highly-coloured ale cannot have the finer flavour, as the empyreumatic tendency of the drying will cover it. The quality of the hops, however, is by no means a matter of indifference to the colour and flavour of the ale; they ought to be of a lively green colour, and of a soft and oily texture, having a brisk, penetrating, and agreeable odour. Premising, therefore, thus much of the ingredients, it is only necessary to add some observations on the general principles of making and managing the liquor.

Breaking the malt.

Very particular preparatory instructions have been given by some persons about breaking the malt, while others have insisted that the finest ale is to be obtained without breaking it at all; and the common people believe that maltsters brew their ale from whole malt, which, after being mashed, is again thrown upon the kiln, to go among the malt which is designed for sale. But such persons do not recollect that, in mashing, the malt would burst, and that if it were dried it would not afterwards grind among malt, but would only be

crushed like paste. It has been also disputed, whether stoucs, querns, or rollers ought to be preferred for the purpose of grinding, and the most general opinion is in favour of the latter. There is the same variety of opinion in regard to the heat of the water for mashing: it was formerly mashed boiling hot, or at least with only a little cold water put first into the bottom of the tub; but after the use of the thermometer had been applied to brewing, it has been contended so strongly, that the heat ought not to rise above 180° of Fahrenheit, that it might reasonably be inferred no good ale could be made without a thermometer; the same instrument has been applied to ascertain the proper heat for fermentation, which some have observed should be of the general temperature of the atmosphere, and it is certain that if the wort be cooled too low it will not ferment sufficiently. The writer of this article, however, has fermented his ale at all temperatures, from 70° to 84°, without being able, with due care, to discern much difference, but he is disposed to give the preference to 74°, or 76°. These are, however, considerably too high for the gyle-tuns of large breweries, but in a private brewery, and with small vessels, there is no need to be guided by the rules laid down in treatises which have reference to large establishments. With regard to the heat of mashing, it may be observed that it is only the danger of *setting the goods* which makes it prudent to take a heat considerably below boiling, for many people still mash with boiling water, and make very good ale. It is again urged, that those who mash with water too hot, do not extract the saccharum sufficiently from the goods, and consequently throw away a considerable share of the strength or spirit of the malt. Perhaps this observation may include a principle which has not been adverted to in the vehemence with which the rule has been urged. It is well-known that saccharum may be partially generated by the cooler process of mashing, and that beer may thus be made from ground barley that has not been malted; and, therefore, it seems that the lower heat of mashing may have a tendency to increase the quantity of saccharum in the malt, by generating it in the part of the grain that was not sufficiently malted; and this seems to be the better way of accounting for the superiority which is insisted upon as observable in the worts obtained from the lower heats in mashing.

ALE.

Heat for mashing.

Brewing.

The most customary way of brewing ale is to have a mash-tub with a false bottom, which rests upon certain feet just above the tap, and is perforated with many small holes; a spout is attached to one side of the tub, which narrows as it descends, and fits exactly into a square hole in the false bottom; this spout is placed on the side next the copper, and a vessel called a tundish, is put on the top of it, into which the hot water is to be poured. The tap being fixed in its place, the malt is all put into the tub, with the exception of a small portion, amounting to about one-eighth of the whole, to cover the mash when finished. The water, heated to 180°, is then to be poured, with any convenient vessel (as a sort of bowl with a long handle, called a *jet*), into the tun-dish, which is placed upon the spout, and it rises under the malt, and wets it gradually. A little stirring is necessary, which is performed with a sort of implement like a ribbed spade, called a *mash-rule*; the

ALE. lumps of malt being carefully broken, and the mash left moderately thick. It is then covered with the dry malt, and over the tub are placed four or five sacks, supported on sticks laid across, and the whole is left to steep from three to four hours. To let it stand longer would be dangerous, because, if it should *sour*, the ale would be lost. It is usual while the mash is standing to fill the copper with water, and damp the fire with ashes; the person employed also in this interval generally skanks the barrels, and sets them to drain and dry; supposing them to have been soaked and washed the day before, which is the usual practice in farm-houses. But in the establishments of the gentry, the cooper attends to see that the casks are in order; and, at all times, it is safer to unband them if they have been long empty.

Taking off
the wort.

When the mash has stood about three hours and a half, the tap is turned, and the first runnings caught in a bowl, or other vessel, and returned into the vat, because some grains of the malt will come with them. It is desirable that this liquor, now called the *wort*, should run off transparent; but this will not always be the case: it is drawn off rather slowly, and the brewer, from time to time, pours hot water from the copper upon the goods, until he judges that he has obtained enough for the quantity of ale he designs to make. But this method is not generally followed in private brew-houses; they let the first wort run gently off, and then mash the goods a second time with the additional quantity of water (nearly boiling) that is wanted to make up the quantity of ale desired, and let the second mash stand one hour; then run it off as before, gathering it into a tub from the under-beck, which receives it from the vat. Into this tub the brewer previously pours the hops intended to be used, at the rate of about a pound to the bushel of malt. Small-beer is now generally made from the same goods by a third steeping, the boiling water that remains in the copper is emptied into the mash-vat, and the copper being duly cleansed, the wort with the hops in it, is put into the copper to boil. It has been remarked, that the wort will not always come off transparent, and some observe that if the mash has been too hot, the wort will be thick; if this were the case, the evil, if it be one, might be always avoided. But persons who have paid all imaginable attention to the regulation of the heat, and that too with the help of a thermometer, have not always been able to procure a clear wort. It is a good rule to mash at first with a proper scald, which is about 180°; as before observed; and where the thermometer is not used, nearly the same heat may be attained, by pouring four measures of boiling water to one of cold. This heat will prevent the accident of setting; but there may be something in the peculiar quality of the malt (as a tendency to the formation of starch rather than saccharum) which will render the wort occasionally milky. Wort of this appearance is never so sweet nor well-tasted as that which comes off transparent.

Manage-
ment of the
copper.

When the ale-wort is in the copper, the top of the copper and the lid (which is generally in two halves) should be mopped very clean, because the wort is apt sometimes to swell over the top in coming to the boil. During the boiling, some have a sieve and a skimmer, and take off the froth and hop-seeds, when the hops have settled. After this is the case, the boiling is best

conducted slowly, and with the copper uncovered; but the excessive boiling of four hours continuance, which was the rule formerly observed in farm-houses, is a certain way to spoil both the colour and flavour of the ale, by changing the hops to a reddish hue, and probably extracting from them an emptyumatic quality. When the wort appears transparent in the copper, it is boiled enough, which will be the case in an hour at farthest: the fire should then be slackened, and the wort left to simmer for some time, until the flocculent matter of the malt has subsided, because this will then be in a great measure separated by straining off the wort, and remain in the sieve with the hops.

During this period of boiling, the small-beer wort is run off, the graia cleared away, and the vat cleansed. The false bottom being removed, and the tap put securely in its place, the vat is then ready to receive the ale-wort from the copper; an arrangement which is noted to show how few vessels may be made to serve the purpose of a private family. In large breweries the cooler is an important article; but in small ones it is seldom found; time and dispatch are not studied; and one brewing is cleared away before another is begun. It may be observed, that in large quantities of wort, there would be danger of souring, even if dispatch were not otherwise necessary, and therefore a cooler is indispensable; but in small quantities, where the mash is eight bushels or under, no such tendency has been found, although private brew-houses are not always detached nor very airy; but if the weather be warm, it is better to draw off the wort from the vat into which it was strained from the copper (having let it stand to deposit what sediment there was in it), and put it into a tub out of doors, towards evening; without which it will be a long time in cooling sufficiently to receive the yeast. The sediment that remains in the vat should be put into a flannel bag, and filtered; or it may be filtered by being poured gently upon the hops as they stand in the sieve; but this wastes rather more of the wort, a small quantity of which must necessarily be lost in the moisture which remains in the hops.

The next thing to be attended to is the fermentation. It may be observed, that nobody brews ale which is intended to keep, or to be of superior quality, in warm weather, and therefore the temperature that is required for fermentation is always attainable. The best method of managing this matter, in order to produce one uniform effect, appears to be the following: Put a few gallons of the wort into a small tub, by the side of the gyle (or working-tub), and put all the yeast you mean to use to the small quantity of wort, when its heat is about 90°; if the quantity of wort be three gallons, and of the yeast a quart, the heat will fall considerably in mixing, and still more before fermentation comes on. In so small a quantity the heat cannot increase by fermentation, and therefore there is no danger of *forcing* the flavour. When the wort in the large tub has cooled to 74°, or thereabouts, pour the contents of the small tub at once into it, and partially cover it, but not closely. This will quickly bring on a proper fermentation; the yeast will appear white like curd as it rises, and the heat will remain steadily the same as when the yeast was added. The heat ought by no means to be suffered to rise, for this is what spoils the ale; if the yeast be dark-coloured, or rise

ALE.

Small-beer.

Serving for
brewing.

ALE. is large blisters, which burst and fall down, the heat is advancing, and the ale is spoiled; and it will sometimes proceed, if not prevented, till the fermentation stops, and the yeast sinks. If the foregoing rules be duly observed, this can never happen; and whenever, from any mismanagement, it does happen, no contrivances can recover it: it may serve for an inferior liquor, but cannot be fine ale.

Numerous and widely differing opinions have been given concerning the time that ale ought to remain in the cyle, or working-tub, during fermentation, and the stirring or beating it together. The directions which are hereafter inserted for cleansing, are closely connected with this matter, for the ale should be put into the barrels while it is yet working briskly, that it may throw off the yeast well. In private houses, no other preparation is made for *cleaning* than what can be readily accomplished in the barrels where the ale is intended to be kept, nor does any other appear to be necessary to the quality of the ale, though, in large breweries, it is essential to convenience. Let the ale be *tuned*, as it is called, while it is yet working briskly, into dry sweet barrels, under which small shallow tubs should be placed, and the bungs put lightly in when full, leaving the top cork out, the top cork-hole being bored larger than the others for this purpose. The head of the barrel should be kept clean and dry, and the barrel filled up twice a day (at least for the first day or two), that the yeast may work freely out. Care should be taken that no cork be left in the barrels when placed to receive the ale; for it would certainly rise to the cork-hole with the yeast, which would presently throw out the bung and occasion loss and mischief. When no more yeast comes over, put in the top cork, and leave the bung loosely in its place for some time; if yeast works up again at the bung-hole, let it be wiped away, and not returned into the barrel. With regard to the fermentation and cleansing, no other care seems to be necessary; but the points already mentioned are not always very nicely attended in by persons who are anxious for very fine ale. No yeast flavour is to be apprehended from the yeast that may remain floating on the surface of the ale, nor from that which subsides in the form of sediment: for the slight coat of it which swims for a time will at length fall down. It is now proper to put into every barrel a few handfuls of dry hops, or hops merely wetted with ale, or scalded in a little good old ale. This may be done a month after the brewing; and in about a week the barrel be finally bunged down for keeping. A few general remarks may yet be useful.

General remarks.

The process of brewing ale is not intricate or difficult: those who represent it so, or endeavour to envelop it in mystery, would either deter private persons from the attempt, or enhance the importance of their own knowledge. It has been of late insisted that it is impossible to manage the processes of mashing and fermenting accurately, without a thermometer; and some also insist much upon the use of the saccharometer. The improvements of science are very pleasing, and these instruments are curious and amusing companions in a brew-house, but our ancestors drank fine ale before they were invented, and, with good malt and hops, fine ale is yet made by many who have never heard of them. It must, therefore, be allowed, that they are not indispensable. But the strength of ale is a matter of

importance, and the directions which have been given upon this point deserve some remark.

Taste, or caprice, or the desire of excellence, may induce persons to brew a part of their ale to be kept very old, and they will brew it, therefore, particularly strong, taking only the wort of the first mash, and putting to it a pond and a half of hops to the bushel of malt, to make not more than five gallons of ale. This is a very expensive liquor, and, what is worse, it is very heavy, and tires, or pals the palate; but it will drink lighter if, after it has stood two years, it be bottled, and stand two years more. It then becomes a curious liquor, and very agreeable to many persons. We consider English ale, however, as a beverage rather than a cordial; and the most agreeable strength is, to take about eight or nine gallons of ale from a bushel of pale malt and a pound of good hops: a brewing of eight bushels will thus fill a cask holding from sixty-four to seventy-two gallons; and smaller casks than these should not be used for old ale: pipes are still better, with malt, &c. in proportion. Neither is it necessary that the copper and tubs should be big enough to brew it at one time; for a second brewing may be tunned upon the first without either danger or inconvenience.

The age at which ale is drunk, will depend upon Age of ale a person's stock; and this will sometimes be regulated by the size of his cellar, but more frequently by his family habits, and still more often by the extent of his pecuniary means. Good mellow ale, soft and fine, may be had at a year old; and it is, perhaps, never better than from one year old to two. Some persons never reckon ale to be old, unless it drink a little hard, or with some approaches to sharpness, or acidity; but this is a false taste, and an erroneous conclusion: old ale in this sense, is old ale spoiled.

A hogshead or pipe of ale, that has been properly brewed and carefully managed, will not always be fine when tapped. Suppose it to be a year old, or, what is more common, suppose it to be brewed in October (the best month in which to brew good ale for keeping), and tapped at the Christmas twelve-month following; if when tapped it be not fine, it may be coked up again, and stand another twelve-month, when it will probably be found not only fine, but greatly improved in flavour; but if it be wanted, it must be fined as follows: draw off a gallon (or two, if the cask be a pipe) and take a quarter of a pound of isinglass, and some fresh hops, and scald them in a clean copper pan, dissolving the isinglass therewith; pour the quantity into a dry pail, and when cool put it into the barrel, and stir the whole together well with a long stick, or such an one as you have head-way to introduce; bung down the cask a few hours afterwards, and in a fortnight the ale will become fine. If the ale drink thin, and incline to be hard, let a pound or two (or more if required) of sugar-candy, bruised, be put into the pan with the hops, &c.

In whatever relates to brewing, cleanliness is essential to be observed; in fermentation, that which may have remained some time on the top of the barrel should not be wiped again; and, in tuning, the sediment that has fallen to the bottom of the working-tub should not be washed into the ale; it consists principally of the farinaceous part of the malt, and every opportunity should be embraced of discharging it. Great care is taken by most persons to use dry pails for tuning, and

ALE.

Cleanliness.

ALE. to keep water from the wort both before and after fermentation. No harm can accrue from observing these rules; but the writer of this article had once two pails of water put by accident into a hoghead of ale when fermenting, which made very nice ale notwithstanding; and, from this fact, it seems advisable, if the heat should appear to rise much in the fermentation, and the yeast show a disposition to burst into bubbles, to try the effect of cold water upon it, if tubs be not at hand to lay it thinner.

There appears to be some uncertainty and difficulty attending the process of brewing and fermenting, taken collectively; and many have supposed that some secret, carefully concealed, must be known to certain practitioners. This idea has, perhaps, been strengthened by the facts that are often observed in one neighbourhood, where two or more persons shall have the same malt and hops, and yet a considerable difference be found in the quality of their ale, not only in transparency, but also in colour and flavour. It is also very common for them to remark that a considerable difference will be found in the quality of the ale of each individual, at different times, when they have not been sensible of any variation in the brewing. This must be understood, however, to apply chiefly to the ale of those who brew without any nicety of management, and ferment thin ale without any care as to temperature; in which the difference in the duration of boiling will account for the variations in colour, and the difference in the heat of the fermenting will produce the varieties of flavour. There is really no mystery in it. Some spoil their ale with over-boiling; others with over-hopping, but especially with hops of a strong quality and reddish colour; others have never good-flavoured ale, because they ferment it too warm. But it may be observed, that hardly any management will make ale always transparent at any given time; at least, not certainly, though it will be generally so in one year, at less than which age it ought not to be denominated *ale*. The method of fining, which has been already mentioned, will here assist the reader; and as it will generally improve the flavour and mellowness of the ale, it ought to be resorted to, at the year's end, by those who would excel in ale, whether it should appear to be wanted or not.

There is one other circumstance in regard to the management and keeping of ale, which has not been generally noticed, but which has been repeatedly tried by the writer of this article, and in several other instances within his knowledge; that is, the method called *marrying* ale, which seems to increase its strength, but especially its mellowness and the fullness of its flavour. This method is very simple, and needs only to be mentioned to be understood; it consists in tapping a pipe or hoghead of ale in the middle, and when it is drawn as low as the tap, to fill up the cask with another brewing of wort.

The particulars to be observed are these: to begin upon a *sound stock*, such as is approved as to colour and flavour; for if there be any approach to acidity it will not do. The next point is to turn the newly-fermented wort upon the old stock, when it has fermented about twelve hours. The third particular, of great importance, seems to be, not to marry your ale in winter, but in autumn (October), for if your cellar be not a vault the old stock is too chill, and the fermenta-

tion may suddenly stop; if this should happen, as in cellars that are not vaults, the heat may increase considerably in spring, the fermentation may be renewed, and the ale may spoil, or mischief happen to the cask by bursting. Ale that is brewed in the usual way will sometimes ferment in summer, and throw up the bungs of the barrels; especially if the fermentation have been hastily conducted, and little or no cleansing have taken place in the barrels after tunning (which is likely to be the case when brewing is performed in frosty weather); where this happens, the danger is that acidity will follow, and therefore the beer should be speedily used. When ale is married, the fermentation will bring away all the old hops, and it is not to be overlooked that the cork will rise that had been driven in with the tap. It is, therefore, requisite to work it out at the bung-hole, skimming away the hops, &c. till they and the cork are discharged; then fill up the cask, and take out the top cork for cleansing, as before. It may be filled up several times with fresh wort, as in other cases, until the fermentation stops, and then the cork and bung put in (the latter very lightly) and left so until it is necessary to hop it down. The writer of this has refilled a cask in this manner five years successively, and had the ale always superior, and always alike in colour and flavour; in continuing this practice for a long period it is necessary to remove the casks for fear of accidents.

Those who chuse to acquire a stock of ale thus improved, will find it as fit for use in six months as the other is in twelve; but it will generally require the same method of fining. The excellence of this ale is, that you can give no guess at its age; it drinks always soft and mild, without any resemblance to ale recently brewed, and equally remote from hardness or acidity. It is *cellar*, and full on the palate. In order to have it constantly, when once adopted, arrangements are easily made; and as most families use mild ale for the table, and perhaps inferior beverage for their business, two hogheads of this, one standing, and the other in tap, would be sufficient.

The above remarks, almost entirely founded on personal practice, will furnish all the essentials of good brewing. The subject is usually treated in relation to mercantile concerns, or large establishments, from which the general reader can learn little or nothing suitable to private life; for this reason, the whole of this article is rendered purposely popular; and that which is scientific will be found under the head of *BREWING*.

Some have thought that ale is more *wholesome* Water brewed from *hard* water; for "the mineral particles (generally iron) tend, it is said, to prevent the cohesion of those drawn from the grain, and enable them to pass the proper secretions the better." This is to explain "*ignotum per ignotum*," and can certainly prove nothing. It is thought that much drinking of ale, or other fermented liquors, may tend to produce gravelly complaints, and these seem likely to be promoted by mineral rather than soft waters. Ale brewed from either will be equally transparent; but river water is allowed to draw the malt better. The writer of this once brewed a hoghead of ale from *snow* water entirely (which is the purest that can be obtained), and it was as fine ale as could be made.

Some other notices respecting ale are inserted in former *Encyclopedias* which do not appear to be worth

Marrying
ale.

ALE.

ALE. transcribing. Among the rest is a secret said to be known in Staffordshire, of fining ale in a very short time. Plot conjectures it to be done by adding alum or vinegar in the working; but why this should be stated from conjecture, which could be so easily ascertained by experiment, it is hard to say: the porter brewers send *faings*, with the casks, when necessary: which are said to be made of small vinegar and isinglass, or sour beer with isinglass dissolved in it, as before. But their *sourings* are added, without any apprehension, to beer that will be very shortly used; and, when bronched, very rapidly drawn out; it is, besides, generally desirable in the trade, to have one butt in tap that is a little hard; but, in fermenting ale, it would be dangerous (and it is wholly unnecessary) to add vinegar to it. With regard to *slows*, a small quantity, perhaps, would do neither good nor harm, and, therefore, is as well omitted.

The next piece of information is as follows: "Some have a method of preparing ale, so that it will keep, carried to the East or West Indies. The secret is, by mashing twice with fresh malt; boiling twice; and,

after shipping it, putting to every five gallons two new-laid eggs (whole) to remain therein." If this be the secret, it is likely to remain undiscovered by this method of telling; conjecture may busy itself in supposing that the ale which has been once brewed and boiled, is to be used again to mash another like quantity of malt, and so boiled again with another like quantity of hops; but it does not appear that this could differ (at least not for the better) from ale that should be brewed of the same strength at one process. Certainly the stronger the ale is brewed, the more likely it is to keep; but the recipe of the new-laid eggs seems tantamount to a small quantity of sulphate of lime, with isinglass, as it is expressly said, that "the yolk remains untouched;" that is, undissolved; but this is hardly credible. It is obvious that mankind have as great a disposition to tell secrets as to learn them; and considering how important it is that our knowledge should be certain as well as useful, it is a misfortune that such crude information should be delivered with so much solemnity.

ALE.
ALEA

ALEA, as festivals, were, according to Warton (*Hist. of English Poetry*, vol. iii.), variously discriminated, as the bridal-ale, whitens-ale, lamb-ale, leet-ale, &c. But the church-ales, and clerk-ales, called sometimes the lesser church-ales, were amongst those authorised Sports which, at the period of the Reformation, produced great contention between Archbishop Laud and the puritans. The people, on the conclusion of afternoon prayers on Sundays, according to Bishop Pierce, in reply to Laud's inquiries, were in the habit of going "to their lawful sports and pastimes," in the church-yard, or neighbourhood, or in some public-house, to drink and make merry. By the benevolences of the people at their pastimes, it is added, many poor parishes have east them bells, beautified their churches, and raised stock for the poor. Sometimes these were held in honour of the tutelar saint of the church, or for the express purpose of raising contributions to its repair. **CLERK-ALES** were festivals for the assistance of the parish-clerk, with money or with good cheer, as an encouragement in his office: "and since these have been put down," says the prelate above quoted, "many ministers have complained to me that they are afraid they shall have no parish-clerks."

ALE-CORNER, an officer of the city of London, appointed by common-hall, whose duty it is to taste and judge of the quality of the ale sold within the jurisdiction of the city, and to regulate the ale-measures of the public-houses. There are four of these officers chosen every Midsummer day.

ALE-HOUSES, houses licenced yearly by the justices of peace of a county, or supreme magistrates of a city, for the sale of ale or beer. The occupiers of such houses are bound in recognizances that no riot or disorderly conduct shall take place in them; and their licences, upon misconduct, or the forfeiture of such recognizances, may be taken away, at the pleasure of the magistrates granting them. By 26 Geo. II. c. 41, justices, on granting licences, are to take recognizances in 10*l*. with sureties in the like amount, for the maintaining good order. Certificates of good character are to be

given before any new licence is granted; and the penalty for selling ale, &c. without licence is, by this and subsequent acts, fixed at 40*s*. for the first offence; for the second, 4*l*.; and the third, 6*l*. For suffering tipping in such house, they are to be fined 10*s*. At wakes or fairs, however, ale may still be sold indiscriminately, and without a licence. No persons, otherwise than as above mentioned, are to sell wine to be drunk in their own houses without an ale licence as well as a wine licence. But persons who sell ale or beer in casks not less than five gallons, and in bottles (reputed quarts) not less than two dozen, and not to be drunk in their own houses, are exempted from the penalties of retailing without a licence. By 48 Geo. III. c. 143, the stamp duties on ale licences are repealed, and excise duties, to be paid annually, granted on them in lieu thereof.

ALE MEASURES are to be regulated by the standard quart and pint preserved in his Majesty's exchequer; sub-commissioners and collectors of excise are to provide full and substantial ale quarts and pints in every town of their division, and the mayors or chief magistrates to mark the measures from the standard, or forfeit 5*l*. by stat. 1 Jac. I. c. 9. Ale house-keepers selling in short measures are exposed to a penalty of not less than 10*l*. and not more than 40*s*.

ALE SILVER, a rent or tribute paid annually by the ale house-keepers within the liberties of the city of London to the lord mayor of the city.

ALE-TASTER, a person appointed in every court-leet, sworn to taste and attend to the assize of the ale and beer sold within the precincts of the court.

ALEA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Arcadia, on its eastern border, situated south-east of Stymphalia. It was named after its founder Aleus, and the inhabitants had a voice in the councils of Argolis. Diana, Minerva (thence called Alea), and Bacchus, had each a temple here. At the festivals held in honour of the latter, women were beaten with scourges, agreeably to a command of the Delphian oracle, as boys were at Sparta, at the altar of Diana Orthia. The temple of Minerva was the only relic in Strabo's time of these

ALBA.
—
ALECTO.
ROMAN-
TIA.

edifices; the ivory statue of the goddess was conveyed by Augustus to Rome. PAUS. lib. viii. cap. 23. STRABO, lib. viii.

ALEA, in Roman Antiquity, games of hazard played with dice, of which two sorts were in use; the tesserae, or cube, having its six sides marked from one to six; and the talus, of an oblong form, of which the four long sides only were marked; one side having one point on it, the opposite six points, and the other two sides four and three. In playing, three tesserae, or four tali were used, which, after being shaken in the dice box, called *frutillas*, were, to guard the better against fraud, thrown through another box, the *pyrgus* or *truccula*, in the form of a tower, placed on the middle of the board. Some writers, however, consider the *frutillas* and the *pyrgus* as the same box. The highest cast was of the tesserae, three sixes, and of the tali, when all four came up different. It was named *Venus*, or *Veneris Jactus*. The Cornelian, Publician, and Titian laws were passed to prohibit all games of chance (which in them seem to be comprehended under the general title of *alea*), except in the month of December, when the Saturnalia were celebrated. But it is supposed by some authors, that they were designed only to restrain the cupidity of professed gamblers, who were held in infamy; or these laws do not seem to have been generally regarded; and the Roman emperors countenanced dice-playing by their own example. All gaming was expressly forbidden in the army. CICERO de Senect. cap. 16; de Divinat. l. i. c. 13; Suet. Vit. Aug. cap. 17; DION CASS. l. lix. c. 22; MART. lib. xiv. ep. 14; and lib. v. ep. 85; HON. lib. iii. od. 24; JUV. Sat. xiv. v. 4. The *Aleatorium* was the place where the *alea* were played.

ALECTO, in Mythology (from *aleo* a priv. and *αλγω*, to rest), one of the three Furies. Virgil, *Æn.* lib. vii. v. 323, introduces Alecto exciting the flames of war, at the instigation of the implacable Juno, between the Latins and the Trojans. He describes her as having her hair and her dark wings covered with writhing snakes, whose poison she infuses into her victims, till she infects them with ungovernable rage. So malignant was this divinity, that she was the abhorrence of Pluto, her father, and of her sister Furies. From Cocytus, a river of hell, she is called *Cocytia Virgo*.

ALECTORIA (from *aleo*, a cock), in Ornithology, a name given to a stone, found sometimes in the stomach, liver, or gall-bladder, of old cocks; it is now generally thought to be swallowed rather than generated there.

ALECTOROMANTIA (from *aleo*, a cock, and *μαντεια*, divination), in Antiquity, a kind of divination with a cock, thus effected: Having written in the dust the twenty-four letters of the alphabet, and laid a grain of corn on each of them, the party divining let loose a cock amongst them, and those letters out of which he picked the grains, being joined together, were thought to give the information required. It is said, though the story is doubted, that the magician Jamblicus used this art to discover the person who should succeed Valens Cæsar in the empire, but the bird picking up but four of the grains, those which lay on the letters *θ*, *ε*, *α*, *ν*, left it uncertain whether Theodosius, Theodotus, Theodoros, or Theodectes, were the person designed. Valens, however, learning what had been done, put to death several individuals whose names

VOL. XVII.

unhappily began with those letters, and the magician, ALECTO, to avoid the effects of his resentment, took a draught of poison. A kind of electromania was also sometimes practised upon the crowing of the cock, and the periods at which it was heard.

ALECTRA, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Didymnia, order Angiosperma.

ALECTRIDES, in Ornithology, according to Cuvier, a family of birds of the order Gullinacæ, which have wings adapted for flight.

A-LEE, a sea phrase applied to the position of the helm, when pushed to the lee side of the ship, in order to lay her head to the wind, or put the ship about.

ALEGGE, } A. S. *Alægan*, *Legcan*, to lay, to
ALEO'rance, } lay down. The modern word is *Alley*
ALEO'MENT. } (the *g* softened into *y*.)

To lay down; to put down; to put to rest, to quiet, to settle, to tranquillize.

po he was jrount kyng at Westmestre y wys,
his byhet God & put folk an byhetre, pat was wys.
To alege alle leper lowes, pat yholde were bysore,
And betere mak þan were suppe he was þiore.

R. Gloucester, p. 477.

It would have brought my life againe
For certes cruelly, I dare well saie
The night only and the saoure
Alleged much of my langour

Chaucer. The Remount of the Rose, f. 154. c. 3.

Sore I complained that my sore
On na gun greuen more and more
I had some hope of alleguance. Id. lb. f. 125. c. 1.

Now were they casle, now were they wood
In hem I felt both harme and good
Now sore without alleguance
Now softing with synnynge. Id. lb. f. 125. c. 2.

Thomas, why sitte we sore,
As verren overment with weare,
Upon so fayre a mowen?

The loyous time now nighteth fast,
That shall alege this bitter blast,
And slake the winter snow.

Spenser's Shepherds Calendar. March.

His feeling wordes her feble sense much pleased,
And softly suckt into her mother brest;
Hart, that is inly hurt, is greatly eased
With hope of thing that may alege his smart.

Id. Faerie Queene, book iii. c. ii.

But hurt his hart, the which before was sound,
Through an envious dart which did rebound
From her false eyes and gracious countenance.
What bootes it him from death to be unhound,
To be captivated in endless durstace
Of sorrow and despayre without alleguance?

Id. lb. book iii. c. v.

ALEGER. It. Allegro. Lat. *Alacer*, *alacris*, *alacro*, *alacro*, *alegro*, *allegro*. Menage.

Coffee, the root and leaf-belle, and leaf-to-bacco, of which the
Turks are great takers, do all condense the spirits, and make them
strong and aleger. Bacon. Nat. Hist.

ALEGER (from *ale* and *aigre*, Fr. sour), or ALE-SOUR, a liquor made from ale or beer, turned acid by fermentation. It is remarkable that Egypt, never famous as a wine country, manufactured at Pharos what has been considered the strongest vinegar of antiquity. In this liquor Cleopatra dissolved the pearl before Anthony, which common vinegar could not have effected,

—Fleible anti;

Sirelput elia, Pharioque mudentis aceto;

and it may be questioned, whether this were not as likely to be a preparation from their barley, in which

ALEGER. the country abounded, as from their few and ill-cultivated vines.

—
ALEM-
BIC.

ALRIUS CAMPUS, in Ancient Geography, a plain of Cilicia, lying between the rivers Pyraus and Sarus. It is celebrated for being the spot on which Bellerophon fell when thrown from the horse Pegasus, and over which he wandered till his death; expressive of which event, it is supposed the plain took its name from *alæoni*, to wander. STRABO, lib. xiv. HOMER *Il.* l. vi. v. 201.

ALEMANNIA, or ALAMANNIA, in Ancient Geography, a name of Germany, acquired from the Alemanni, who, during the decline of the Roman empire, were among its most active enemies. This name, however, does not seem to have been applied to the whole of Germany; though in the French language it has given birth to Allemagne, now applied to the whole of this part of the continent.

ALEMANNI, or ALAMANNI, in Ancient Geography, the name of a great body of people, who, about the beginning of the third century of the Christian era, took possession of that part of Germany now called Suabia, from which the Marcomanni, in the reign of Augustus, had retired toward Bohemia. Their name, Alemanni, signifies, in the old Teutonic language, All-men, or men of all nations, and indicated their bravery, and the variety of tribes of which they were composed. This is the interpretation also given by a Roman historian cited by Suidas. The greater part of the Alemanni came from the north of Germany, and were of the nation of the Suevi. The first notice of them which appears in history, is to be found in Spartian, *Cura.* cap. 10, who mentions, that Caracalla defeated them in the year 214, A. D. and took the title of Alemannicus. From this period they continue, during the decline of the empire, to make a prominent figure in its history, harassing and weakening the Roman power by their continual incursions into Italy, and the provinces of Gaul bordering on the Rhine. Though generally defeated in the battles which ensued, yet their vast population, unengaged in the arts of peace, enabled them, with the aid of the Juthungi, who were leagued with them against Rome, incessantly to repeat their aggressions. The country which was considered their proper possession lay between the Rhine, the Maine, and the Danube; but they took every opportunity to extend their dominion; wrested from its inhabitants the northern portion of Helvetia, over-ran the modern provinces of Alsace and Lorraine, in France, and even spread themselves as far north as Cologne, near which, at the town of Tolbiac (now Zulpich), their power received a mortal blow from the Franks, under Clovis, A. D. 496. The character of the Alemanni was warlike; they were barbarous in their manners, regardless of treaties, and given to plunder. Their love of liberty was so great, that Dion Cassius, lib. lxxvii. cap. 14. relates of them that they destroyed themselves, and even their children, when sold into bondage. Their government appears to have been monarchical, and the best account of their inroads upon the empire of Rome, is to be found in various parts of Ammianus Marcellinus.

ALEMBIC, in Chemistry, a vessel formerly much used in the laboratory, but now altogether superseded

by the retort and still. The lower part of this instrument, which held the substances to be operated upon in distillation, was, from its curved shape, called the *cucurbit*; the upper part was called the head, and was fitted into a receiver.

ALEMBROTH, Salt of, in the writings of the alchemists, a sort of fixed alkaline salt, which is said to have had the power of dissolving substances, and opening the pores of almost all bodies. The term is still retained in our chemical nomenclature, and applied to corrosive mercurial muriate, united with rusted ammonia.

ALENCON, a large and ancient town of France, in Lower Normandy. It is the capital of the department of the Orne, 35 miles distant from Paris, and 16 from Caen. The population, according to a late census, amounts to 13,234. The town itself is not very large; but the suburbs of St. Blaise, Casau, La Barre, Lancel, and Moustur, add greatly to its magnitude and importance. Indeed, the last-named of these suburbs is larger than the town itself. Alençon was formerly fortified, and has always occupied a very important portion of the French civil and military history, the names of several dukes of Alençon being familiar to every one acquainted with the annals of this nation. Though the outworks are at present destroyed, the four gates remain, as also the ancient castle, which has a curious square tower of 150 feet in height. This town partook considerably of the troubles and dilapidations of the revolution, in its numerous religious houses, hospitals, and other pious and benevolent foundations. It is at present remarkable for its manufactures of linen, stockings, hats, and point-lace. There are also several tanneries, glass-houses, and smelting-houses. It has a tribunal of the first instance, and is altogether one of the most flourishing towns of Normandy. There are some quarries in the vicinity which yield a beautiful stone, that has been called the Alençon diamond.

ALENTEJO, a province of Portugal, situated, as its name imports, "beyond the Tagus." It is the largest province of this peninsula, and is bounded on the N. by Estremadura and Beira, on the E. by the Spanish frontier, on the S. by Algarve, and on the W. by the Atlantic. It occupies an area of 108 miles, and contains four cities and one hundred and five towns. The population amounts to about 34,000 inhabitants. Oranges, oils, and wine, are produced in abundance in this province; there are also several quarries of marble. The town of Évora is the capital.

ALEPH (א), in Philology, the first of the Hebrew letters, corresponding in name, order, and power, with the alpha of the Greeks, who derived their alphabet, according to Herodotus, from the Phœnicians; and the latter, it is well known, spoke a dialect of the Hebrew. "The Phœnicians, who came with Cadmus, as they brought other learning into Greece, so also letters, which the Greeks had not before." Herod. l. v. cap. 58. And Diodorus, lib. v. tells us expressly that "the Phœnicians received their letters from the Syrians." "By the Syrians," adds Eusebius (*De Prepar. Evang.* lib. x.) "it meant the Hebrews." See ALPHA and ALPHABET.

ALEM-
BIC.

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ALEPH

A L E P P O.

ALEPPO. The capital of Syria, the residence of the pacha, and, in point of importance, inferior only to Constantinople and Cairo; to both of which, however, it is superior in the elegance of its buildings and the salubrity of its situation. It is called, in the Arabic language, *Halch*, to which is commonly added the term *Al Shakh*, the latter term denoting a variegated grey and white colour, which is believed to refer to the appearance of the buildings and the soil.

Situation. The situation of Aleppo is in N. lat. 36°, 11', 25', E. lon. from Greenwich 57°, 10', 15', considerably elevated above the level of the sea, and at the distance of about 60 or 70 miles in a direct line from Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, the nearest sea-port. It is most probably the Berrera of the Greeks, though some have imagined it to be the Zobah of Scripture. The reader may consult, on this point, Bochart, *Geog. Sacr.* col. 79. Procopius, *Bell. Persic.* b. ii. c. 7. and *Jur. Græco Rom.* p. 292. There is another town in ruins, about fifteen miles distant to the south, sometimes called Old Aleppo, and by the Turks and Arabs, Kinnaareen, to which the honours of this site have been frequently ascribed.

Aleppo is surrounded, at the distance of a few miles, with low hills, which have a barren appearance, being destitute of trees; but they furnish pasture for sheep and goats. Still inferior hills are included within this circle, perpetually intersected by vallies and plains. The river Kowick is in general an insignificant stream at Aleppo, and slow in its current, but in winter it sometimes swells into a considerable river. The city is raised upon eight small hills of varying altitude, which, with the intermediate vallies, and an extent of flat ground, comprise a circuit of seven miles: the city itself, however, ought not properly to be estimated at more than three miles and a half in circumference. It is surrounded by an ancient wall, probably formed by the Mameluke princes, which is now rapidly decaying. This is flanked by towers, but the fosse is either occupied by gardens or filled up with rubbish, and is, consequently, incapable of affording any defence against military operations. It has nine gates: at one of them, on the north, lamps are kept perpetually burning, in commemoration of the prophet Elisha, who is said to have once had his residence here. The castle is situated on the loftiest of the eminences already mentioned, on the north-east side of the city; it is enclosed within a broad and deep ditch, which the Turks consider as rendering it impregnable. From the south it is entered by a bridge of seven arches. At the summit of the hill is a reservoir of great depth, from which the water is raised by a wheel, and is thought to be derived from a spring situated at the distance of five miles. The only real use of the castle, where a garrison is constantly kept, is to form a military depot, and, perhaps, in some degree to overawe the citizens.

General appearance. At a distance, this city, like many others in the east, assumes a fine appearance, in consequence of the numerous mosques, minarets, cupolas, and flat-roofed

houses, which rise in regular gradations above each other on the sides of the hills, and are interspersed with cypress and poplar trees. The anticipations of the traveller, however, are much disappointed upon his entrance into the place, for, although, as we have remarked, Aleppo is superior to most, if not all the other cities of the Ottoman empire, in its construction, the streets are still gloomy, and appear narrower than they are in reality, in consequence of the disproportionate height of the stone walls on either side, which have few windows, and those guarded with lattices. Still some of the streets are spacious, and well paved, having two raised footpaths. In some places also a beautiful vista is found by looking through several arches in succession. The houses are in general spacious, and furnished with terraces, and frequently sky-lights, in the form of a dome. During the summer, the inhabitants sleep on these terraces, which are separated by parapet walls. From the equal elevation of the terraces and doors of communication which the Franks have made, a considerable circuit may be made without descending into the streets; the Turks, however, are not very fond of this kind of communication, and often raise their walls to such a height as to prevent it. The palace of the pacha is large, with gates of great dimensions and magnificence; the state apartments are well lighted, spacious, and ornamented with paintings; the rest are without taste. In general, this city is more cleanly than others in Turkey, ass-drivers going about to collect the dust and rubbish, which every inhabitant is required to sweep together in little heaps.

Mosques are numerous, but none of them have more than one minaret, or steeple, to summon the people to prayers. The mosques are built of freestone, with a dome in the centre, covered with lead. They have each a paved area in front, having a fountain in the middle to supply water for ablutions before prayers, and behind some of them are small gardens. The Greeks, Armenians, Syrians, and Maronites have each a church. The city contains a number of large khans, Khan, or caravansaries, which are buildings of a quadrangular form, of one story in height, having rooms, which serve as chambers, warehouses, and stables, for the accommodation of strangers. Above is a gallery or colonade, from which you enter, by doors, into various rooms, apportioned to merchants, as well as visitors, for the transaction of business. The bazars, or market-places, are stone buildings, resembling a long gallery, arched or roofed with wood, where small shops are replenished with goods, each different kind of business having a distinct bazar, which is locked up, as well as the streets, after sun-set. There are also coffee-houses, some of which are very handsome, with fountains, and galleries for musicians; and several hammams, or public baths.

Wood and charcoal are used at Aleppo for fuel, the former of which is cheap, though brought on camels from the mountains. Little fuel is made use of, except

ALEPPO.

Houses.

Mosques.

Bazars

ALEPPO. in the kitchens. The mode of heating the bagnios render them an absolute nuisance: the dung of animals, the parings of fruit, the refuse of stables, and offals of every description being employed for the purpose. Camel and sheep's dung, with brushwood, or the stalks of different kinds of plants which grow in the desert, are more commonly used for fuel. Cow-dung is resorted to by the peasants, not only for fuel, but for forming a sort of pan, in which they and the Arabs frequently fry their eggs.

Manufactures, &c. On the south-west of the city are several lime-kilns, and a manufactory of catgut. On the opposite side of the river, to the westward, is a glass-house for making coarse white glass in the winter. There is likewise a tannery near the river, to the south-west of the city. There is no public burial-ground within the walls, but many without, of great extent, whose white tombs and stones forcibly strike the attention.

Vicinity. At the distance of about eight miles northward, near a village called Heylan, there are two springs, from which this city obtains a plentiful supply of water, which is conveyed by means of an aqueduct, mostly open, but partly subterraneous, and is distributed by earthen or leaden pipes to the gardens, fountains, baths, and private houses. The gardens, both along the banks of the aqueduct, and of the river Kowiek, are numerous, and extend many miles. They are subdivided within these enclosures into fields of different dimensions and shapes, bordered with trees and shrubs. Within these enclosures apples, melons, cucumbers, and various roots, are cultivated, besides cotton, tobacco, palma christi, and lincera: in some places barley. There are also plantations of pomegranates, plum and cherry trees, and other fruits of the country. Several considerable quarries are worked in the vicinity of the city, containing a gritty stone, which becomes hard by exposure to the atmosphere: in some of the more ancient of these quarries are subterraneous passages, in which the Bedoween Arabs take up their abode during winter. The Aleppo marble is of a yellow colour, but it is made to resemble the red marble of Damascus, by rubbing it with oil, and heating it in a moderate oven. The valley of salt, as it is termed, eighteen miles distant, supplies the city with that invaluable commodity.

Climate. The climate of Aleppo may be characterized as, upon the whole, mild. The heat, indeed, is great during the summer months of July and August, though it is generally moderated by westerly breezes. But it is intense when the wind proceeds from the north-north-west, east, north-east, or south-east, and all the inhabitants, both native and foreign, are then oppressed with an excessive lassitude. In general, the air of Aleppo is dry, piercing, and salubrious. The spring commences in the early part of the month of February, about the middle of which the almond-tree blossoms, and the fields become clothed in verdure. In May the corn ripens rapidly into harvest. Refreshing showers fell in the beginning of June, after which drought prevails till the middle of September. From about the close of May to this time the inhabitants usually sleep on their terraces, without sustaining any injury. The severest part of the year is from the middle of December to the latter end of January, when frost is common, though snow is comparatively rare. Thunder storms are sometimes experienced in the spring and autumn:

in the latter period lightning, unaccompanied with ALEPPO. thunder, is common. Aleppo is also subject to frequent, but by no means dangerous, earthquakes. Ploughing is the occupation of September, and is performed by one or two small cows, or a single ass: the earliest wheat is committed to the soil in October, and barley is sown as late as February. The barley harvest is in May, and early in June the corn is entirely gathered. It is separated from the chaff by means of a sledge, fixed on two or three rollers, and armed with iron rings, with serrated edges, sharp enough to cut the straw; the machine being drawn by oxen, mules, or asses, and driven by a man seated on a sledge, the straw is thus chopped, and the corn trodden out. It is at length thrown together in a heap, and divided between the busbandman and the landlord, in a certain stipulated proportion. The granaries consist of subterraneous grottos, with an opening at top, which is covered over with earth, as a protection, when the cavity is filled. The corn is chiefly ground in mills, by mules; there are, however, a few water-mills on the river, and the lower class of people make use of hand-mills.

Trade is carried on in Aleppo to a very considerable Trade. extent, both by Christians and Mahometans. Four caravans proceed annually through Natioia to Constantinople, and others arrive from Bagdad and Bassora, with coffee and India muslins and shawls. The Turks carry on the trade of India, Asia Minor, Constantinople, and Egypt. The exports are cloth, from Antioch, Merdin, and other places; osanburghs, from Aleppo and Damascus; and printed cottons, from Diarbekir; galls, drugs, and various other articles. The imports are considerable; cloths, Lyonsese stuffs, and bonnets, from Europe; merceries, indigo, tea, sugar, paper, soap, and numerous coral ornaments. Commerce with Europe has of late years much declined, and the European establishments in the city consequently reduced.

The inhabitants of Aleppo consist chiefly of Turks Population. and Arabs; many among them, to the amount, perhaps, of four thousand, claim descent from Mahomet, and wear their dress intermixed with green, as a token of this distinction. They are not at present held in very high esteem, owing to their superciliousness and contentious spirit, although, formerly, they were greatly revered, and any injury done to them was severely punished. The extent of the population is variously estimated. Dr. Russell, whose calculations ought probably to be most relied upon, states it at 235,000, of which 200,000 are Turks, 30,000 Christians, and 5000 Jews. The population of this place and neighbourhood is thought to be on the decline; many adjacent villages are deserted, in consequence of the exactions practised on their inhabitants by a despotic and oppressive government. The domestic servants are nearly all Armenians.

Generally speaking, the inhabitants of Aleppo are Manners and sedentary in their mode of life and habits, and are somewhat addicted to amusements; not at all disposed to exercise. The men frequent the coffee-houses, where they are entertained with music and dramatic representations. The women often attend the baths, where persons of every class in society are admitted, in an indiscriminate manner, till they are full. At these places music and refreshments are provided, parties of

ALEPPO. pleasure formed, and all the splendour of attire that can be mustered is brought into view. Women are never seen in the streets after dusk, and at no time unveiled. They are always particularly anxious to keep the crown of the head covered, which scarcely any consideration can induce them to bare. Though society is deemed the most polished here of any part in the Turkish dominions, the females are said to be addicted to intrigue, whenever it can be secretly conducted.

There is a disease peculiar to Aleppo, called the

mal d'Aleppo, consisting of a troublesome eruption, which commonly leaves behind a scar. It is thought by some to arise from the quality of the water. Their most terrible visitor, however, is the plague, which infects the inhabitants at regular intervals of about ten years. Sometimes immense multitudes perish: but Europeans are less susceptible both of this and the ordinary diseases of the country. Consult *RUSSEL'S Natural History of Aleppo*; also the travellers, *TAVERNIER*, *POCOCK*, &c.

ALEPPO.
ALETIS.

ALERIA, formerly *Golo*, a town situated on the eastern side of the island of Corsica, about 25 miles E. of Corte.

ALERION or **ALLERION**, in Heraldry, an eagle without feet or beak, and with wings expanded; in this latter point alone an alerion differs from a martlet, the wings of which are closed.

ALERT. } It. All'erta, al'erta, past parti-
ALERTNESS. } ciple of the Lat. *Erigero*; Ital.
Erigere (Tooke): to erect, to raise up.
Keined up, upon the watch, in readiness for action;
and therefore active, vigilant, lively.

This n-bill nymphs maid reverence,
With gesture lively and sly;
And e'er their obedienc,
Her grace pass to an odder point.

Burlet in Schöb's Chronicle, v. lib. p. 470.

A title of that elation and unconcern in the common actions of life, which is usually so stolid among gentlemen of the army, and which a campaign or two would infallibly have given him.

Spectator, N° 566.

Not such the alert and active; measure life
By its true worth, the comfort it affords,
And their's alone seems worthy of the name.

Cooper's Task.

The mountain-torrents on every side rushed down the hills in notes of various cadence, as their quantities of water, the declivities of their fall, their distances, or the intermission of the blast, brought the sound fuller, or fainter to the ear; which organ became now more alert.

Gilpin's Tour in the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

ALESA, **ALESA**, or **HALESA**, in Ancient Geography, a town of Sicily, situated on the Tuscan sea, about 70 miles west from Massana, founded, as Diodorus relates, by Archonides of Herbita, in the year a. c. 403. It was built on an eminence about a mile inland, and was washed by the Alesas. In course of time it rose to opulence by its maritime enterprise, and by a freedom from taxes granted it by the Romans. It was called, from its founder, Alesa Archonidis, to distinguish it from other towns of Sicily named Alesa. Diod. l. xiv. Solinus, *Polyhist.* cap. xi. speaks of a fountain in its neighbourhood, whose waters, at the tones of a flute, were raised up, and, as if delighted with the music, swelled over the margin of the fountain.

ALESBURY. See **AILESBUERY**.

ALESHAM, or **AYLESHAM**, a town of Norfolk, on the Thyrn, 121 miles from London, and 12 miles N. E. from Norwich, carrying on a considerable stocking manufactory. There is a mineral spring of some note a mile from the town.

ALESIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of the Mandubii, in Gaul. According to Diodorus, lib. iv. its antiquity was very great, being built by Hercules, when on his return from Spain, and called, from the nature of his warfare, Alesia, from *αλεω*, wandering.

The hero chose for its site a lofty hill, which, according to Cæsar's description, was defended by others at a short distance from it, except on the east, where was a plain of about three miles in extent. Its strength was further increased by two rivers, which washed the foot of the hill.

Vercingetorix, in whose influence and warlike temper Cæsar found the most formidable obstacle to his subjugation of Gaul, after many defeats, threw himself into this city, and drew to its defence a force amounting 240,000 infantry and 8000 cavalry. Diodorus says, that Alesia, up to this period, had never been entered by an enemy, and was, in his time, regarded by the nations of Celtic Gaul as the chief place of their country. It was surrendered to Cæsar, after a brave defence, a. c. 53. Cæsar de *Bel. Gal.* lib. 7. c. lxi. et seq.; Strabo, lib. 4. Pliny, lib. 34. c. xlviii. (edit. Hard), describes the art of silver-plating for the ornaments of horses, as first practiced here. Near the spot where Alesia stood is now Alise, in the department of Cote d'Or.

ALESÆUM, in Ancient Geography, an inland town of Elis, on the road from the city of that name to Olympian. When Pisa was in existence, Alesæum was dependent upon it. STRABO, lib. 8.

ALESSANDRIA, a fortified town of Italy, on the east bank of the Tanaro. It is a bishop's see, belonging to the archiepiscopal diocese of Turin. Alessandria is a very large and populous town, containing numerous churches, colleges, and religious houses. In 1806 the population was 35,216 inhabitants. The town owes its origin to the Lombard league against the Emperor Frederic I. in the twelfth century. It has been repeatedly subject to military attacks, particularly in the year 1706, and more recently during the late French invasion of the Italian states, under Bonaparte. From the year 1796 to 1799, it was in the hands of the French, but subsequently was possessed by the Austrian and Russian forces. The following year, however, in consequence of the famous battle of Marengo, a village in the immediate neighbourhood of this citadel, it was once more occupied by the French invaders, who held it till the year 1814, when it devolved, with other places, to the king of Sardinia, and has since been greatly strengthened. Alessandria is 38 miles from Milan, and 44 from Turin.

ALESSIO, **ALES**, or **LESSIO**, a town of the Ngege, in Albanian, 12 miles from Durazzo. E. lon. 19° 36'. N. lat. 42° 12'.

ALETIS, in Antiquity, a festival celebrated by the Athenians, to appease the shades of Erigone, who, after having discovered, by means of his faithful dog, the place where her father, Icarus, had been buried by his murderers, hung herself, and prayed the gods that

ALETIS.
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ALEU-
TIAN
ISLANDS.

unless the Athenians avenged her father's death, their virgins might end their lives as she had done. This imprecation being fulfilled, in the self-destruction to which many of the Athenian girls devoted themselves without apparent cause, this festival was instituted to avert the calamity. Hyginus, *Astron.* lib. ii. The solemnity was called Aletis, from *ἀλεῖν*, to wander, which Erigone did in search of her father's body, and also *ἀλεῖν*, from *ἀλεῖν*, to hang.

ALETIS, or ALETUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, of the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

ALEURITES, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Monocotyledon, and order Monadelphina.

ALEUROMANTIA, in Antiquity, from *ἀλεῖν*, meal, and *μαντεῖν*, divination; a method of divination in which predictions were made from the meal with which the victim was besprinkled.

ALEUTIAN, ALEUTIC, or ALEUTIC ISLANDS, a name which has been given, principally by Russian navigators, to a considerable chain of islands, extending from the promontory of Alaschka, in North America, to Kamtschatka, in Asiatic Russia. They are between forty and fifty in number, and are now understood to include what were generally known in our English geographical works by the name of the Fox islands, Behring's and Copper islands, and the group formerly divided into the Aleutian and Amurevian isles. Behring's and Copper islands are still excluded from this denomination by some writers, but the whole chain of these islands is so evidently connected, and they appear alike to be but a continuation of the immense mountains of the neighbouring continents, that we shall find it most convenient and consistent to consider them under this one appellation. The Russian term *aleut* signifies a bold projecting rock. In this extended view of them, these islands are scattered over that portion of the Northern Pacific, nearly 1,500 leagues in circuit, communicating with the Northern ocean by Behring's straits. All the settlements that have been formed upon them belong to Russia, to whom must be accorded the honour of their first discovery.

Discovery
of Behring's
Island, &c.

As early as the year 1725, in the declining years of Peter the Great, orders were issued for an expedition of discovery to be dispatched to this region, under the command of an officer named Behring, who, after two unsuccessful voyages, was entrusted on a third by the Empress Anne, in 1741, when he reached the opposite coast of America, between the 58th and 59th degrees of latitude, and was driven by a storm in returning, on the island which now bears his name. Some of his companions being driven to the south-east, discovered the more easterly of these islands, which form the beginning of the chain from the American promontory. They were found to abound in sea otters, and other animals yielding valuable furs, which, in 1745, attracting the attention of the Russian government, a settlement was attempted to be made on one of them, but from the folly and rapacity of its directors, it was obliged to be abandoned in the following year. From this period to the year 1768, private adventurers enriched themselves by various enterprises in this direction, and the central group, generally called the Andreonvian isles (from the St. Andrean, one of the vessels which discovered them), became known to the Russian navigators in 1764. In 1768, Messrs. Krenitzin and Levashof sailed from

The An-
dreonvian
group.

Kamtschatka, under the orders of the Empress Catharine, to explore the whole chain of these islands, and seem to have acquired themselves with far greater credit to the Russian government than any of their predecessors. The indefatigable Captain Cook followed them, in 1778, and devoted a considerable portion of his attention in his last voyage to the eastern parts of this archipelago. Various Russian expeditions have since been dispatched hither, and ample details of the present state of these islands are at last afforded us.

ALEU-
TIAN
ISLANDS.

The most eastern group, originally called the Fox Islands (from the many foxes that have been always found here), appear still to be the most important and the best inhabited. The centre of them lies in N. lat. 59°, 30'. W. lon. 28°, according to Captain Cook. The principal are Unmak, Unalaska, called by Captain Cook Oonalashka, and Unimak (near which, to the north-east, is Kadyak, or Kodick, sometimes called one of Schunagin's islands), and on the east the promontory of Alaschka. Evident traces of a volcanic origin appear on the whole of these islands; and in some of them small, but active volcanoes remain. A few carmelots and sardonyxes have been found here, but no species of metal, and little wood. The soil is generally barren and rocky, producing a scanty supply of vegetables, and wild edible berries and roots; but, for the high degree of latitude, the climate is exceedingly mild. Wolves, bears, foxes, river otters, river beavers, and ermines, abound on most of the islands, but the sea otter has become comparatively scarce; the finest salmon are caught on the shores, and halibut of an extraordinary size; seals, dolphins, and whales, and sometimes the sea lion, are seen in the neighbouring seas. Oonalashka, or Unalaska, is from fifty to sixty English miles in length, but of unequal breadth. Captain Cook anchored in a harbour called by the natives Samanoodha, on the north side of this island, and the only one with safe anchorage which he could find in the group; but he found Russian settlements on the principal islands of all this chain. The natives

Natives.

he describes as having their own chiefs throughout the island, as appearing to enjoy the utmost liberty, and to exhibit a degree of civilization unusual in these seas. They are generally of low stature, but stout and well shaped; they have dark eyes, small beards, and long straight black hair, which the men wear loose behind, but the women tie up in a large fold. The sexes dress nearly alike, except in the materials of Dress. their clothing; the frock of the women being made of seal-skin, and that of the men of the skin of birds; but both only reaching from the shoulders to just below the knee. This frock is the only dress of the women, but the men wear another over it, occasionally, made of the entrails of animals, which will resist water, and has a hood attached to it, to draw up and tie under the chin. They have also a kind of oval-shaped cap, made of wood, with a rim, to fit the head. Some of them wear boots, and they are fond of ornamenting the rims of their caps, or wooden hats, with the long bristles of the sea animals taken on the shore, on which they string glass beads, fixing in front small bone images. The women puncture their faces slightly, but never paint: to the under lip, which is bored for the purpose, pieces of bone are suspended for ornament; the men also bore the under lip; but Cook says, it was as uncommon at Oonalashka to see a man with this

Oomalashka.

ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

Food.

ornament as to see a woman without it. Later travellers describe the use of this ornament as much decreased. Some of the women fix beads to the upper lip and the nostrils, and all of them to the ears; they are found also of bracelets of beads on the wrists and ankles. Their food consists of fish, sea animals, birds, roots, berries, and sometimes even of sea-weed. Large quantities of fish are dried in summer; but they generally eat their food very slightly cooked, and, until lately, quite raw. "I was once present," says Captain Cook, "when the chief of *Onalashka* made his dinner of the raw head of a large halibut, just caught. Before any was given to the chief, two of his servants ate the gills without any other dressing besides squeezing out the slime. This done, one of them cut off the head of the fish, took it to the sea and washed it, then came with it, and sat down by the chief; first pulling up some grass, upon a part of which the head was laid, and the rest was strewn before the chief. He then cut large pieces of the cheeks, and laid these within the reach of the great man, who swallowed them with as much satisfaction as we should do raw oysters. When he had done, the remains of the head were cut in pieces, and given to the attendants, who tore off the meat with their teeth, and gnawed the bones like so many dogs."

Houses.

Their intercourse with the Russians appears to have ameliorated much of the manners of these islanders. The potatoes have lately been introduced here with some success. Their houses consist of a square pit, not more than about fifty feet long by twenty wide, covered by the best wooden roof they can procure, on which they afterwards lay grass and earth, so that the whole has the appearance of a large grave. In the middle of the roof, at one end, is an opening for the light, and at the other a similar one for a door, through which they descend by steps cut in the earth, or a ladder, according to their circumstances. Some, but not many, of their houses have another entrance below; round the sides of this excavation apartments and niches for various purposes are cut, and various divisions made in the open space by dried seal-skins and mats to cover the earth. The centre Capt. Cook describes as a receptacle for every kind of filth. Amongst their household furniture he found bowls, spoons, buckets, cans, matted baskets, and the Russian kettle, or pot, all very neatly formed; though they appeared to possess no other tools than the knife and hatchet. They have fewer instruments of iron, indeed, than any other of the neighbouring American tribes, and seemed only to wish for it to make better sewing needles; these are made of the bone of various fish, and their thread of the divided sinews of the seal; all the sewing being performed by the women, who are the tailors, shoemakers, boat-coverers, and basket-makers of the islands. The baskets, made of long grass, evince much ingenuity.

Household utensils.

Their houses, which have no fire places, are heated and lighted by lamps, made out of flat stones, hollowed on one side in the shape of our English dinner plates, and nearly of the same size, in which they put the oil, mixed with dry grass, which serves as a wick. They produce fire by two methods, common to many uncivilized parts of the world, either by striking two stones one against another, having previously rubbed one of them with hematite; or with two pieces of wood, one of which is pointed, and the other flat. The pointed piece they twist quickly round on the other, in the

manner in which our carpenters use a drill, and fire is produced in a few minutes.

Of the religion of these islands none of the various navigators have furnished us with any details. Capt. Cooke declares, that he could discover nothing which gave him any indications of their notions of a deity; and subsequent writers speak only of their being addicted to a superstitious observation of charms and omens, and of their nominal conformity to the ceremonies of the Greek church, since their closer connection with Russia. Their morals appear to be exceedingly loose; no marriage ceremony is known amongst them; and the men, after taking as many wives as they please, can send them back to their parents on any change of their circumstances or inclinations. Unnatural crimes, too, are of frequent occurrence here.

ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

Religion and morals.

They bury their dead, with great decency, in some common receptacle, generally on the tops of hills, and raising little hillocks of stone over them; our enterprising navigator saw several of these memorials, which appeared of great antiquity, and observed a simple method of expressing attachment, or respect in some cases, by every one dropping a stone as they passed certain graves. They formerly were in the habit of depositing some food, their principal weapons, and clothes, in their graves with the dead, and sometimes slaughtered the slaves of the deceased at the funeral; but these customs are said to have been utterly discontinued.

Treatment of their dead.

Hunting and fishing are the chief occupations of all the Aleutian tribes. The missile dart, which is used in both these pursuits, is almost the only weapon of any kind seen amongst them, and is rarely or never applied to any other purpose. It is exceedingly neat in its appearance, and well contrived for its various objects, having one, two, or three barbed points, as occasion may require; and a false point, connected with a long line, which is used in taking seals, &c. in the manner of a harpoon. This dart they sling from a flat board about eighteen inches in length and two inches wide; a small place for the fore finger is contrived in the lower end of the dart, and a channel for it to run in; the whole is held horizontally to take aim: they are very dexterous in the use of it. Their canoes are very light and small. Cook found them the smallest in the whole of the western American coast. The head has two points like a fork, the upper one projecting considerably beyond the other, which is level with the water. They are about twelve feet long, one and a half broad in the middle, and twelve or fourteen inches deep; they generally carry but one person, who sits in a round kind of hole in the centre; if a second, or, very rarely, a third, is taken in, they lie along the canoe. Some, however, have been recently seen with holes for two or three persons to sit in. Round the hole in which the rower sits is a rim of wood, to which is affixed gut-skin that can be drawn together or opened like a purse, with leather thongs fitted to the outward edge: this he draws tight round his own seal-skin frock, and brings the ends of the thongs, or purse-strings, over his shoulder, to keep it in its place. The sleeves of his frock are tied tight round his wrists, and being fastened by a kind of collar at the neck, with the hood drawn over his head, water can scarcely ever penetrate to his person, or to the rest of the canoe beneath him. A double-bladed paddle, about seven feet long, held by both hands in the

Occupations.

Lamp, and method of procuring fire.

ALEU-
TIAN
ISLANDS
—
ALEX-
ANDER'S
TOMB
—
Hospitality.

Amuse-
ments

middle, completes his equipment; and thus furnished, the Aleutian will venture out to considerable distances at sea, and impel his canoe along at the rate of six or seven miles an hour.

These people are said to be very hospitable in their dispositions, and to receive their friends with some peculiar marks of respect. Attired in their best apparel, they go out beating drums to the shore, and the host and hostess rush out into the sea as high as their breasts and draw the canoe towards the land. They then assist the guests to disembark, and bear them on their backs to the place of reception. The host tastes every thing before he presents it to the company; and after the feast they retire to their favourite amusement of dancing. This is a very rude kind of hop, accompanied with shouts, the shaking of a rattle, made of bladders and filled with pebbles or pens, and the beating of a small drum.

The above description of the natives and manners of Unalaska, for which we have been principally indebted to Captain Cook's journal, compared with the accounts of the Russian navigators, will give the reader a fair impression of the state of the whole of these islands. Indeed, we have been compelled to observe how little matter of any interest the subsequent accounts have added to his.

Following the chain now to the westward, we have the Andreanofskie, or central group, between the 52d and 54th degrees of north latitude. The principal are Takavargha, Kanaghi, Ayag, Tshetchina, and Atsuk Amlak, the last of which has a very fine harbour. Ayag also has several commodious bays and inlets, but Tshetchina, Kanaghi, and Takavargha, are seldom visited, being each of them little better than volcanic mountains, more or less active. The third large group, proceeding north-westward, consists of Behring's island, Copper island, Attak, or Attoo, Simitsli, and Agattoo, called sometimes by the Russians the nearest Aleutian islands, and lying about 6° off from the shore of Kamchatka. Behring's island is situated in 55° of N. lat. and is about fifty-five miles in length, and stretches from north-west to south-east. The Madenoi, or Copper island, is about ten leagues from the south-east point of Behring's island, and was so called from the quantity of native copper originally found on its shores. Attak is the largest of the rest of the group, somewhat exceeding Behring's island in size, and has two good harbours.

Since the period of the discovery of these islands they have been constantly resorted to, as furnishing the chief supply to the lucrative trade of Russia with China in furs, and the settlements on them have been gradually increasing. In this trade originated the first inducement to the formation of a *Russian American Company*, which see under *AMERICAN COMPANY*. See also MÜLLER'S *Sawlung Russischer Geschichte*; Cook's *Voyages*; COOK'S *Russian Discoveries between Asia and America*; TUCKER'S *View of the Russian Empire*; MACKENZIE'S, LA PETROUSSE'S, and VANKOV'S *Voyages*, &c. &c.

ALEW.

ALEXANDER'S TOMB, an elegant and very ancient sarcophagus, supposed to have once contained the body of Alexander the Great; and now, through the zeal and enterprise of Dr. E. D. CLARKE, deposited in the British Museum. It is an entire block of green Egyptian breccia, a beautiful variegated marble of which

few specimens remain, measuring ten feet three inches and a half in length, three feet ten inches in height, five feet three inches at the circular end, and four feet two inches at the other end, in breadth; covered with hieroglyphics.

This valuable relic of antiquity had been removed by the French from the mosque of St. Athanasius, at Alexandria, when the British troops entered that place; and Dr. Clarke, empowered by letters of the naval and military commanders in chief, found it concealed in the hold of a hospital-ship, in the inner harbour, half filled with filth, and covered with the rags of the sick. Some merchants of the city waited upon him, with the information of its concealment, and all descriptions of the inhabitants and visitants, with whom the learned traveller conversed, concurred in the tradition of "its being the tomb of ISCANBER (Alexander), the founder of the city of Alexandria." On its shipment for England, in the *Madras*, the Capitano bey, with many Turks of distinction, came on board to pay a last testimony of devotion to this proud trophy of British valour; and, according to General Turner, "all solemnly touched the tomb with their tongues." The privilege to render this act of adoration previously, being a contribution of six paras or medins to the imam of the mosque. On taking leave, the Capitano bey expressed his belief that Providence would never suffer the tomb to go safe to England.

The chain of evidence by which Dr. Clarke supports his confident opinion of the identity of this sarcophagus with the real tomb of Alexander, is as follows: The body of Alexander, according to Plutarch, being embalmed at Babylon by certain Egyptians and Chaldeans, his funeral was delayed for two years, by the disputes amongst his successors, and, still more, by the immense preparations which were made for that solemnity. A notion prevailed, that the final possession of it would be most propitious to the state with whom it might rest; hence Perdiccas, who afterwards conducted the funeral procession, would have deposited it in the sepulchre of the Macedonian kings; but Alexander himself had ordered it to be taken to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, in Lybia. Diodorus Siculus, (lib. xviii. c. 26.) gives an elegant and most interesting account of its movement thither. The car, on which it was conveyed, was the most magnificent the world had then seen; a prodigious concourse of people attended it from all the cities near which it passed; and Ptolemy Soter, receiving intelligence of its approach, went out with an army as far as Syria to meet it. Pretending to render the highest honours to the imperial corpse, he conducted it to Memphis, and there it was detained until the shrine in which he now determined to deposit it at Alexandria was finished. This is described by the above historian as being constructed with all possible magnificence, and as standing within the city of Alexandria. Pausanias mentions the removal of the body from Memphis; Quintus Curtius its being ultimately carried to Alexandria with great pomp; and Strabo, "that there it still lies, though not in its original coffin, a case of glass having been substituted for the gold covering, which a later Ptolemy had removed."

Augustus visited this tomb B. C. 30, and Dio Cassius mentions the singular circumstance of the emperor's mutilating the nose, in touching the body; he

ALEX-
ANDER'S
TOMB
—
Manner of
its being
obtained by
the British.

Alexander's
body
—
brought into
Egypt.

Tomb vi-
sited by
Augustus.

ALEXANDER'S TOMB. — ALEXANDRIA. Severus. Caracalla.

placed a golden crown upon it, on departing, and scattered flowers over it. Caligula is said to have taken away the breast-plate from the armour in which Alexander was buried, and occasionally to have worn it himself. A. D. 202, it was visited by Septimius Severus, who causing a strict search to be made through Egypt for all the monuments of its ancient literature deposited them in the tomb of Alexander, and ordered the shrine to be closed from all future access. Caracalla, however, in 213, presumed to violate this injunction, placing a purple vest, splendid rings, &c. on the tomb; and here closes all the direct history of its existence.

The Christian zeal against all the idols of the heathen world was exercised so unsparingly at Alexandria, at the close of the fourth century, as to produce the greatest public disorders. The temple of Serapis was converted into a church to the honour of the martyrs; and over the tomb of Alexander a Christian church is said to have been erected to the memory of St. Athanasius, that distinguished relic itself being converted into a cistern. On the conquest of Alexandria by the Saracens, happily, as Dr. Clarke thinks, for the identity of this monument, the church only changed its name for the mosque of St. Athanasius, and the fame of the founder of this city throughout the eastern world was naturally transferred to his tomb. Celebrated in many eastern writings, as "the lord of the two ends of the world," "the king of kings," &c. for ages revered as a god by the Egyptians, and spoken of with distinction in the Koran, the veneration now paid to this relic of Alexander seems to have been uninterrupted for centuries. Benjamin of Tuleda, a Spanish Jew, who visited Alexandria in the thirteenth century, speaks of "a marble sepulchre, on which were sculptured all sorts of birds and other animals, with an inscription of the ancients which no one can read;" but "they have a conjecture," he adds, "that some king before the deluge was there buried; the length of which sepulchre was fifteen spans, the breadth six." Johannes Leo, in 1491, expressly mentions "a small edifice, built like a chapel, worthy of notice, on account of a remarkable tomb, held in high honour by the Mahometans; in which sepulchre they assert, is interred the body of Alexander the Great, an eminent prophet and king, as they read in the Koran." We now trace it through the testimony of Marmol, the Spaniard; Jahai Ben Abdallahif (1570); Sir George Sandys in 1611; the reports and enquiries of Dr. Pococke in 1743; Irwin, Sonnini, Brown, and Denon.

Traces of it to modern times.

Through a period of upwards of 2,000 years, it is thus attempted to be shown that the abrine of the son of Ammon has survived himself. Several objections are still taken by antiquaries, however, against the conclusions of our enterprising traveller: that there should be not a single Greek inscription on this alleged tomb of the greatest of the Greeks; that Eutychius, who composed at Alexandria "Annals" of that city in the tenth century, should mention the body of Alexander being brought here, without stating that his tomb remained; the silence of Furer, Boucher, Vansleb, and Niebuhur, are circumstances that have been thought to weigh strongly against its claims; but in conformity with our general principle of furnishing an impartial record of such opinions (and because we are rather amongst the unbelievers than the converts of Dr. C.'s arguments, we have given them the more fully), we have now placed the whole of this interesting inquiry before the reader, and must leave the decision upon the claims of this monument to the further light that may be thrown on its numerous hieroglyphics, and — himself.

ALEXANDRETTA, or SCANDERBON (the latter being its Turkish name), a sea-port town of Syria, in the gulf of Ajazzo. It is the port and road to Aleppo, which gives it all its remaining importance, and from which it is distant about 90 miles, by Antioch, the usual route for the caravans. The anchorage in the harbor is good when it can be reached, but a strong land-wind from the mountains renders this sometimes very difficult; ships making the port have to drag their anchors for several leagues, and during the three or four summer months are often wholly prevented from entering it. The neighbourhood of Alexandretta is marshy, and the town so very unhealthy, that the merchants of Aleppo proposed, according to Volney, some few years before his arrival there, to transfer their trade from this port to Latikia. A hamlet, about four leagues distant, called Beylan, is the frequent resort of the wealthier inhabitants from the ravages of a malignant fever to which the town is exposed. Before the discovery of the passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope, Alexandretta was one of the principal entrepôts of the European trade with the east. Its inhabitants are said to wear the most wretched and sickly appearance. E. lon. 36°, 15'. N. lat. 36°, 36'.

ALEXANDRI ARE, in Ancient Geography, a place at the south bend of the Tanais, in European Sarmatia. PROL. l. 3. c. 5.

ALEXANDER'S TOMB. — ALEXANDRIA.

A L E X A N D R I A.

Situation.

ALEXANDRIA, by the Turks now called SCANDERIA, a celebrated city of Lower Egypt, once its capital. It is situated on the shores of the Mediterranean, at the western extremity of Egypt, in N. lat. 31°, 12'. E. lon. 30°, 18', between the lake Maroutis and the harbour formed by the isle of Pharos, about 12 miles W. of the Canopic branch of the Nile, with which it communicates by a canal.

Alexander the Great founded this city in the year

1017. XVII.

n. c. 332, and had he realized his projects for becoming the undisturbed master of the world, it was hardly possible for him to have selected a more convenient situation for commanding and concentrating its resources. Passing over to Egypt, from the severe check to his ambition which he had received in the siege of Tyre, he evidently designed to divert into a more propitious channel that commercial greatness which he found so difficult to subdue. He is

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ALEX-
ANDRIA.

stated to have sketched the plan of the new city with his own hand. The walls were traced out in small quantities of meal, strewn along the ground, a circumstance which his soothsayer, Aristander, interpreted as an omen of the future abundance of the city. Diocorates, the celebrated restorer of the temple of Diana, at Ephesus, was engaged as the architect, and in twelve months from its foundation, while Alexander proceeded into Upper Egypt, amazing progress was made in the buildings. He now peopled it with settlers from all nations, and was only interrupted by death in his various designs for its aggrandisement. Hither his body was conveyed from Babylon in a splendid car, and deposited in a temple devoted to his memory. See ALEXANDER'S TOMB.

The old
city.

The ancient city, according to Pliny, was about fifteen miles in circuit, peopled by 300,000 free citizens, and at least equal that number of slaves. Diodorus Siculus and Quintus Curtius make its circuit somewhat smaller; but all historians agree in the nobleness of its appearance, and the beauty of its general plan. From the gate of the sea ran one magnificent street, 2,000 feet broad, through the whole length of the city, to the gate of Canopus, and commanding, at each end, views of the shipping in the port, whether sailing north in the Mediterranean, or south in the noble basin of the lake Marcotis. Another street, of equal width, intersected this at right angles, in a square of half a league in circumference, and the whole city appears to have been divided into streets thus intersecting each other. The two more celebrated ones we have mentioned contained the principal public buildings, formed of almost every description of costly materials, and erected in a climate peculiarly favourable to their preservation. Hence it is that Alexandria has furnished a store-house of art, and the materials of art to all the subsequent capitals of the world.

Harbour.

But its harbour was its chief boast. The island of Pharos, stretching from east to west across a bay of three leagues wide, was joined to the main land by a mole of about a mile in length, and thus divided the inner harbour into two deep and commodious basins, northward and south-ward; the former being called Eunotus, or Eunotus, now the Old Port, the latter the Great Port, now the New Port.

Pharos.

Upon this island Ptolemy Soter, one of Alexander's generals, and first of the celebrated line of the Ptolemaic kings, erected the famous light-house, called the *Pharos* (from a word signifying the strait), which, from its importance to this harbour, and to the general interests of commerce in the early ages of Greece and Rome, gave the name to many other similar beacons. To this prince also is attributed the foundation of the celebrated museum and library of Alexandria, and of the Ptolemaic palaces, which occupied, according to Strabo, a third or fourth of the city; and the enlargement of its commercial relations with Syria and Greece. His successors well supported his designs: the library grew into one of the most extensive depositories of ancient learning, containing from 700 to 800,000 volumes, and the port of Alexandria became the commercial centre and capital of Europe, Asia, and Africa. The various productions of Arabia and the east, and of all the known parts of the neighbouring continent, were first conveyed to the western nations through this

ALEX-
ANDRIA.
Extensive
commerce.

channel; its manufactures of glass, linen, and papyrus, were everywhere celebrated; and a long dynasty of feeble monarchs sustained their personal authority and magnificence, to the time of Cleopatra, chiefly on the lucrative commerce and extensive connections of its enterprising inhabitants. To facilitate the conveyance of merchandise to Alexandria, the canal of Necos, from the Red sea to the Nile, was completed by Ptolemy Philadelphus, by whom the temple of Serapis was added to the attractions of the city; and it was not until their own voluptuousness and treachery had prepared them for any chains, that the arms of Julius Caesar, after some severe repulses, finally subjugated it to the Romans. During this siege the principal branch of the public library, situated in that quarter of the city called the *Bruchion*, and containing, at that time, 400,000 volumes, was accidentally consumed. But Alexandria did not decline under the dominion of her conquerors.

Suburbs.

The suburb of Nicopolis extended along the sea shore, and took its name from a victory gained here by Augustus over Antony; it rose in time to a very considerable town. The city also spread along the southern shores of the Marcotis. A spacious circus was formed without the gate of Canopus for chariot races; and on the east a gymnasium, with splendid porticoes, more than six hundred feet long. Second only to Rome itself, Alexandria enjoyed, under the Roman and Greek emperors, an undiminished reputation for wealth, commerce, and literature. Caligula, Adrian, and Nero, granted distinguished favours to its inhabitants; and here Vespasian was first proclaimed emperor, A. D. 69. Severus gave them a kind of senatorial council, elected from among the richer citizens, and other public privileges, which induced the Alexandrians to erect a column to his honour, called the pillar of Severus by the Arabian historians. Michaelis and some other writers have supposed this to be the same with what is usually called Pompey's pillar; an opinion from which, however, the recent discovery of its inscriptions would induce us to disagree.

Alexandria, as a seat of learning, gave birth to the Literature. Eclectic philosophy, and cultivated the mysteries of the Cabala. The almost boundless influx of opinions from the east, as well as from the Grecian and Roman schools; the patronage afforded to some of the principal philosophical sects, and the toleration granted to all of them by the Ptolemies and by the Roman emperors, produced, in this place, a perpetual concussion of systems unknown in the same degree to any other of the ancient seats of learning. Hence originated the effort to establish in the Eclectic philosophy an universal system; and while some have regarded the attempt as wholly unsuccessful, and represent it as having only given to the world a heterogeneous mass of ill-digested terms, others have applauded it. Potamo, of Alexandria, is said to have founded this sect under Augustus and Tiberius; and towards the close of the second century a similar sect arose among the Christians. The mysteries of the Cabala were cultivated here by the Jews with great zeal, and no small success. St. Jerome tells us of a Christian school of eminence in this place from the time of St. Mark. Pantenus presided over it in the second century, succeeded by Clement and Origen. A strange mixture of Platonism in some of its most inferior peculiarities was here engrafted on the simplicity

ALEX-
ANDRIA.

of the gospel, and originated such principles of expounding scripture, as few professed Christians of the present day would not shrink to own.

The various political changes to which Alexandria was subject, to the period of its being taken by the Saracens, belong rather to our historical department than to this topographical sketch. After enjoying a fame, never exceeded, for upwards of 1,000 years, and containing, at the time, within its bosom some treasures of ancient literature, of which the world had no other traces, this city submitted to the arms of the Caliph Omar, A. D. 646. The conquerors themselves were astonished at the extent of their acquisition. "I have taken," said Amrou, the general of Omar, to his master, "the great city of the west. It is impossible for me to enumerate the variety of its riches and beauty; I shall content myself with observing, that it contains 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 400 theatres, or places of amusement, 12,000 shops for the sale of vegetable goods, and 40,000 tributary Jews." It consisted at this time, according to the Arabian accounts, of three distinct towns. Menna, or the Port, in which they included Pharos and the adjacent parts; Nekita (probably the Necropolis of Josephus and the Roman historians); and Alexandria, properly so called, the site of the present Scanderia. The Romans made three powerful efforts to regain a place of such vast importance to the empire; and twice, during the first four years of the Saracen dominion, possessed themselves of the harbour and fortresses. On their final dislodgement, the Saracen general dismantled the walls and towers, but towards the inhabitants his conduct was merciful. The fate of the library has been disputed.

SEE ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY.

In the ninth century the ancient walls of Alexandria had disappeared, and the present appear to have been added. It was taken by the Magrebbians in A. D. 924, shortly after the destruction of its great church, called Al Kaisaria, or Qussars, which was formerly a temple built by Cleopatra in honour of Saturn; and on its abandonment to the caliphs by the Magrebbian forces, in 928, it was almost depopulated, 200,000 of the inhabitants having, according to Eutychius, perished in one year. In the thirteenth century the commerce of this city was somewhat revived, and the rising civilization of the west shed a faint prosperity on its concerns; but under the dominion of the Turks, and on the discovery of the passage to the east by the Cape of Good Hope, in the close of the fifteenth century, the trade of Alexandria, sunk into complete decay.

Alexandria, in modern times, has been laboriously explored and described. Over a space of from six to seven miles in circuit, almost entirely enclosed by walls, is spread an unequalled assemblage of broken columns, obelisks, and shapeless masses of ancient architecture, rising frequently to a greater height than the surrounding houses. These walls are of the rude architecture of its Saracenic masters, and flanked with numerous towers; but this space must not be supposed to contain the entire ruins of the old town, which extend on every side far beyond it. The lake Maroutis had been for ages filled up, through the negligence of the Turks in preserving the neighbouring canals, when the British army turned the waters of the lake of Aboukir into it, in their operations against the French; the tower of Pharos has entirely disappeared,

and a plain square castle occupies its site. Under a large portion of the ruins extend the ancient reservoirs of the city, in a high state of preservation, and some remains of the noble palace of the Cæsars appear toward the walls facing the sea; but the obelisks, called Cleopatra's needles, are the principal attractions to this spot. These are of Thebaic stone, about seven feet square at the base; they were about seventy feet in height (for but one of them now is on its pedestal), and each is formed out of one stone. They are covered with hieroglyphics, but of very uncertain origin. While Egypt was in possession of the British forces, Lord Cavan endeavoured to raise the prostrate column, with a view to its being embarked for England, but the project was relinquished, after there had been deposited within the pedestal various British and Turkish coins, covered with a marble slab, containing an account of the recent victories. Pompey's pillar, as it is usually called, and the Catacombs, are about half a league from the city, on the opposite side.

The former is a majestic column, of the Corinthian order, measuring sixty-four feet in the shaft, about five feet in the base, ten feet in the pedestal and from ten to eleven in the capital. A Greek inscription was discovered by the British, which dedicates it to the Emperor Dioclesian, under the government of the Prefect Portius. The opinion sustained by its common name, that it was erected by Cæsar to commemorate his victory over Pompey, has had respectable supporters. Denon, and some other writers, have supposed it part of an immense building, of which they trace the ruins adjoining. It has been sometimes thought to commemorate the favours of Adrian to this city, and still more frequently those of Severus (as we have seen), while some writers ascribe its erection to Ptolemy Philadelphus, in memory of his queen Arsinoë; and others to Ptolemy Euergetes. The Catacombs extend along the coast, from the termination of the ruins of the old town. The separate sepulchral excavations are small, containing generally only three coffins, standing on each other, and the rock out of which they are cut is of a soft calcareous texture, but the galleries are lined with a very durable plastering.

The present town stands on a peninsula, extending into the sea, between the two ports, of which what is called the New one, assigned to the use of Europeans, is nearly clogged up with sand, and much exposed to north winds. Into the Old Port, called also the port of Africa, the vessels of the Christians are not suffered to enter. It also is gradually filling up, and, though deep in some places, is difficult of access. Two eminences, with a tower on each, called Aboukir, are the first land-mark on making for the port of Alexandria from the west; and Pompey's pillar is the first object that meets the eye on approaching the town. The houses of Alexandria have flat roofs, with terraces, like those of most of the Levant towns; there are mere apertures in the walls for windows, from which the light is constantly obstructed by projecting lattices; the streets are narrow, unpaved, and without police. Its inhabitants have been variously estimated, from 5,000 to 15,000, and even 20,000, which may be attributed to the constant influx of strangers, and the complete irregularity of all its public offices and government. Turks, Copts, and Jews are the basis of the stationary population; the rich merchants being chiefly of the last description,

ALEX-
ANDRIA.Cleopatra's
needles.Pompey's
pillar.The Cata-
combs.Present
town.

ALEX-
ANDRIA.

and exercising, perhaps, a more important influence in this place, than Jews in any other part of the globe. Though compelled to pay a higher per centage to the customs than European merchants, they contrive to preserve so much better an acquaintance with the markets, as to compete successfully with any foreign commercial houses in the place. The public authority is vested in the Turks, who also compose the garrison which is kept up in the Pharos, and are the more opulent artisans and shopkeepers of the town. The Copts are in general very poor, and engaged in the lowest offices of life. The Venetians and Genoese appear to have been the parents of its modern trade with Europe, which is still very considerable; but latterly it has fallen almost entirely into the hands of the English and French. Its principal exports are gum, myrrh, frankincense, cinnamon, drugs, Mokah coffee, mother-of-pearl, and rice; linen cloths, camelskins, and ox and buffalo hides. It imports from Europe, lead, copper and iron; woollen cloths, cutlery, silks, and cottons. The Coptic, or ancient Egyptian, is very little spoken here; the Arabic and the European languages of the various settlers occupying its place. Alexandria, with the whole of Egypt, is under the nominal authority of the

Commerce.

pacha of the Porte; which, since the French invasion, and the re-delivery of the country into the hands of the Turks, by the British, has been far better established; but it is a miserable and ill-sustained government.

ALEX-
ANDRIA.

This city offered little opposition to the French forces under Buonaparte, in 1798, who entered it on the 2d of July, twenty-nine days previous to the discovery, and subsequent defeat of the French fleet by Admiral Nelson. In the immediate neighbourhood of this city, Sir Ralph Abercrombie obtained that memorable victory over the French, on the 21st March, 1801, which deprived his country of his invaluable services, and resulted in the expulsion of the French from Egypt. Alexandria was entered by General Sir John Hely Hutchinson on the 2d of September, and transferred to the Turks on the 18th of the same month. In 1806, on a rupture with the Porte, a second British expedition to Egypt took possession of the very heights before the town on which Abercrombie had gained his famous victory, and on the 21st of March, entered the place. The English ministry, however, had been deceived as to the state of the country at this time, and were shortly after obliged to abandon their lodgments on this coast.

ALEXANDRIA, in Ancient Geography, was a name common to many other cities besides that of Egypt, the greater part of them being built by Alexander the Great, to mark the progress of his arms, and perpetuate his fame. Thus we find a second Alexandria, in Thrace, on the Macedonian frontiers, built by Alexander when but seventeen years old. Stephani. A third, in Caria, near mount Latmus. Steph. A fourth, on the north coast of the island of Cyprus, near the promontory of Callinusa. Steph. A fifth, in Syria, called Alexandria ad Issum, and Alexandretta; built by Alexander, on the Issic bay. Plin. lib. v. c. 22, now Scanderoon. See ALEXANDRETTA. A sixth, in Susiana, situated between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, where they approach each other before they enter the Persian gulph. Alexander the Great built it, and left in it the soldiers of his army who were past service. The city was destroyed by an inundation of the rivers on whose banks it stood; but being rebuilt by Antiochus the Great, and secured from the floods, by Pasines, an Arabian prince, it obtained the name of Charax, from its strength. Plin. l. vi. c. 31. A seventh, in Assyria, Plin. l. vi. c. 16, which Harduin thinks was near Arbela, and built by Alexander in memory of his victory over Darius there. An eighth and ninth, in Sogdiana; one on the river Oxus, called Alexandria-Oxiana, and another further east, called Alexandria Ultima. This last was the limit of Alexander's conquests towards Scythia, to commemorate which he raised an altar on the spot. Ptol. l. vi. c. 12. Plin. l. vi. c. 18. A tenth, in Bactriana, built by Alexander, near Bactra, the capital. Plin. l. vi. c. 25. An eleventh, in Aria, founded by this prince on the river Arius, four miles in circuit. Strabo, l. xi. & xv. Plin. l. vi. c. 25. A twelfth, in Margiana, built by Alexander, and overthrown by the barbarians of the country; upon which Antiochus raised a new city on its site, which he named Antiochia, and here Orodes, the Parthian monarch, conveyed his prisoners after the defeat

of Crassus. Plin. l. vi. c. 18. A thirteenth, at the pass of the Paropamisus, or Caucasus, on the Indian side, by which Alexander entered the country, partly colonized by Macedonian troops. Arrian *Exped. l. iv. c. 22.* and l. iii. c. 28, and thought by D'Anville (*Antiq. de l'Inde*) to be the present Kandahar. A fourteenth, in Arachosia, on the river Arachotus. Ammianus, lib. xxiii. c. 6, called Alexandropolis, by Isidore, now Scanderie. A fifteenth, built by Alexander, in the country of the Malli, at the confluence of the rivers Accies and Indus. Arrian, lib. vi. c. 15. A sixteenth, built by him in the country of the Sogdi, where the Hyphasis enters the Indus, farther south than the preceding. Quint. Curt. l. ix. c. 25. D'Anville supposes it is the modern Bukor. A seventeenth, on the coast of Gedrosia, erected under Alexander's orders, during the expedition of Nearchus. Plin. l. vi. c. 26. An eighteenth, in Carmania, near the river Salarus. Plin. l. vi. c. 27. Ptol. l. vi. c. 8. A nineteenth, in Palestine, near the sea, on the river Schan, 10 miles south of Tyre.

There was also an island in the Persian gulph, named Alexandria, and Aracia, in which was a lofty mountain sacred to Neptune. Ptol. l. vi. c. 24. Plin. l. vi. c. 18. ALEXANDRIA, a town in the government of Cherson, in Russia, 70 miles W. of Ekaterinosky; a town in the government of Volhynia, on the river Hovyn, formerly a part of the Polish palatinate of Wolyansk; and the name of various towns and villages of inferior note in the Russian empire, particularly in the governments of Ekaterinosky and Pultowa.

ALEXANDRIA, or BELHAVEN, in Virginia, North America, situated on the southern bank of the Patomac river, in Fairfax county; about five miles S.W. from the Federal City, 60 S.W. from Baltimore, the same distance N. from Fredericksburgh, 168 N. of Williamsburgh, and 290 from the sea. It stands in a pleasant and elevated part of the country; its streets are laid out on the plan of Philadelphia,

ALEX- in straight lines; but at present it is only a small
ANDRIA town.

ALEXANDRIA TROAS, in the district of Troas, in Syria, sometimes called Antigonia, and in Scripture Troas, was a maritime city of antiquity, about eighteen miles south of the site of Troy, built by Alexander's general, Antigonus, and called by him Antigonia. Lysimachus, coming afterwards into possession of the place, beautified and enlarged it, and either from veneration for Alexander, or hatred of his rival Antigonus, changed its name to Alexandria. Livy, lib. 35. c. xlii. relates, that in the war between Antiochus and the Romans, a. c. 192, Alexandria took part with the latter, and was so strong as to withstand the endeavours of Antiochus to take it, or to obtain a cessation of hostilities. During the reign of Augustus, it received a Roman colony, and became an illustrious city. Strabo, lib. xiii. Pliny, l. v. c. 33. Vast quantities of jasper, marble, porphyry, and granite, are still found on this memorable spot; the ruins of the colossal walls and gates of the city, towers and statues, baths and columns. Dr. Clarke found many broken marble *sarcophagi*, or ancient sepulchres, of immense size, appearing like fragments of rocks, among the oaks which now cover the soil; but there is a building, called traditionally the palace of Priam (from an erroneous notion of former travellers, that this city was the Ilium of Homer), which may be seen off the coast from a considerable distance. The part facing the west has three large arches still remaining entire, surmounted by masses of sculptured marble, which appear to have formed part of the cornice. The centre arch is forty-five feet wide at the base, and those on each side of it twenty-one. The stones, which appear to have been placed together without cement, are nearly six feet long, and three feet five inches thick; and holes for metal fastenings yet remain on the surface, which induce the supposition of a marble or metal covering having once been placed over the whole building. On each side of a magnificent flight of steps, conducting to the centre arch, was a column of the unusual diameter of eight feet, the pedestals of which remain. Behind this arch is a square court, having four other arches, one on each side. The other sides of the building consisted of walls, supported upon open arches, of which twelve remain, on the northern side, almost entire. The purposes to which this mighty fabric was originally devoted have been much disputed; Dr. Clarke conceives it to have been a grand termination of the aqueducts of Herodes Atticus, the ruins of which meet the eye of the traveller as he approaches the city from Chemale. On the south side of this building he found the remains of a circular edifice, resembling the baths in Campania, about half of which was entire. It had a small corridor round the base of the dome, which appears to have originally covered it. The immense theatre of the city is in a high degree of preservation; the diameter of the semi-circular range of seats (vaulted at each extremity) measures two hundred and fifty-two feet: it is constructed on the side of a hill, whose slope, as in many other Grecian theatres, is made subservient to the noble sweep of the building. See POCOCKE's and CHANDLER's *Travels in the East*; and CLARKE's *Travels*, 8vo. part II. vol. iii.

ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY, a magnificent establishment and repository of learning, founded in Alex-

andria, about 304 years before Christ, by Ptolemy Soter, the father of the celebrated line of the Ptolemies. So early as the time of Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the founder, it possessed one hundred thousand volumes: it was much increased by many succeeding monarchs, and at length contained from seven to eight hundred thousand volumes. In this library were deposited the original works of Sophocles, Euripides, and Æschylus; for Ptolemy Euergetes having borrowed them of the Athenians, would only return copies of them to the Grecians, whom, however, he presented with fifteen talents (about three thousand pounds sterling) as a recompence for their loss. The entire library was at first contained in that part of the city called the Bruchion, but the number of its volumes became so great that it was necessary to erect another building in the Serapeum, called the *Daughter Library*, a fortunate circumstance for the preservation of this latter portion of its treasures; for when Julius Cæsar, on besieging the city, set fire to the fleet which he found in the port of Alexandria, the flames spread to that quarter which contained the larger portion of the books, but those in the Serapeum remained safe. This portion Cleopatra enriched with the two hundred thousand volumes presented to her by Marc Antony, comprising the Pergamene library; it continued to be augmented from time to time by the Romans, and, notwithstanding some partial spoliation, was richer at the period of its destruction than when all its early buildings were standing. This disastrous event for all subsequent scholars, took place A. D. 642, upon the taking of this city by the Saracens. With more zeal, perhaps, than judgment, John Philoponus, surnamed the Grammarian, at that time resident at Alexandria, applied to Amrou, the Arabian general, for the inestimable gift of the library; and the general wrote to the sultan, Omar, to urge the request. His reply was worthy of the superstition propagated by his sword. "If," said he, "these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree, they are pernicious, and must be destroyed." The decree was issued, and the four thousand baths of the city are said to have been heated during six months, by the most valuable productions of antiquity. A late elegant historian, with his usual scepticism and ingenuity, has endeavoured to disprove this statement, which stands principally on the authority of the Arabian historian, Abulpharagius, in his *History of the Tenth Dynasty*. But to the positive testimony of this respectable ancient historian, the learned modern opposes little more than doubt, and the bare omission of the fact in some other writers. See *Gibbon's Decline and Fall*, vol. ix.; *Newton on the Prophecies*, 2 vols. vol. i. p. 236; *AMMIANUS MARCELLINUS*, lib. xxii. c. 16; *ABUL PHARAJI Hist. Dyn. ix.* and *POCOCKE'S Supplement*.

ALEXANDRINA AQUA, a stream of water at Rome, so called from the Emperor Alexander Severus, who therewith supplied the baths which he constructed. *ÆLIUS LAMPRIDIUS in vita*, cap. xxv.

ALEXANDRINE COPY, *Codex Alexandrinus*, a celebrated MS. of the Bible in Greek, including the Old and New Testament, Apocrypha, the Epistles of Clement of Rome, &c. now deposited in the British Museum, and originally sent to England, in 1628, as a present from the patriarch of Constantinople to King

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Charles I. This ecclesiastic, Cyrillus Lucaris, a native of Crete, is said to have brought it himself from Alexandria, and states, in an inscription annexed to it, that it was said "by tradition to have been written by Thecla, a noble Egyptian lady, about thirteen hundred years ago, shortly after the council of Nice." Its claims to the attention of the Biblical student have been amply discussed by Wetstein, Woide, Spohn, Grabe, and Michaelis. In 1786 the New Testament appeared, as complete in print as a MS. could well be rendered, edited by the learned Dr. Woide. Types were purposely formed to imitate the original; it was printed without spaces between the words, and line for line after the copy; with an ample Preface, containing an account of the MS. and an exact list of all its various readings. To this valuable contribution to the stores of English Biblical criticism, we can with pleasure refer the reader.

ALEXANDRINE VERSE, in English Poetry, a verse of six feet, and occasionally six feet and an half, which is equal to twelve, and sometimes thirteen syllables. This measure is used either to close a verse, or distich, as by Spenser at the end of each stanza of his *Fairy Queen*; or else, but more rarely, wholly to compose the poem, as by Drayton, in his *Poly Orlion*, and by Chapman, in his *Homers*. The pause is always on the sixth syllable. In the former instance it has the beautiful effect of a chord at the close of an air in music, and ends the verse with a full sweep; and in the latter it answers nearly to the hexameter of the classic verse, and is a sort of recitative in poetry. The etymology of its name is very uncertain; some have supposed it to be derived from a French translation of a flattering poem called the "Alexandriad," addressed to Alexander the Great, which was originally given in this kind of measure.

ALEXANDROPOLIS, the name given by Isidorus to Alexandria, in Arrachosia; also the name of a city in Parthylene. *PLIN.* lib. vi. c. 29.

ALEXANDROVKA, an Asiatic Turkish settlement on the river Kuma. It is one of those numerous small towns which Catharine II. caused to be erected along the Caucasian frontier, in the year 1781. It at present contains a population of not more than 450 inhabitants.

ALEXANDROVSKIA, in Russia, a fortress within the government of Ekaterinofsky, on the river Dnieper, and distant from Ekaterinofsky about 40 miles. It is 114 miles N. E. of Cherson, and in E. lon. 35°, 14'. N. lat. 47°, 35'.

ALEXANDROW, a town in Russia, in the government, or district of Vladimir. It is remarkable as being the place where the Czar John Wassiljewitch erected the first printing-press in Russia. It is 48 miles E. of Moscow, and the chief town of a circle.

ALEXICACUS (from $\alpha\lambda\epsilon\iota\omega$, I drive away, and $\kappa\alpha\upsilon\sigma$, evil), in Antiquity, a surname given to Apollo, by the Athenians, on account of his having removed the dreadful pestilence under which they groaned during five years of the Peloponnesian war.—*PAUS.* l. viii. c. 41. The epithet was also applied sometimes to Hercules, whose aid was said to be extended to those who besought it under diseases, and who was venerated as the common protector of mankind. Varro, lib. vi.

ALEXIPHARMIC, (from $\alpha\lambda\epsilon\iota\omega$, to expel, and $\phi\alpha\rho\mu\alpha\kappa\omicron\varsigma$, poison), in Medicine, certain compositions used as antidotes to poison, or applied as re-

medies against malignant diseases. These medicines, for the most part, act by perspiration, and thus may be considered equivalent to sudorifics.

ALEXITERIAL, in Medicine, a term not justly distinguishable from Alexipharmic, applied to those medicines which are expellers of poison.

ALFANDEGAR DE FE, a town in Portugal, in the province of Tras los Montes, and 12 miles N. of Torre de Moncorvo.

ALFAQUES, in Moorish Manners, a name that has been sometimes given to a particular order of clergy, or teachers of their religion.

ALFARO, a town of Old Castile, in Spain, standing on the confluence of the rivers Alama and Ebro. It is nine miles distant from Tudela. Population 4,700.

ALFATERNA, in Ancient Geography, a name of the city Nuceria, in Calabria, on the river Sarnus; used to distinguish it from the Nuceria, in Umbria. *DION. SIC.* lib. xix. c. 65.

ALFELD or **ALFELDAN**, a small town, with a castle, in the bishoprick of Hildesheim, and kingdom of Hanover. It is distant about 15 miles from Hildesheim, and 30 S. of Hanover. It stands upon the river Leine, and contains about 2,000 inhabitants. E. lon. 9°, 50'. N. lat. 51°, 58'.

ALFET, in Ancient Customs, a cauldron containing boiling water, in which, according to the mode of trial by ordeal, the accused person was to plunge his arm up to the elbow. If he endured it for the time appointed, he was supposed innocent of the charge brought against him.

ALFORD, a market town of Lincolnshire, near the foot of the Wolds, about six miles from the sea, and 140 from London. Population 1,169. There is a market on Tuesdays, and two annual fairs for horned cattle and sheep.

ALFRETON, a market town of Derbyshire, 14 miles from Derby, and 141 from London. It is a small town, but contains a population of 3,396 inhabitants. There are several busy manufactories here, particularly of stockings and earthen ware. It is thought to have derived its name from being founded by King Alfred.

ALGÆ, in Botany, one of the seven families of plants into which Linnæus has distributed the whole vegetable kingdom. It is also one of the Linnæan orders, of the class Cryptogamia. See *BOTANY*, Div. ii.

ALGARKIRK, a parish in the wapentake of Kirton, Lincolnshire, now only remarkable for a stone image in the churchyard, supposed to be the statue of Algar, earl of Mercia, who, in the year 870, successfully opposed the incursions of the Danes, though he died of his wounds the day after the battle.

ALGAROTH, in Chemistry, the white oxyd of antimony, first applied as a medicine by the Italian physician Algarotti, after whom it is called. The metallic oxyd is precipitated by adding pure water to the axymuriatic of antimony, and the powder of Algaroth is this precipitate properly educrated and dried, forming a perfect oxyd of antimony. It is not now inserted in the London Pharmacopœia, but that at Edinburgh still retains it.

ALGARVA or **ALGARRIA**, the most southern province of Portugal, and once an independent kingdom. It is bounded on the west and south by the Atlantic ocean, on the east by the river Guadiana, which separates it from Andalusia, and on the north by the province of Alentejo. It is fertile in figs, almonds, dates

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ALGIERS.

and olives, and produces some of the finest wines. It is about 85 miles in length, and 18 to 20 broad, containing a population of 96,000 inhabitants; four cities, twelve towns, and sixty villages. The chief town is Tarrin. ALGATES', } When used adverbially by Chaucer, ALGATES', } cer, is supposed by Tooke to mean all-get; get is sometimes spelled by Chaucer, gente.

Bot pe most partie algate was slayn,
pat with life Red I trouwe pet were falle fayn.
It. Brune, p. 31.

Alfred was eldest, non mot his wille withhold
To London he wold algate to speke with kyng Harold.
Id. p. 32.

He wolde, algate, his trooth holde,
As every knight thereto is holde,
What hap socer him is befal.
Greer. Can. d. book i.

Bifore alle thinges haue ye charite eke to othere in yourself algate
lasting, for charite kerewith the multitude of synnes.
Uichit. 1 Peter, chap. iv.

Aud forth he fares, full of malleous mynd,
To worken mischief, and svenge woe,
Wherever he tak godly knight may fynd,
His owly hart-soe and his owly foe.
Sith Una now he algates must forgoe.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. i.

ALGAZEL, in Zoology, a small kind of antelope which inhabits Persia, India, Egypt, and Ethiopia, in herds. The stomach of this elegant little animal, when it has been recently killed, is said to yield an aromatic flavour. See ANTELOPE.

ALGEBRA, an application of the Science of Pure Mathematics, which, by means of conventional symbols representing certain supposed quantities, determines

the value of those quantities, and their relations to each other. See MATHEMATICS, Div. I.

ALGEBRAICAL CURVE, a curve in which the general relation between the ordinates and abscissas may be defined by an algebraical equation. See as above.

ALGENEB, or ALGERIA, in Astronomy, the name of two fixed stars of the second magnitude; one marked γ in the wing of Pegasus, the other α on the right side of Perseus.

ALGEZIRAS, a sea-port town of Spain, in the province of Andalusia. It lies in the gulf of Gibraltar, not far from Tarrin, between the cape of Algieras and the Gibraltar rock, and is sometimes called Old Gibraltar. It was once divided into two separate towns, but is now altogether fallen into decay. A fine aqueduct of hewn stone, a quarter of a league in length, marks its former consequence, and the population still amounts to between 4 and 5,000 persons. On the 11th of July, 1801, the English admiral, Sir James Saumarez, captured and destroyed off this port several French and Spanish men of war. W. lon. 5°, 32'. N. lat. 39°, 9'.

ALGIABARI, in Mahometan Theology, a sect of predestinationists, who attribute all actions to the agency and influence of God. They are opposed to the Alkadari.

ALGIDUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Latium, on the left of the Via Latio, 18 miles distant from Rome. It belonged to the Æqui, as it appears from Dicoys. Hal. lib. xi. c. 23. Diana received worship on the mountain Algidus, in the neighbourhood, to which Horace, lib. i. ode xxi. v. 6. applies the epithet, gelidus, either from the sharpness of its air or the coolness of its groves.

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ALGIERS.

THE had eminence of this piratical state, and the salutary chastisement lately inflicted upon its capital by British valour and magnanimity, conspire to bring into notice all the topographical details that can be collected respecting it, far beyond their intrinsic importance or comparative value. We shall, therefore, assign more space to its general history in this article than it could claim under other circumstances.

The territory of Algiers includes what was anciently the kingdom of Numidia, and a part of the Mauritania Cæsariensis, so denominated from the city of Cæsarea, built here by Juba the younger, and dedicated to Augustus, on his restoration to the Numidian throne. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by the state of Tunis, from which it is divided by the river Zaine (anciently the Tusca), on the south by the Zaara, Sahara, or Numidian desert, and on the west by Tunes and the mountains of Trara, which separate it from the Morocco state. Its greatest length, according to Dr. Shaw, is about 460 miles, i. e. from 6° 16' W. lon. to 9° 16' E. and its breadth varying from 40 to 100 miles. Toward the desert, beyond Mount Atlas the dominion of the Algerines is very precarious, its connection with the shores of the Mediterranean giving it all its military strength and political import-

ance. Its present name is derived from the situation Name. of the metropolis, by the Turks called Algerair, Aljezier, or Al-jezirah, in Arabic, the island, because there was an island opposite to the city, which has since been united to it by a pier.

The modern provinces of this regency are Mascara, Division. Tiemsan, or Tremecen, Algiers Proper, Titterie, and Constantina; Dr. Shaw unites the provinces of Algiers Proper and Titterie into one district, and so far substantially agrees with M. Pananti's more recent description. Of these the most important is Constantina, the eastern district, once belonging to Tunis, and carrying on the principal trade of the country. Its chief towns are Constantino, containing a population of 100,000 souls; Bona, which has an excellent harbour, strongly fortified; Bujaya, having a larger, though not quite so safe, port as Algiers; Gigeri, Stessa, Tebof, Necanz, and Zamoura, all of which are more or less fortified. Labex, sometimes described as a portion of this province, is a barroco, rocky district, which pays tribute to the dey, but can hardly be said to be under any regular government. Biscara and Cuco are tributary regions, in the same unsettled state. Algiers Proper contains the capital (hereafter distinctly described); Titterie, extending toward the south, is much

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Chief towns.

ALGIERS, intersected with mountains, but possesses some fertile plains, and the towns of Bleda and Medea; Mascara, or Tlemsan, the western province, contains the towns of Tlemsan, Mustyganim, Mascara, Oran, Sher-ahell, Tennes, and the port of Mara-al-Quibber. Of these there are none but Oran, once fortified and decorated by the Spaniards; and Sher-ahell, formerly celebrated for its steel and iron ware, and containing extensive vestiges of ancient times, that merit any particular notice.

Rivers. The most considerable rivers in the regency are the Melwoina, anciently the Malva; the Yesser, or Ziz, which flows through the province of Mascara; the Shellif, or Zelif; the Mina (the Chylemnitis of Ptolemy); the Belaf, supposed to be the Carthana of the ancients; the Haregol, which flows from the Great Atlas into the Mediterranean, near Oran, through the desert of Angaid, and was probably the Signa of Ptolemy; the Hued-al-quiver, or Zingair, supposed to be the ancient Nalabata, or Naaba; and the Suf-Gemar, the Ampsaga of Ptolemy. Many other streams have been specified upon uncertain authority, and the same river, probably, under different names.

Mountains. Various branches of the noble chain of mountains known by the general name of Mount Atlas, stretch into these provinces from the south, under the appellations of the Lowat and Ammer; the mountains of Trara; the mountains of Jurjura, extending up toward Algiers from the interior; those of Felizia, Anwell, Gibbell Aures, the Mons Auracia of the ancients, &c. The Great Atlas may be almost said, indeed, to bound the states from east to west, as the mountains of Trara from their western confines toward Morocco.

Soil and productions. Amongst these, on the south, numerous springs are constantly flowing; though occasionally defaced with deserts, the soil in general is fertile, and, under the rudest cultivation, produces wheat, barley, rice, Indian corn, some of the finest fruits and most useful vegetables of Europe, and a kind of millet, principally used for the fattening of cattle. Salt pits and lead and iron mines are also found here; a solid mountain of salt is said to be worked near lake Marques, and at Arzew, a town on the Mediterranean, the salt-works are six miles in circumference. In dressing their corn, the Algerines retain two memorable customs of the east: the treading out the grain by means of horses or mules, as it is spread on the threshing-floor; and the throwing it up with a shovel or fan against the wind, to winnow it.

Climate. The climate is every where temperate, though snow covers the higher ranges of several of the mountains for the greater part of the year, and the neighbourhood of the Great Desert occasionally sends up hot and violent winds in the height of summer. These, however, are by no means frequent; when they occur, the inhabitants sprinkle their floors with water, and discontinue, as much as possible, their labour in the fields. But the general heat of summer is not excessive, and Dr. Shaw, in a residence of twelve years in this country, never observed the thermometer at sultry heat but when the winds from the Sahara blew, and only twice remarked it at the freezing point in winter. Scarcely a cloud blots the sky in the summer months; but in September and October the rains begin to fall: wheat and beans are then sown; the latter rains fall in April, and the harvest takes place in May or June. Did the character of the inhabitants present

any thing like a similar aspect to that of the country, **ALGIERS** this regency might become a very attractive residence to Europeans, and containing, as many of the chief towns do, frequent traces both of Roman and Arabian magnificence, there can be no doubt that whenever its political condition shall be tranquil, its whole site will be far better explored.

Animals of almost all descriptions abound here. The Animals, horse, the ass, the mule, and the kumrah (a breed from the ass and cow), the camel, and the dromedary are its beasts of burden. The horses are very superior, but not so well attended to as in Arabia; yet are they extremely active, laborious, and patient of fatigue; full of fire and vigour, and retaining sometimes their full powers of action to thirty years of age. They are admirably calculated, by their impetuosity, for cavalry charges, but stubborn when attempted to be trained by European horsemen. The mouth of the Barbary horse requires a harder bit than that of other countries; the bridle generally used in riding is very long, and has a whip at the end of it. They are frequently exercised to gallop with the reins thrown loosely on the neck, and one of the greatest merits of the horsemen is to stop them suddenly when at full speed. The African horse is rarely found in any other pace than a gallop, and hence the term barb has been sometimes applied to the race-horses of other countries. They breed well, and are often imported into England. The kumrah is single hoofed like the ass, but has a sleek skin, and head and tail like a cow. Of the inexhaustible services of the camel in these districts it is impossible to speak in this place.

The tame cattle are black and slender, and, on the whole, inferior to those of Europe; but the wild herds, which abound in the southern and eastern parts of the country, are fat, and distinguished by the inflexion of their horns and the breadth of their front. Sheep of two species are found here; the one towards the desert, of very unusual stature, being almost as tall as a Shetland pony, and very delicate in shape; but the fleece is coarse, and the flesh very dry. The other is distinguished by the breadth of its tail. There is also a very large goat, having tufts of hair on the knee and neck joints, which is found in the hilly districts. Ferocious animals appear among the mountains in great numbers: the lion, the leopard, the hyena, the panther, and the wolf, have all been found here; and a large kind of jackall, which bursts into the villages in terrific flocks, and will even tear up the graves for the bodies of the dead. There are regular lion hunters in Algiers, who are said to eat the flesh of the animal, though it is so hard and difficult of digestion that their dogs turn away from it.

Most of the birds of the south of Europe are found here; and quails and starlings in great abundance. The former are sometimes seen as in great clouds, in which they cross the Mediterranean at the fall of the year: the stork, the pigeon, and domestic fowls are in great plenty, and a red-coloured lark, not seen in Italy. Amongst the rare birds is the kambar, or ash-coloured falcon; the graah, or large crow of the desert, having the beak and legs red like the falcon; the sahmrng, a kind of magpie, with a most disagreeable note; a small bird called the houbarry, whose gall is used medicinally for the eye; and the cupsa, a large sparrow, with a shining breast and ruddy coat like the lark, whose

ALGIERS. voice is said far to surpass that of the European nightingale in melody. In the desert of Anguid ostriches are seen in large flocks, and have, at a distance, the alarming appearance to strangers of a troop of well-mounted robbers. They shed their finest feathers in winter, which are diligently collected for the European markets by the Arabs. They are hunted by being driven against the wind until wearied with the chase, and then shot in attempting to return. When assisted by the wind, which it catches by the flapping of its wings, this bird is said to be capable of outrunning the fleetest horse.

Reptiles and insects. Amongst the various tribes of reptiles in Algiers, the scorpion appears to be one of the most numerous and formidable. It is of different colours, from black and brown to yellow and white, much larger than that which is found in Europe, and inflicts a very virulent wound, from which many persons are said to die annually. This wound, however, is not thought dangerous with proper treatment, though it is always excessively painful. The scorpion is more common in towns and bones, from its mode of secreting itself among the furniture, and is therefore clearly one of those annoyances of society which the progress of civilization would bid fair to extirpate. Vipers and other serpents also infest these regions, and the great boa serpent occasionally appears in the southern provinces. The locust, one of the greatest scourges of Africa, is found here in great numbers. Its memorable and desolating journeys no human efforts can impede. In April or May these voracious insects approach from the south, and begin to spread themselves over the vallies to deposit their eggs. At this period of their appearance great care in the destruction of these eggs would seem to be a method of diminishing their future numbers, which never has been fairly tried. The young ones begin to appear in June, and immediately associate in such multitudes as to cover whole acres of ground to the depth of several inches. They now slowly move onwards for food, destroying every species of vegetation in their progress. Trenches are dug, and filled with water, bonfires are kindled around and before them, the inhabitants of the district where they appear unite in various precautions to interrupt or destroy them, but all is unavailing: in the comprehensive language of Scripture, "the land is as the garden of Eden before them, and behind them is a desolate wilderness." The whole of the states of Barbary are alike subject to their irruptions. To the article **BARBARY**, the reader may refer for a more detailed account of them; and for the curious natural history of the insect, to **GRYLLUS**, in Entomology, Div. iii. The fly of Barbary is peculiarly tormenting to the horse, a swarm of them having sometimes been known to sting the animal until he has fallen through mere loss of blood.

Antiquities. The territory of Algiers is enriched with various noble ruins, which at present have been but very partially explored. "The mountains of Aures, to the southward of Constantine," says Dr. Shaw, "are a knot of eminences running into one another, with several little plains and vallies between them. Both the higher and the lower parts are generally extremely fertile, and are esteemed the garden of the kingdom: they are about one hundred and thirty miles in circuit, and all over them are spread a number of ruins; the most remarkable of which are those of L'Erbas, the Lambese of the

ancients. These ruins are nearly three leagues in circumference, and, amongst others, consist of magnificent remains of several of the city gates; these, according to a tradition of the Arabs, were four in number, and the city could send 40,000 armed men out of each. There are still also to be seen the seats and upper part of an amphitheatre; the frontispiece of a beautiful temple of the Ionic order, dedicated to Esculapius; a small, but elegant mausoleum, erected in the form of a dome, supported by Corinthian columns; and a large oblong chamber with a great gate on each side, intended, perhaps, for a triumphal arch. These, and several other edifices of the like nature, sufficiently show the importance of this city in former times." At Medraschem, in this neighbourhood, is seen a stupendous fabric, supposed to be the tomb of Syphax, and other Numidian princes. One of the most interesting spots in the country is Constantina itself, anciently Cirta, the capital of Numidia. Though not so extensive as the old city, it is still a very flourishing place, and only second in importance to Algiers itself. See **CONSTANTINA**. At Shersabel are supposed to be the ruins of Julia Cæsarea: they consist of large cisterns, mosaics, and broken columns, amongst which various medals of antiquity are frequently found. There are also some remains of Siga at Nedroma, in the province of Constantina, and of the Pontus Divini of Strabo.

The history of the tyrannies of Algiers, which go to History. illustrate its present state, commences with the time of Aruck Barbarossa, the celebrated corsair. Cardinal Ximenes having, with a view to the final suppression of the irruption of the Moors into Spain, dispatched a large armament to these shores, which had already over-run the petty kingdoms in the neighbourhood, built a fort at Algiers, and made the whole district tributary to Ferdinand V., the Algerines, on the death of that monarch, determined upon a desperate struggle for their independence. To effect this an invitation was dispatched to Barbarossa, who was cruising in the neighbourhood, to join his forces with those of Selim Eutemi, an Arabian chieftain upon whose protection they had thrown themselves, and assist them in shaking off the hated yoke of Spain. For this service they promised him a large gratuity, and Barbarossa readily embraced the offer. Having dispatched his gallees to the harbour of Algiers, he advanced to Shersabel at the head of nearly 6,000 Moorish and Turkish volunteers, and seized upon the vessels of Hassan, a brother corsair, who had established himself on this coast. This chief he perfidiously murdered, and, compelling his adherents to join his own troops, marched in triumph to Algiers. Here the first act of his friendship was worthy his character; a guest in the palace of Eutemi, he procured the strangulation of that prince at the baths, and, planting his soldiery in every part of the town, was by them and the terrified inhabitants proclaimed "invincible king" of the country. His tyranny, however, soon became intolerable to the Algerines; a plot was formed for his assassination, which only aggravated the severity of his measures; and the son of Eutemi applied to Ximenes to assist him to avenge his father's death. The cardinal readily complied, and dispatched a Spanish force of 10,000 men from the opposite shore; but the fleet was dispersed by a storm, and we hear no more of the expedition.

ALGIERS. A second attack upon the ill-acquired dominion of Barbarossa, was at first more successful. Algiers was invested by 10,000 Moors, under the command of Abdes, king of Tenez, who was immediately joined by all the Arabs of the country. This force, however, Barbarossa defeated with 1,000 Turkish musketeers, and 500 Moors, and marched at once to Tenez, the capital of Abdes, and having received the homage of that state, intimidated the inhabitants of the neighbouring province of Tremecen into like submission. Opportunely for him, they had quarrelled with their king, who had dethroned his nephew, and they now requested his aid to dispossess the usurper of his throne. This he instantly marched to grant them, and blockading the king in his capital, the inhabitants, at the instigation of the conspirators, sent his head to Barbarossa, with an invitation to ascend their throne. Of this rash resolve, however, like the Algerines, they soon had reason to repent. The particulars of the life of this extraordinary character will be reserved for a separate article of Biography; suffice it to state here, that the hereditary prince of Tremecen fleeing for support to Charles V. lately arrived in Spain, a succour of 10,000 men was placed, for his assistance, under the command of the Marquis de Gomarez. This force first attacked Calau, a fortress between Tremecen and Algiers, which was carried after a stout resistance, and exposed to a severe sacking; Barbarossa keeping close within Tremecen, and the inhabitants waiting the first opportunity to revolt. But alarmed at the tidings of the advance of the enemy upon that capital, Barbarossa at length resolved to try the event of an engagement, and sallied out of the town with 1,500 Turks, and 5,000 Moorish cavalry. Scarcely had he left the place, before his council advised him to return; observing the indications of that determined revolt which, in point of fact, the inhabitants had now carried into execution; the gates were closed upon him; and Barbarossa had no other resource than to throw himself into the citadel, with the hopes of escaping by stealth with his plunder. Here he vigorously defended himself for some time, during which, apprehensive of famine, he constructed a subterraneous passage for his retreat. The Spanish general, however, was well informed of his movements, and when Barbarossa at length attempted to depart, although he scattered plate, money, and jewels, in profusion, along the road, to beguile his pursuers, he was overtaken at the Heuxda, a river about eight leagues from Tremecen, and killed, after a desperate resistance. Abuchen Men was now declared king of Tremecen, but the Turks, at Algiers, proclaimed Hayradin, Barbarossa's brother, king of that place, and high admiral of the sea.

Attacked by the king of Tenez.

The Spaniards.

Killed at the Heuxda.

Algiers is placed under allegiance to the Porte.

The mole built.

This chieftain placed his dominions under the protection of the Porte, in exchange for which he promised an annual tribute. A splendid embassy was sent to Constantinople to announce the death of his brother, and Hayradin, now appointed a bashaw of the empire over the kingdom of Algiers, shortly afterwards received a reinforcement of 2,000 janizaries from Constantinople, which decided his domination over this part of the coast. He demolished the Spanish fort in the bay, after a brave resistance on the part of the garrison, and proceeded to construct the mole of the harbour. This strong work, uniting (as we have stated) the island that gave name to the town with the adjacent

shore, is said to have occupied 30,000 Christian slaves in building it, for three years; and this is the first instance of Christian slavery in these dominions which the Algerine history appears to supply. A fresh grant of money from the Turkish sultan now invigorated the measures of this enterprising and able chief; fortifications were extended along the bay, and Algiers, under his administration, arose into a formidable piratical power.

Hayradin was finally appointed admiral of the Turkish fleet in the Mediterranean, and captain bashaw of the empire, with which, and with the capture of Tunis for the Porte, his future history becomes involved; while Hassan Aga, a renegade of Sardinia, succeeded him in the government of Algiers. His expeditions in the Mediterranean were still more extensive and successful than those of his predecessors, and spread consternation along all the southern shores of Europe. Pope Paul III. invited the emperor, Charles V. to chastise the daring of his infidel, and elated by his former success against Tunis, that monarch made the most extensive preparations to crush this rising state. One hundred and twenty ships, and twenty galleys, with an army of 30,000 chosen men, well appointed in arms, ammunition, and provisions, sailed on this memorable enterprise. The young nobility of Spain, Italy, and his German dominions crowded to the standard of the cross, together with one hundred knights of Malta, attended by 1,000 of their followers. Even ladies of good family and character embarked with the expedition, confident of a peaceful settlement on the shores of Barbary after the subjection of its present masters. A papal bull promised absolution of their sins and the crown of martyrdom to all who should fall in the sacred cause.

After a perilous voyage from Majorca, the fleet appeared off the coast of Africa in the close of the summer of 1541, every ship displaying a crucifix at the head, and the standard of Spain at her stern; and anchored near cape Metafaze, between two and three leagues E. of Algiers. Here, after some delay from the difficulty of the shore, the whole army safely disembarked, and advanced in great order upon the town. Hassan's garrison amounted only to 600 armed Turks, and between 5 and 6,000 Moors, without arms. After all the fame of the immense preparations for this expedition in Europe, he appears to have been taken by surprise; for his best troops were in the country levying the annual tribute of the Arabs and Moors, and the Algerines were panic-struck. The emperor having erected a fort for the protection of his camp, and diverted from the city a stream of water which supplied most of its inhabitants, now summoned the bashaw to surrender at discretion. A haughty defiance is reported to have been his only answer. His inah, or down, at first encouraged him to resistance, but were already deliberating on proposing terms of surrender, when a prophet named Yusuf, or Joseph, demanded an audience of the assembly, and boldly predicted the destruction of the Spaniards before the change of the moon. By one of those happy coincidences, of whose occurrence we are certain to be informed, all the elements of nature seemed to conspire in the evening to accomplish this timely prophecy: the wind rose in the north with resistless violence, rain and hail fell in torrents, while an almost supernatural darkness overspread the hemisphere, and the ground was rocked

ALGIERS.

Expedition of Charles V.

Lands with difficulty.

Dreadful storm.

ALGIERS. with earthquakes. The camp of the Spaniards was flooded with water; they remained all night unsheltered and incapable of taking any repose, and the ground was in the morning a perfect morass. Hassan, perceiving their distress, sallied forth at day-break with his best troops, and drove in an advanced guard of Italians, stationed near the town. Their companions, in attempting to support them, found their powder so wetted as to be useless, the rain extinguished all their matches, and the Algerines were making the greatest havoc among the imperial troops, until Charles himself advanced with the whole army to encounter him. Hassan now retreated in good order, and left the emperor to witness still greater disasters. His ships, tossed by the violence of the storm, were every hour diminishing in number, or driving out to sea. In the course of a few hours one hundred and fifty transports, and fifteen men of war, were dashed to pieces on the rocks, and 8,000 of his troops drowned, or butchered by the inhabitants on reaching the shore. Charles is stated to have spent the morning on the beach in silent agony. Calamities, over which he could have no control, were not only scattering all the resources of his ambition, but even the hopes of his personal safety; and when Doria, his admiral, informed him, on the following morning, that he must make for Metafez with his remaining vessels, it seemed almost impracticable to follow him. The army, however, began this perilous march, which they accomplished in three days, covering their rear with the least exhausted of the troops, but leaving very many on the road. Scarcely had they re-embarked, when another storm arose, obliging many of them to make instantly for the first friendly port they could find; Charles himself was detained several weeks at Bujeya by contrary winds, and, utterly disheartened and dispirited, rather than defeated, returned with great difficulty to his dominions.

Stimulated by this signal overthrow of his great opponent, Hassan now led his troops to an attack upon Tremecen, and compelled the king to become his tributary: soon after which he died. Haji, or Chaji, an old officer of their own, was chosen by the Algerine troops as his successor. This chief is only known for having repelled a formidable attack of an Arabian cheyk, named Abu Terisee, on the Algerine states; for he was soon obliged to resign the government to Hassan, the son of Hayradin Barbarossa, to whom the Porte granted the appointment of bashaw of Algiers, and who was the first native Algerine placed in command of its resources. Tremecen was finally added to the Algerine state under his domination; and he bestowed more attention on the interior government of the country than any of his predecessors. On the spot where Charles's pavilion had been pitched, he built a tower, as a memorial of his defeat. He laid the foundation of an extensive hospital for the sick janizaries in the town, and erected a magnificent bagnio. He also constructed the great bastion over the mole gate, contrived supplies of corn for the inhabitants during a great scarcity, and performed other acts of public-spiritiveness and attachment to the people, which rendered his removal an object of real regret. This arose from a dispute with a powerful Turkish family at Constantinople, respecting his hereditary property in that city, which he thought of sufficient importance to call for his presence there.

His successor was an Arab, named Salha Rais, who extended the dominions of this state toward the south, and dispossessed Spain of the valuable port of Bujeya. On his death, Hassan Corso, a favourite renegade of the late bashaw, was elected by the soldiers as their chieftain, until the pleasure of the Porte should be known. This was announced in about four months, by the arrival of a fleet with a Turk of the name of Tekeli, as bashaw, on board, whom the Algerines were at first disposed to resist. The place, however, being betrayed to him by a Levantine chief, he ordered Corso to the punishment of the chieftain, which consisted in being thrown on hooks fastened in a wall, where he hung in horrible torture for three days. Alisardo, the viceroy of Bujeya, was the next victim of Tekeli's tyranny. Understanding that he was immensely rich, he bestowed, scrupled, and finally impaled him, with the vain hope of discovering his wealth. These cruelties having ripened the janizaries for revolt, the favourable moment of a plague, which induced Tekeli to retire from the town, was seized by Yusef, the governor of Tremecen, who marched upon the bashaw in the old demolished town of his retreat, and, after a short pursuit, dispatched him, and marched without resistance into Algiers. He was now by acclamation elected bashaw, but died of the plague in six days. On this a private Turkish soldier, named Chajah, held the government until the re-arrival of Hassan, the son of Hayradin Barbarossa, who was again appointed by the Porte to this regency. The year following his return he defeated a formidable expedition of the Spaniards against Mostagan, under the command of Count D'Alcaudela, taking 12,000 prisoners, and immense spoil. The whole of these were, of course, reduced to the most cruel slavery. But Hassan excited the jealousy of his Algerine subjects, by permitting those of his father-in-law, the king of Cuco, to trade at the port of Algiers for ammunition. The janizaries seized him, with several of his officers, and threw him in irons, in which state he was sent to Constantinople, under pretence of his having made an effort to establish in Algiers an independent kingdom. Though he cleared his character with the court, a new bashaw was appointed, who held his office but a few months, when Hassan was a second time reinstated in his dignity.

He now assembled a powerful army for the attack of Marsa-al-Quibber, one of the finest ports on this coast, and commanding the city of Oran, the strongest and best possession of Spain in Barbary. After a long investment of the place, and when it was on the point of surrender, the Venetian admiral, Doria, appeared for its relief, and compelled the Algerines to raise the siege. Hassan was recalled to Constantinople shortly after this event, where he died.

Under his successor, Mahamed, a romantic enter-
prize was undertaken against Algiers by John Gascon, a native of Valencia. He conceived the plan of burning the Algerine fleet, by night, in the harbour, and his project meeting with the approbation of the Spanish government, he was furnished with all the materials he required. He reached the mole gate of Algiers in safety; but his combustibles were so badly mixed, that during the delay of attempting to fire them, the garrison was alarmed, and the adventurer seized in attempting to escape. Mahamed ordered him to be fastened to a high gibbet by the feet, over

ALGIERS
Bujeya.

Attached
by the
Algerines.

Widely
overthrown.

Algerines
take 12,000
Spaniards.

Tremecen
added to the
state of
Algiers.

Attack
Marsa-al-
Quibber.

John
Gascon.

ALGIERS the spot where he landed, and, in contempt of his master, hung his commission on his toes. At the intercession of some of his troops, however, he was at first taken down; but others, joined by the populace, having murmured at this lenity, he was hung on the gibbet, or hook, where he instantly expired.

Our object, in this sketch, is rather to shew the manner in which this ill-gotten territory has been gradually acquired, and to give a brief history of the efforts of Christian nations to subjugate it, than to detail all the internal vicissitudes of its ever-changing government. It will be enough, therefore, to state, that Mahamed was succeeded by Ochali, a renegade, who, from the most abject condition, raised himself to this eminence, and to general consideration in all the Turkish settlements of the Mediterranean. He reduced the kingdom of Tunis to the allegiance of the Porte. In 1585, under Memi Arnaud, an Albanian, whose government appears to have exhibited some unusual traces of justice and civilization, we first find the Algerines passing the straits of Gibraltar, in considerable force, and extending their depredations as far as the Canary islands. Here they landed, and carried off three hundred persons (including the family of the governor), with great plunder, but admitted some of the principal ladies to ransom.

Algerines pass the straits of Gibraltar.

Their government underwent a considerable revolution at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and was at that period established in most of its present features. The Algerines having been subject to a perpetual succession of the most rapacious strangers for their viceroys, represented to the Porte their danger of subjugation from the Arabs and Moors, in union with the Christian states, unless a more equitable and stable form of government could be granted to them. Upon this remonstrance, they were permitted to choose their own governor, who was now called the dey, and to whom, in conjunction with the dewan, or divan, of the city, the absolute government of the state was to be committed; the Algerines engaging that the tribute should be punctually remitted, and due respect paid to the bashaw of the grand seignor, as the representative of their sovereign. A code of laws was at this time formed for the entire government of the regency, and a new oath of allegiance imposed on all the public authorities and merchants of the capital. The opening of this century was also marked by an unsuccessful attempt of John Andrew Doria upon the town of Algiers; but, through the prevalence of contrary winds, the expedition wholly failed. In 1616, the navy of the Algerines had increased to forty sail of vessels from two hundred to four hundred tons in burden, and was divided into two squadrons, one of which was stationed off cape St. Marin, between Seville and Lisbon, to intercept all Christian vessels trading in this direction, and the other in the port of Malaga. The government of France was now roused against these shameless depredators, and dispatched a fleet of fifty sail to cruise after them under Admiral Beaulieu. He dispersed their principal fleet, and took two of their ships; another being sunk by the commander, a renegade of Rochelle, rather than it should fall into the hands of the French. An English squadron was sent out against them in 1620, under the command of Sir Robert Mansel, but with no great success. He made an ineffectual attempt to burn the Algerine fleet in

Government altered.

Beaulieu's expedition.

Sir R. Mansel.

the harbour, but seems only to have stimulated their courage and cupidity by his appearance; for, immediately on his retiring, a new expedition was projected, and the Algerines returned laden with the spoils of forty English vessels; and now held all the powers of Europe in defiance, except Holland. Here, in 1625, during the war in the Low Countries, we find them sending a proposal of alliance, and offering to join the Dutch fleet with sixty sail of vessels against the Spaniards; but this disgraceful junction was declined.

The year 1628 was distinguished by a final effort of the Algerines to shake off the Turkish yoke. About that time, the children of the Turks who had been permitted to marry into Algerine families, had seized the citadel, and made a desperate and almost successful attack upon the government; and a favourable opportunity presented itself for the attempt at independence, in the exhausted state of the Turkish empire, then in the midst of an unsuccessful war against Persia. The avarice of these depredators became further stimulated to this effort by the twenty-five years' truce lately concluded between the Sultan and Ferdinand II. which bound them, as a portion of the Ottoman dominions, to peace with all the subjects of the emperor. This treaty they determined, in conjunction with the other Barbary powers, wholly to disregard, and proceeded to make prizes both of the friends and enemies of the Porte, carrying their audacity to the extremes of the Mediterranean. After having pursued a Dutch vessel into the port of Alexandretta, they had the temerity to land and burn the warehouses and public stores. The Turks contented themselves with a formal remonstrance. In these outrages they continued wholly unchecked for several years. In 1652 a French fleet being driven by stress of weather into Algiers, demanded the release of all Frenchmen then in slavery there, which being refused, the admiral carried off the Turkish viceroys and his cadi, with their whole retinue. In revenge for this, the Algerines demolished a French fort, called the bastion of France, which had been recently erected on their coast, in virtue of a treaty between Lewis XIII. and the Porte, and carried six hundred settlers into slavery. They also projected at this period an attack upon the treasures of Loretto, which only failed through contrary winds; and having landed at Puglia in Naples, they brought away many captives, and sweeping every vessel of importance from the Adriatic, returned with a prodigious spoil.

Capello, the grand admiral of the Venetians, prepared to avenge their depredations on the republic in 1653. A fleet of twenty-eight sail was equipped, and commissioned to take, burn, or destroy, every vessel of the Barbary states. He followed the Algerine squadron into the port of Valona, from which, after a blockade of some days, it attempted to escape, and was vigorously attacked and defeated off the shore. The Turkish commander of the castle, to the surprise of the Venetian admiral, supported the Algerines on this occasion; and a shot from one of his squadron happening to fall on a Turkish mosque of the town, the whole affair was resented as an attack upon the Porte, who compelled the Venetians to recall their commander, and pay a recompense of 500,000 ducats. Though Capello had scarcely left the Algerines a ship not to sea, we find them, in about two years, at the head of a still greater naval force than ever. During their

ALGIERS.

about the Turkish yoke.

Capello.

ALGIERS. lamentation for the loss of their former squadron, a corsair returned from the coast of Iceland with six hundred slaves of both sexes; and the Dutch French, and English, were now glad to obtain peace with them upon almost any terms. A spirited attack was made about this time upon an Algerine fleet of seven vessels, by a single Dutchman, but it was reserved for the vice-admiral of France, the Marquis du Queene, in 1682, to inflict upon this horde of robbers their first exemplary chastisement on their own shores. In the autumn of this year he vigorously bombarded the town, and set fire to it in so many directions, that but for a sudden change of wind, which drove the flames toward the sea, and forced the admiral from the harbour, he would at that time have utterly destroyed the place. Returning, however, in the May following, with a strong force under the joint command of himself and the Marquis D'Afiranville, he formally invested the place, upon whose defence the Algerines had bestowed every possible attention during the winter. Two days of the most active bombardment had again almost reduced the town to ashes, the palace of the dey was in ruins, when the French consul with a Turkish delegate were sent to the admiral to sue for peace. While the negotiations were pending, a portion of the French captives in Algiers were also sent to the squadron; but a division arising in the dowan respecting the terms of peace, the dey was butchered, by the soldiery, at the instigation of Mesomorto, the Algerine admiral, and himself elected in his room. This desperate barbarian refused to ratify any of the articles of peace; he exhibited the bloody flag of utter defiance on the walls; and massacring all the remaining French in the town, caused the consul to be fastened to a mortar and shot off against the bombarding fleet. Du Queene now redoubled his efforts for just vengeance; the flames of the city were re-kindled until they illuminated the sea for several leagues round; every vessel in the harbour, and all the works and fortifications were destroyed; nor would he leave the place until the whole of the lower part, and two-thirds of the upper part of the city was one heap of ruins. The dowan was ultimately compelled to send to Paris for peace. As a specimen of Algerine manners at this period, and no unfavourable exhibition of their talents in pleading such a cause as theirs, we cannot forbear subjoining the copy of the speech made by the Algerine envoy to Louis XIV. on this occasion:

“Most high, most excellent, most powerful, magnanimous, and invincible Louis XIV. emperor of the French, whom God preserve, and make happy, “I prostrate myself at the foot of thy sublime imperial throne, as the messenger of the joy with which our republic, and the dey, my master, have concluded a peace with thy lieutenant; and of their impatient desire, that thy sublime majesty will be pleased to put thy ratifying seal to it. The force of thy ever-victorious arms, and the strength of thy sword, have made them sensible of the fault which Baba Hassan committed, in declaring war against thy subjects. I am deputed hither to beg thy pardon for it, and to assure thee, in the sincerest terms, that henceforth our conduct shall be such as may deserve the friendship of the greatest emperor of the disciples of Jesus, and the only one we stand in dread of.

“The atrocious violence committed against the

person of thy consul is such as we should judge, would prove an invincible obstacle to a peace, if thy light, which, like that of the sun, penetrates all things, did not easily conceive how far an enraged and ungovernable populace can carry their furious resentment, in the midst of multitudes of their fellow-citizens, crushed in pieces by thy bombs; of which number they beheld their parents, brethren, and children, deprived either of life, effects, or liberty.

“But whatever their motives were, the violence we are far from excusing or extenuating. I come to beg of thee to turn for ever away thy sacred eyes from beholding a deed detested by all good men amongst us, especially those in power; who cannot therefore be justly charged with it.

“We hope, mighty emperor, great as Gemsehidi, opulent as Artour, magnificent as Solymon, and magnanimous as Akempts, that thy clemency will not reject these our earnest prayers; and the high opinion we have of thy unparalleled generosity, gives us a kind of assurance, that thou wilt order all our brethren who wear thy chains, to be set at liberty, as we ourselves have done, not only to thy subjects, but likewise to those who were under the shadow of thy angust name; that the joy for this peace may become equal and universal; and that a much greater number of mouths may be thereby opened to celebrate thy praise. That, when thy subjects return to their country, they may thankfully come and throw themselves at thy feet, while ours proclaim thy praise throughout the vast countries of Africa, and imprint in their children a veneration for thy incomparable virtues, and a due regard for the French nation.

“This will prove the happy foundation of an eternal peace; of which we promise an exact and religious observance on our part, in all its articles; not doubting but it will be equally observed by thy subjects; from whom thy authority claims an unlimited obedience.

“May the almighty and gracious Creator give a blessing upon this peace, and maintain a perpetual union, between the most high, most excellent, and most magnanimous emperor of the French, and the most illustrious and magnificent bashaw, dey, dowan, and the victorious armies of the republic of Algiers.”

Univ. History, Modern, vol. xv.

Fearful of his predecessor's fate, the ferocious dey now abdicated the sovereignty; and the disputes which took place between the Turkish viceroys and the Algerine deys, occupy the principal part of their domestic history to the conclusion of this century, when the Porte united the two dignities into one.

The English, in 1686, effected a very favourable English treaty of peace with the Algerines, which was renewed treaties at various periods by James II. William III. and Geo. II. on which last occasion all the former treaties with the Algerine republic are said to be ratified; and these treaties formed the basis of all the intercourse of Great Britain with the Algerine state, until that which arose out of the last expedition. In 1708, the Algerines obtained possession of Oran from the Spaniards, which they held until 1737. The history of the last century has been marked by various attempts of the Christian nations to compel the observance of their respective treaties by arms; none of which, however, were so distinguished as that of Du Queene, in the preceding century; a mixed and compromising policy,

Algerine speech to Louis XIV.

ALGIERS, being either dictated by necessity, and the more important wars of Europe, or being strangely thought to furnish the only method of humbling these faithless depredators.

Lord Exmouth's expedition.

Our establishments at Gibraltar and Port Mahon have hitherto preserved our relations with them more stable than those of any other state; but the general peace of the European continent, in 1816, induced the British government to endeavour to make some more permanent arrangements with the Algerines. They were required to treat the inhabitants of the Ionian isles as British subjects; a peace between the Barbary States and Sardinia and Naples was negotiated by our commander in the Mediterranean, and the abolition of all Christian slavery. To each of these proposals, except the last, the dey was willing to accede; but this he evaded, by pleading himself to be a subject of the Porte, and requested a delay of six months to be able to consult his government. Lord Exmouth agreed to wait three months, but had scarcely quitted the shores when a most barbarous outrage on the coral fisheries at Bona summoned him to return. To this place a number of Corsicans, Neapolitans, and Italians had long been in the habit of resorting for coral, under the protection of the British flag. On the 23d of May a body of 2,000 Algerine infantry and cavalry attacked their boats; the fire of the forts opened upon them at the same time, and nearly the whole of their unresisting crews were butchered. The British flags were seized and trampled under foot.

This event decided government to one of the most glorious efforts of the British arms. The Impregnable, of 98 guns, three 70-gun ships, and the *Leander*, of 50 guns, with four frigates, several smaller vessels, gun-boats, &c. were commanded to rendezvous at Gibraltar: here they were joined by five Dutch frigates and a sloop, and appeared before Algiers on the 18th of August. Very considerable additions had been made to the fortifications, and new works were thrown up on both flanks of the town, while an army of 40,000 troops had been collected from the interior. The ships were all in port, and between forty and fifty mortar and gun boats.

After a fruitless message to the dey, offering those terms of peace which were afterwards gladly accepted, on the morning of the 27th of August, Lord Exmouth, in the *Queens Charlotte*, personally commenced the attack, which was seconded by the whole fleet under his command, and well supported by the Dutch; the firing continued incessantly for twelve hours, when, towards sun-set, the whole of the Algerine fleet was destroyed, and one-half the town. The British admiral then ordered the fleet to anchor beyond the reach of such of the enemy's batteries and mortars as were still undestroyed, and the following morning had the satisfaction to receive the full acknowledgement of all the proposals made by him to the dey, in the following treaty.

I. The abolition for ever of Christian slavery.

II. The delivery to the British flag of all slaves in the dominions of the dey, to whatever nation they may belong, at noon, on the 31st August.

III. To deliver also to the British flag all money received by the dey for the redemption of slaves since the commencement of this year, at noon, also of the same day.

IV. Reparation being made to the British consul ALGIERS for all losses he may have sustained in consequence of his confinement.

V. The dey making a public apology, in presence of his ministers and officers, and begging pardon of the consul in terms dictated by the captain of the *Queens Charlotte*.

Lord Exmouth had the satisfaction of informing the British Admiralty, on the 1st of September, that all the slaves in Algiers were already embarked, with 357,000 dollars for Naples, and 25,000 for Sardinia.

Algiers is now a complete military despotism, under the absolute control of the dey, who is chosen from state of amongst the Turkish soldiery. On the demise of this chief—Algiers.

tain (if such a term may be used where scarcely one in ten meets a natural death), the soldiery, of every rank, repair to the palace, and each offers his vote in favour of a new candidate. He may be chosen out of the lowest ranks of the army; and until an unanimity that would scarcely be expected from them decides the general choice, the ballot is obliged to be kept open. M. Pannati states that they ordinarily wait for an absolute unanimity, and that then no candidate dare refuse the proffered sovereignty. While this may be the law of his election, the seimtar more frequently determines it. A factious multitude of the janizaries will not scruple to repair to the palace, and sending the dey a message to quit, will strike off his head at the avenue at which he presents himself; sometimes he has been cut down, surrounded by officers, in the midst of the din; at other times, but less frequently, recourse has been had to poison to get rid of a disagreeable or unfortunate master. The *dowan*, or *divan*, is almost a nominal council of state. Originally it consisted of 800 or 1,000 military officers, assisted in emergencies by all the resident officers of the city. But the age of the janizaries is now the only officer of important authority under the dey. All military orders are issued in the name of the aga; no offending soldier can be executed but under his warrant and superintendence; and the keys of the metropolis are entrusted to his care. This officer holds his place but two months, when he is succeeded by the *chik*, who is always the next senior officer in the army, and the retiring aga considered as superannuated, and exempt from service, but receives pay for the rest of his life. A secretary of state fills the next place in dignity, who is chosen out of the *yish bashaws*, or colonels, of whom thirty surround the aga in council, and from amongst whom the ambassadors to foreign states are generally selected. The *balloch-bashaws*, or oldest captains, and the *oldach-bashaws*, or oldest lieutenants, take the next rank, the former being generally about 800 in number, and the latter 400.

The military force of Algiers is very precarious in season, and has been variously rated, from 25,000, or force. 30,000, to upwards of 100,000 men. In fact, the Turkish soldiers, who are the main sinew of the army, do not exceed 15,000 or 16,000 men; the *cologis*, or Algerian Turks, increase it some thousands more; while the summons of the dey to the *Bedomins* of the south will bring in such numbers of these troops, as have sheiks in alliance with, or obedience to the dey. His naval forces are not ordinarily more than between twenty and thirty vessels, the greater part of which are the property of private adventurers, but under the

ALGIERS. command of the government in cases of exigency. The corsairs are treated with great respect by the dey and the people.

Revenue. The public revenue is exceedingly uncertain. Dr. Shaw computed the whole at no more than 300,000 dollars, of which 200,000 went to the maintenance of the army. The ransom of captives, monopoly of grain, and arbitrary imposts on strangers, are the chief sources of this income, together with a trifling impost on the trading transactions of the provincial Moors, Jews, and resident Christians. On an unusual demand upon his treasury, the dey will give directions for the strangling of two or three neighbouring governors, or rich Moors, and seize upon their coffers without scruple; or he will order an irruption of the Turks against the Bedouins, or declare war against some of the smaller European states. The merchants of the capital are, in such cases, exposed to similar treatment.

Trade. From Algiers they export grain, wax, coarse linen, cotton, raisins, dried figs, honey, dates, and brocades; and sugar and coffee, the fruits of their piracy; ostrich feathers, otto of roses, gold dust, brought by the caravans; horses, and cattle. It is also a good market for the purchase of shawls, both of home and foreign manufacture. Tapestries, velvet, and silks, are wrought here in small looms, and some inferior Turkish carpets. They import gunpowder, flints, and fire-arms of all descriptions; ship timber, deals, and all kinds of naval stores; finer cloths, gold and silver stuffs, damasks, raw cotton, spices, tin, iron, plated brass, lead, quicksilver, linen, tartar, alum, rice, cochineal, soap, copperas, aloes, vermilion, logwood, and brazil.

Administration of justice. Justice is ordinarily administered by the *cadi*, who attends a kind of police-court twice a-day to dispose of all suits and offences. But every principal cause, civil and criminal, is referred to the dey, or, in his absence, to some of his chief officers, who "sit in the gate" of the palace for the purpose of deciding these appeals. Capital punishments are inflicted, with the characteristic cruelty of this state, by burning, impaling, throwing on the gibbets, or hooks (where the criminal will sometimes hang for days by the ribs before he expires), hanging, or throwing in a sack into the sea. The latter is chiefly the punishment of women for infidelity. The Turks, it is said, are never punished in public, but privately, in the apartments of the aga.

Population. The basis of the population of Algiers consists of Moors and Turks, the latter filling every post of importance. A few resident Christians and Jews are found in the towns, but no class of the inhabitants must presume to rank with a Turk, who here retains all the bravery and openness of his character, mixed with no small portion of pride, indolence, and rapacity. The *cologis*, or children of the Turks by the Moorish females, form the most intelligent of the middle classes of the population. The Moors are principally divided into the *kabylas*, or mountain tribes, and the *berbers*, and are the mechanics of the country; the Arabian tribes keep themselves wholly distinct from the other inhabitants, and are principally connected with caravans and merchandize.

Illiterate condition. Printing, according to M. Pananti, has not yet been introduced into the Barbary states, under the fear of diffusing too much knowledge; all the instruction given to children consists in teaching the boys to read and repeat fifty or sixty aphorisms from the Koran; their

alfaqis, or learned men, of course, are jugglers of all descriptions, and the wit of their best-informed parties consists in attempting charades in verse, which others are to solve in rhyme.

A squadron making a prize immediately drafts out the crew, and replaces it with men from her own; she is then hastened to Algiers, or a neighbouring friendly port, the flag of the vanquished enemy is displayed under that of the corsair, and several guns announce the capture. Consigning her slaves to the captain of the port, the cruiser returns to sea; but the first step towards a final disposal of the cargo, is to submit an inventory of the whole to the dey, whose legal property every capture is supposed to be, but who contents himself, generally, with an eighth of the value, and a capricious selection of the slaves. All Christian slaves who are on board an Algerine when she makes a capture, are said to be allowed their regular share of the prize.

The slaves intended for sale are marched to the *basistan*, or auction mart, and made to exhibit their powers of action by walking backwards and forwards, as we exhibit a horse; a crier being in attendance to announce their number, trades, and respective qualities. There are middle-men, or brokers, in this disgraceful traffic, who speculate upon parties likely to be ransomed, or to pay them for their temporary maintenance. Working on board the galleys of the corsairs, keeping up the public roads and works, and all kinds of domestic servitude, are the lot of these unhappy captives. The women of better appearance, in a company of new slaves, are committed to the care of an officer, called the *checkebeld*, until offers for their ransom are made; poorer females are consigned at once to any treatment that their Turkish or Moorish masters may think proper to inflict.

The coin in circulation at Algiers is chiefly that of Spain, the foreign commercial nations; the Spanish doubloon and dollar are those most commonly seen: the sultans of gold pass for two dollars. Beside these, there is a copper *barba*, having the arms of the country on each side, and a square silver asper, worth about an English crown. The *pata chica* is an ideal sum, like the pound English, equal to 232 aspers.

The *cadi* is a judge ecclesiastical; and besides him *Religious*, there is a superior religious officer, the *mufsi*, or high priest, and an inferior one, called the *grand marabout*, or great saint, with whom conjointly rests the decision of all religious matters. The Algerines are generally some of the most licentious disciples of Mahomet.

ALGIERS, the capital of the state of that name, has the capital. been supposed to stand on the site of the ancient Icosium. It rises on the acclivity of a hill from the sea, in the form of an amphitheatre, and has a most imposing appearance when first seen by a stranger. It stands in N. lat. 36°, 49', E. lon. 2°, 12', and contains a population of about 150,000 souls. In the middle of the last century it was surrounded by a high wall, twelve feet in thickness, flanked with square towers, and a deep ditch, but these have, through neglect, fallen into decay, and the Algerines have long since directed their best efforts to a naval rather than a military defence of the place. The mole of the harbour forms a spacious semicircle, or basin, of one hundred and thirty fathoms long by eighty broad, within which ships of the largest burden may ride in safety. It is

Capture of slaves.

Sale of them.

ALGIERS, defended by a castle, built on the solid rock, and surmounted by a light-house. The batteries, which are numerous along the coast, are well supplied with guns, and, since the British expedition, are said to have been placed in a better state of defence than ever. Three powerful batteries defend the entrance of the harbour.

**ALGOON-
QUINS.**

The town consists of one principal street, running from east to west, in which are the corn and provision markets, and all the best shops and warehouses. The other streets, or rather shops and alleys, are so narrow, that two persons can scarcely walk abreast. The houses, which are lofty, have flat roofs, communicating with each other, and are built of brick or stone, with a paved court in the centre; the chimneys rise in the four corners of the terrace, and the whole is generally whitewashed once a-year. Those of the rich merchants are splendidly ornamented within with marble columns, and ceilings of superior workmanship. The baths and mosques are numerous and spacious; there are capacious and handsome barracks for the Turkish soldiery; but the best building of the place is the dey's palace, in the centre of the

principal street, containing two noble halls, one of which is apportioned to the dewan. There are separate baths for female use, to which no male person may dare to approach.

**ALHAM-
BRA.**

The city is supplied with water by means of two aqueducts, which convey it from the neighbouring hills to numerous fountains; and every house is provided with a cistern, communicating by pipes to these fountains. The inhabitants visit each other in the evening, and on the tops of their houses, on which they can form a promenade from one end of the town to the other; ladders being purposely placed to connect those of unequal height. The vicinity of Algiers is fertile, and even luxuriant in its produce; gardens and groves, studded with white cottages, relieve the eye on every side, and invite the citizens, as far as nature can go, to a grateful and tranquil retirement. Vines of great beauty and fruitfulness, melons, orange, citron, and fruit trees abound in these gardens, which are watered by numerous rivelets, and command a most extensive prospect on the sea.

ALGOA, or ZWARTHOFF BAY, a bay of South Africa, in S. lat. 33°, 56', E. lon. 26°, 53'. A river of the same name runs through the adjoining valley.

ALGODANALE ISLANDS, a cluster of islands on the coast of Peru, abounding in fresh water. They are distant eight leagues from the harbour of Cobija. W. lon. 73°, 50', S. lat. 21°, 56'.

ALGOL, or Medusa's head, in Astronomy, marked β , a star of variable magnitude in the constellation Perseus. Montanari first observed its variations, in 1694, to be from the second to the fourth magnitude. Afterwards, Flamsteed made the same observations; but Goodricke, of York, discovered the period of these variations to be two days, twenty hours, forty-eight minutes, and fifty-six seconds. Wurm, during fifteen years' observation, made only the small addition of two seconds, seven minutes, to Goodricke's calculations; but Lalande makes the period of variation two days, twenty hours, forty-nine minutes, and two seconds; and asserts that, in its brightest state, this star is sometimes more brilliant than α in the same constellation, while at other times it is far less so.

ALGONQUINS, the name of several tribes of savage North American Indians, of the same general stock, but the exact limits of whose country it would be difficult to define. They are supposed to occupy the tract which is nearly formed into an island by the rivers St. Lawrence and Iroquois. These tribes were once closely connected with the Iroquois Indians, and considered as their protectors; but their allies and protégés soon began to rival their former masters in the arts of hunting and of war, and jealousies arose which almost proved fatal to the existence of the Algonquins, although they were assisted by the French. The language of the Algonquins is considered as the most ancient and copious of the three radical tongues of the North American Indians, and is preferred to either the Huron or the Sioux. There is a church devoted to the Romish religion in their territory, but the exertions of

the priesthood have hitherto had little effect on their morals; they are in the general practice of polygamy, and much given to the use of intoxicating liquors. The country around them is cultivated in miserable and detached patches of ground, and this solely by their women, the men being engrossed with fishing and hunting.

ALGOR, in Medicine, a term designating an unusual and morbid coldness in any part of the body.

ALGORAB, in Astronomy, a fixed star, marked β , of the third magnitude, in the right wing of the constellation Corvus.

ALGORITHM, an Arabic term for the art of calculating any kind of numbers readily and accurately. It is principally used by Spanish writers to express various practical operations in algebra. We also speak of the algorithm of integers, of fractions, and of surds; and sometimes apply the term generally to the rudiments of arithmetic and of algebra.

ALGUAZIL, in Spanish Polity, an officer appointed by the judge, whose duty it is to execute, or procure the execution of, all the ordinary decrees of justice.

ALHABOR, in Astronomy, an Arabic term for the star Sirius.

ALHAMA, a town of Spain, in the province of Granada, pleasantly situated on a river of the same name, and between two lofty mountains. It possesses warm medicinal baths, and drinking waters, which are accounted very salutary. This town is celebrated for a gallant defence made by the Spaniards against the Moors, in 1481, and for the immense plunder the latter obtained from it. It was the Artigis of the ancients, and some Moorish embellishments still remain on its baths. W. lon. 3°, 26', N. lat. 36°, 57'.

ALHAMBRA, a town of Spain, in the province of Arragon, and district of Teruel, lying on a river of the same name. It is seven miles distant from Teruel. There is likewise a village of this name in the province of La Mancha, in Spain.

ALHAM- ALHAMIRĀ, MEDINAT ALHAMRĀ, or ALHAM-
RA. RA.

of ancient Granada, when it was one of the principal seats of the empire of the Moors in Spain. Some of the Arabian historians suppose it to have been so named from the colour of its materials; according to others, it is a corruption of Alhamar, the name of the founder's tribe. It was the Alcazar, or royal palace of the kings of Granada; but grew, by numerous additions, at last, "as it were, into another city." Ibn-ul Khatib, or Alkatib, as his description of this kingdom and capital is preserved in Casiri's *Bibliotheca Arabico-Escorialensis*, thus speaks of its ancient and complete appearance: "Here are seen lofty towers, very strongly-fortified citadels, superb palaces, and other splendid edifices, the view of which fills the spectator's mind with admiration. There a vast mass of water, whose loud murmuring noise is heard at a distance, flows from various springs, and irrigates both the fields and meadows. The outer walls of the city of Granada are surrounded by most choice and spacious gardens, where the trees are so thickly set, as to resemble hedges; yet not so as to obstruct the view of the beautiful towers of the Alhamrā, which sparkle like stars among the leaves. No spot, in short, is without its orchards, vineyards, and gardens; and so abundant is the produce of fruits and vegetables, reared on the widely-extended plain, that the wealth alone of the first princes can equal their annual value."

Seated on the northern brow of a lofty eminence, which commands a full view of the city of Granada on the one side, and of a charming country on the other, Alhamrā, yet enclosed in its ruined walls many monuments of ancient art, and traces of its former splendour, which successfully rival, if they do not exceed in magnificence, all other remains of antiquity. The ascent to it from Granada is through a narrow street, the Calle de los Gomeles, so called from an ancient Moorish family, which leads to a massive gate, built by the Emperor Charles V. opening into the outward enclosure of the palace. A very steep avenue of elms, which soon increases to a wood, now meets the eye, intersected in many directions by wild, neglected walks, where streams of clear water, obstructed by the rubbish of their old channels, spread over the whole road. A large fountain adorns the platform near the top of the hill. Here you turn short to the left, and come under the walls of the inner enclosure. Its appearance is that of an old town, exhibiting a long range of high battlemented walls, interrupted at regular distances by large lofty square towers.

The Arabian and Spanish portions of the buildings of the Alhamrā form their first and most obvious distribution. The Arabian palace was commenced by Muhammad Abū Abdillāh Ben Nasr, the second of the Moorish kings of Granada, who fortified the mountain on which it stands, and regularly appropriated a part of the public revenue towards the expenses of the project. His son and grand-

son continued and enlarged it, and the whole of its noble structures were completed by the addition of the principal entrance, under Abū-l Huḳīm, represented as an accomplished poet and scholar, in the year of the Hegira 749, or A. D. 1348. The Spanish palace was commenced by Charles V. on a portion of the ruins of the Moorish edifices. The design appears to have been worthy of that prince and of this delightful spot; but only one suite of apartments ever was finished. Of these, which are fast hastening to utter ruin, little is worth notice, compared with the surrounding scene. Some few faded paintings and falling ceilings indicate the style of decoration to have been handsome; but the whole of the Arabic work is in a state of astonishing preservation, when we consider who have been its masters, and the singular changes of its fate.

Few traces are visible of the external boundaries of the Arabian palace, and these are encumbered with modern buildings; but the courts present an interesting peculiarity in the arrangement of its magnificent structures. These were so contrived as to appear like a continuation of the series of apartments, and the whole being upon a perfect plane, the halls and galleries, and receding arches, with their fragrant furniture, could all be seen through the refreshing haze of the central fountains, which here first met the eye. The court of entrance, and its two principal gates, are, perhaps, as remarkable as any portion of these interesting ruins. This court is called the Commun, or Del Mesuca, the Common Baths. It is a parallelogram, surrounded with a peristyle paved with marble, with a deep marble basin of water in the centre, having on each side (as Swinburne saw it) a parterre of flowers, and a row of orange trees. The descent to this basin is by two handsome flights of steps. The ceilings and walls of the court are encrusted with a fret-work in stucco; and here begins that series of minute and intricate combination of geometrical figures, of which no verbal description can give any adequate idea, but of which Mr. Murphy's splendid work on the *Arabian Antiquities of Spain*, contains many beautiful drawings. The Gate of the Law, or of Judgment, introduces the stranger to this court, on which is an Arabian inscription, assigning the date of its erection (A. D. 1348), and praying for long life to the builder of this "lasting monument of glory."

Directly facing this, is the door of the Apartment of the Lions, an oblong court, one hundred feet in length by fifty broad, enclosed by a colonnade, seven feet broad at the sides, and ten at the ends. Two cabinets, or porticoes, about fifteen feet square, project into this court at each end; it is paved with coloured tiles, and the colonnade with white marble. The roof is about nine feet in height, supported by slender columns, very fantastically and singularly placed; but the ceiling is more highly finished than that of the preceding apartment. Almost boundless are the ornaments and grotesque figures that display themselves over the whole interior,

ALHAM-
RĀ.

but not any attempt at the representation of animal life is to be found. The peculiar ornament which, from the Arabs, has been called *Arabsque*, pervades all the compartments of the walls, and the orthodox painters and sculptors of the scene have scrupulously avoided throughout the Alhamri the slightest violation of that Mahometan precept which forbids every method of representing man. But the marble fountain in the centre of the court of the lions, is its great distinction. It consists of twelve hindly-shaped lions, muzzled, bearing on their backs an enormous basin, out of which a lesser one arises. The pipes of the fountain threw up a column of water, which falling down into these basins, passed through the mouths of the lions into a reservoir, which communicated, by unseen channels, with various jets-d'eau of the palace. In every part of this sumptuous edifice they had an abundant supply of water, and that perfect control over which none of the moderns have exceeded. Around the upper part of the fascia of this fountain are these verses:

Blessed be He who gave our sovereign, Muhammad, a mansion that in beauty surpasses all others, the delightful mansion.
But if not so, yet this lower midday wooden; to which heaven forbids that in the two sanctuaries even any thing comparable should be found!

With a pile of dazzling pearl rising over a surface on which the gem-like bubbles reeling dance!
In a circle of silver flowing among jewels which it resembles in beauty, pure and contending with them in splendour.

Flowing indeed it appears to the eye as the solid mass, so that we are at a loss to distinguish which it is that really flows.

Seest thou not how the water runs coolly together, whilst various currents appear descending from above?

Like the lover, whose eye-lids gush with tears; and who restrains them when afraid of an informer.

But, it is in fact any other than a bright cloud, from which supplies are poured out abundantly to the fountains.

Recessing the extended hand of the Khalif, when engaged in imparting benefits to the furious lions of war.

Then, O thou, who beholdest the lions, which are at rest, assure thyself of safety; life is waiting to enable them to rush forth!

And, O Thou, who inheritest the glories of the sons of Nasr! to the most noble of family belongs that possession of greatness which princes rightly claim.

On thee be the constant blessing of heaven! Mayst thou restrain the extravagancies of thy subjects, and subdue all opposers!

Through the colonnade of this apartment the traveller is led, on the southern side, to a circular room, designed to contain refreshments. Here also was a fountain, under an elegant cupola, which threw the light in from a thousand directions above, while the elegance of the stucco finishings is said to exceed all powers of description. There are next two anti-chambers, which conduct to the Torre de Las Dos Hermanas, or the tower of the two sisters, so called from the appearance of two elegant slabs of marble laid into the pavement. This is entered by a gate, which, in profusion of ornaments, exquisitely finished, surpasses all the rest; and in the prospect it commands through an elegant range of apartments to a noble window opening on the adjoining plains. The first of these is a concert-room, furnished with four balconies for the orchestra, with a jet-d'eau in the centre. The marble flooring is, in point of the size of the pieces, and evenness of the colours, equal to any specimen of this kind of work that remains. The two slabs that give their name to this part of the palace measure fifteen feet by seven and a half, without stain or flaw. To about the height of four feet, porcelain Mosaic figures skirt the walls, the upper parts of which are divided into compartments of stucco of one

ALHAM-
RĀ.

design with several of the adjacent halls and apartments. A fretted cone forms the ceiling, protected by an outer roof, which rests on walls continued above the top of the dome, and completes this beautiful hall. A small myrtle garden now leads round, through a portion of the Spanish palace, to the little tower, or dressing-room of the sultana, called El Tocador. It projects over the northern wall of this palace from an open gallery, through which it receives light by a door and three windows. In one corner is a perforated marble flag, through which perfumes appear to have been furnished from censers below; and here it is supposed that the queen, or sultana of the Moorish prince sat to purify and adorn herself. Charles V. caused this beautiful room to be painted with the principal occurrences of several of his campaigns; and his famous motto, "*Plus outre*," glitters in this part of the palace in various directions. A long and narrow passage now leads to the Sala de Embajadores, or the hall of ambassadors, in which was the throne of the Grenadine kings—"the sublime dome," of which, in the language of one of the inscriptions here, all the several apartments are the "daughters."

This is the sublime dome, and we [the several apartments] are her daughters; but to me belong endurance and dignity above all my kindred.

Members are we of the same body, but I am indispitably the heart in the midst of them; and from the heart springs the energy of soul and of life.

Granted that my fellows are the constellations of the sodic in the heaven of this structure; yet in me exists, over what they possess, the pre-eminence of the sun.

Me my august sovereign, Yusef, has adorned with the robes of glory and of preference, without disguise.

And he has constituted me the throne of empire; the emulgence of which he bequeathed by him to whom belongs the divine glory and the celestial throne.

A narrow antichamber here finely conducts the stranger to the entrance-court, from which we began our circuit on the left and on the right, to the great audience-hall in the tower of Comares. This is an apartment thirty-six feet square, and thirty-six feet high to the cornice, from which, to the centre of the cupola, is eighteen feet. On three sides of this room the walls are fifteen feet thick, on the other nine, inlaid with Mosaic work of all colours. Over a recess on the right-hand side of the entrance are these verses:

O son of kings, and of the descendants of kings, to whom the stars yield in dignity when your origins are compared!

If thou raisest up a palace, there is no equal to it; it comprises greatness, and all degrees of greatness are completely beneath it where are rehearsed the rare wonders of the government, deposited in records and in books.

On a lovely emulgence thou hast pitched, for the faith, a tent of glory, to support which not a cord is stretched.

How many are the good deeds which thou hast already done in the land of Islam, wonderful to their effects!

Benefits conferred without reproach for them; gifts made without return for them; mercy shown without severity; largeness without blame!

This recess seems to have been used as a repository for state papers, and the allusions of these verses will generally be found appropriate to the apartments in which they appear. We have been indebted for them to *A Collection of the Historical Notices and Poems in the Alhamri of Grenada*, which appears as a supplement to *The History of the Mahometan Empire in Spain*, 4to. London, 1816.

Under this range of apartments is a lower floor, consisting of summer and bed rooms, of various descrip-

ALHAMBRA.

R.A.

tions, amongst which is the royal state chamber, communicating by a gallery to the upper suite. Here the alcoves for two state beds are still found, a fountain in the centre, and, behind the alcoves, doors to the royal baths. These consisted of small closets, with marble cisterns for the use of children; two rooms for persons at maturity; and vaults for boilers, &c. Light was admitted through the carved ceilings; large slabs of white marble formed the basins; and the walls were ornamented with stained earthen tiles. In an octagon vault adjoining is a kind of whispering gallery, and a labyrinth, supposed to be designed for the amusement of children. A strong iron grating fences off one of the passages, which is called (though for what reason does not appear) the prison of the sultana. A long slip, called the king's study, and several vaults which seem to have been used as burial places, complete this portion of the palace.

In all the principal apartments of the Alhambra, two currents of air would be kept constantly in motion by the apertures near the ceiling taking off the heated and redundant stream, drawn upwards by the purer currents through the lower openings. Tubes of baked earth were also placed round the walls, to circulate heat from the furnaces whenever it was required. The doors were large and few; and the windows, except toward the delightful prospect of the northern side, were so contrived as to give the light, without extending the view beyond the interior. One of the apartments bears this inscription:

My windows admit the light and exclude the view of external objects; lest the beauties of nature should divert your attention from the beauties of my work.

On the whole, indeed, the gradations in the colour of the ornaments of the Alhambra, their astonishing brightness and variety, the beautiful mixtures of pink, light blue, dusky purple, and gold, which occasionally relieve each other on a ground generally white, the astonishing accuracy with which the different sections of the Arabesque are fitted into each other, and the almost infinite multiplication of geometrical shapes in them, together with the uninjured state of some of the most delicate part of the workmanship, and even of the finest wood, demonstrate that whatever are the attainments of modern science, many are the arts of ornamental architecture which have been here exercised, that are to us unknown; and far more effectual the precautions that have been taken against the ravages of time upon its materials, than any with which modern architects appear to be acquainted. The veneering of the ceilings and the wood-work of the floors are in many parts entirely of pine; of which several pieces have been closely examined by modern travellers, and proved to be perfectly sound; not the slightest mark whatever of dry-rot, worm, or insect, being observed in any part of them. Some writers have ascribed this to what has been called the *lacing*, or depriving them of their sap at the time of felling; while others have attributed it to the various coats of paint with which they are covered. The first of these is white, and seems to have been an oil paint whose basis is white lead; the second is brown, composed of red lead, and a cement like carpenter's glue; over these are laid the finer colours, of which it is remarked, that if any difference can be traced in the degrees of their present preservation, the white is found to retain the most astonishing lustre.

The roof of the Sala de Comares (thus formed) is sometimes mistaken for mother-of-pearl. Mr. Murphy observes, that the durability of the wood work in the Alhambra is, by the Spaniards, ascribed to its being coated with a peculiar kind of glue, called *agüe glue*, and garlic pounded together in a mortar; these, with the addition of vermillion, are then boiled over a gentle fire, until the mixture becomes as thin as water. Planks cemented together with this composition will, it is said, adhere so firmly, as to break in any other part than at the juncture; while the garlic would prevent injury from insects.

The Arabian historian before quoted thus describes the environs of this delightful residence in its ancient splendour. "Here also may the spectator behold the royal demesnes, which are rendered wonderfully pleasant by rows of trees, and by a variety of plants, lofty towers rising with a charming aspect, a spaciouly-extended plain, and waters constantly flowing, for the use of the baths, and for turning mills; the revenue thence derived is appropriated to supporting the fortifications of the city. The royal farms cover the space of about twenty miles, and are cultivated and adorned by numerous able-bodied husbandmen and choice animals. In most of them are castles, mills, and mosques; and to these ornaments of the farms must be added—what is of the utmost importance in rural economy—the exuberant fertility of the soil. Many towns, distinguished for their population and their produce, lie scattered around the royal estates; some of these are laid down to pasture, while others are appropriated to tillage. To these succeed villages, hamlets, and other very populous places, amounting in all to upwards of three hundred. The number of colleges and places of worship is fifty; and without the city walls more than one hundred and thirty water-mills are computed to be at work." "No wonder," exclaims Mr. Swinburne, "the Moors regretted Granada: no wonder they still offer up prayers to God every Friday for the recovery of this city, which they esteem a terrestrial paradise."

Opposite to the Alhambra, but evidently connected with it as a place of retirement and elegant luxury, were the royal villages of Al Generalife, and the Casa de San Domingo. The latter, as it is now seen, consists principally of an elegant portico and lofty hall of curious workmanship, surrounded by fountains, walks, and arbours; but the situation of Al Generalife, on an opposite eminence to the palace, and its connection with the numerous natural streams of the neighbourhood, must have rendered it a most enchanting spot. Some ancient cypress trees (called the queen's cypresses, from a traditional amour of one of the sultans, which is said to have been discovered in this place) still mark the site behind the principal building on which the garden rose to the brow of the hill whose acclivity contained the villa. The gardens spread around in the form of an amphitheatre, watered by numerous streams falling into cascades and losing themselves among the foliage in all parts of the mountain. Near the summit is a sort of stone bank projecting from the side, which is said to have been used as an observatory by the Moorish kings during the siege of Granada by the Spaniards. See MURPHY'S *Antiquities of Spain*, &c.; *History of the Mahometan Empire in Spain*, 4to. 1816; SWINBURNE'S *Travels through Spain*, &c.

ALIA.
—
ALIBAMONS.

ALIA, in Antiquity, solemn games among the Rhodians, celebrated on the 24th day of the month Gorpies, answering to the month Bedromion, or the third of the Athenian year, in honour of the sun ($\alpha\lambda\iota\epsilon\sigma$, or $\alpha\lambda\iota\epsilon\sigma$), said to have been born in Rhodes, the inhabitants of which were reputed his posterity, and therefore called Helindes. Boys as well as men engaged in these games, and the victor received a crown of poplar. Schol. on *Pindar Olymp.* vii. Strabo, lib. xiv.

ALIAMON, or HALIAMON, in Ancient Geography, a river of Macedonia, falling into the gulph of Therna, or Thessalonica, between the towns of Pydna and Dium. Strabo, l. vii. It separated Macedonia Proper from Thessaly, according to Caesar, *Bel. Civ.* lib. iii. c. 36. Pliny, lib. xxxi. c. 10. says its waters had the property of whitening the fleeces of sheep.

ALIARTUS, or HALIARTUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Boeotia, on the south side of the lake Copais. It lay in a confined situation, between the lake and a lofty mountain, and had the river Permessus flowing near it. Strabo, lib. ix. During the Boeotian war it was besieged by the Phocians (Diodor. lib. xiv. c. 81.), and in the Macedonian war, C. Lucetius, the pretor, laid siege to it, and took it by assault, after it had made a very vigorous defence. The city was then totally destroyed, its statues and paintings conveyed to the Roman vessels, and the land belonging to it assigned to the Athenians. Livy, l. xlii. c. 63. At one period it gave its name to the lake adjoining. There was also an inland town of Messenia named Aliartus, noticed by Ptol. lib. iii. c. 16.

ALIAS, in Law, another, or second writ issued from the king's courts at Westminster, after a *latitat*, *caipis*, or *quo minus*, has been issued without effect.

ALIAS DICTUS, in Law, the manner of describing a defendant when sued on a bond or other speciality. After the name and common addition, then comes the *alias dictus*, describing him by the exact name and addition, whereby he is bound in the bond or speciality in question.

ALIBAMONS, an aboriginal tribe of Americans, whose principal settlement is on the banks of the river Alabama, in Georgia. These people are generally healthy and robust, and the women beautiful. Polygamy is strictly forbidden among them; and the men are much inclined to jealousy; but the unmarried females are licentious in their conduct. Their genealogies are reckoned through the female line alone. They believe in a future state, which is to perpetuate all the sensual gratifications of the present; and bury their dead in a sitting position, supplying them with tobacco and a pipe, to obtain them a favourable introduction into the other world. Like other tribes of Indians, they go out in large hunting parties in the decline of the year, and travel 80 or 100 leagues from home, crossing the lakes and rivers of their course in canoes, which they take with them. Their return is at seed-time, about March, laden with skins, and dried fish and flesh, the fruits of their expedition. In this, their roasted maize prepared with it, consists their principal food, which they call *sagumitti*. They worship small images, called *manites*, and pretend to cure maladies by the means of certain incantations. Suicides are regarded as cowards amongst them, and thrown contemptuously into the

rivers. The women are said to be very industrious in tanning skins, making shoes and baskets, spinning the wool of the wild beavers, and preparing the food of the tribe.

ALIBI, in Law, a mode of defence, the establishment of which consists in showing that the accused person was *elsewhere* at the time of the committal of the crime charged upon him.

ALICANT, the Lucentum of the ancients, a seaport town of Valentia, in Spain, near Segura. It is a very strong and compactly-built place; celebrated for its wine and fruits, the fertility of the soil arroual, and its active commerce. The chief exports are dates, figs, barilla, brandy, raisins, capers, anise, saffron, wine, and a very excellent soap. The population is about 16,500. It is 75 miles S. of Valentia. W. lon. 0°, 24'. N. lat. 38°, 35'. The harbour is a short distance from the town, and is one of the best on this coast.

ALICATA, a small fortified town on a peninsula of Sicily, near the sea, 19 miles S. E. of Girgenti, and 60 S. W. of Catania. It has a castle called St. Angelo, which, with the town walls and fortress, are in a state of rapid decay. This place contains about 10,000 inhabitants; it carries on a brisk trade in corn with Malta. N. lat. 37°, 11'. E. lon. 13°, 51'. There is a mountain near the town of Alicata of the same name.

ALICE, in Ancient Geography, a river of Sicily, which bounded the Locrian state. Quantities of anchovies (Lat. Alex, Alicis) are found in this stream, from which it is therefore probable that the fish derived its Latin name.

ALICONDA TREE, in Botany, a tree found in the kingdom of Congo, on the coast of Africa. It bears a large gourd-like fruit, the kernel of which affords the natives a pulpy nutritive food; and its shell, or rind, serves them as a drinking vessel, communicating a pleasant, spicy flavour to its contents. The leaves, also, are sometimes eaten. The bark of the tree, being properly prepared, yields a coarse thread, with which the Africans weave a kind of cloth, and even ropes are said to be manufactured from it. The whole tree is of immense size, and is supposed to be the largest that grows.

ALICUDA, or ALICUTI, anciently ERICUSA, one of the Lipari islands, in the Mediterranean, off the northern coast of Sicily. It is about six miles in circumference, of a most romantic and even awful appearance from the sea; being evidently of volcanic origin, and totally inaccessible, except on the eastern and south-east shore. Its geology is curious, and affords many speculations to the mineralogist. Spallanzani, tom. iii. and iv. of his *Voyages dans les Deux Siciles*, gives it much attention. It was once far better cultivated than at present, being principally covered with palm trees, and a few fishermen's huts. It contains about 300 inhabitants, who are often distressed for water. It is said to have been called Ericusa formerly, from the quantity of "erica," or "heath," which grew here. Strabo says that it derived its name from some plant, which seems to favour the supposition. It is 15 miles W. of Lipari, in N. lat. 38°, 31'. E. lon. 14°, 32'.

ALICULA, in Antiquity, a habit sometimes worn by the Roman children, until they assumed the toga virilis.

ALIDADE, or ALHIDANE, in Astronomy, an Arabian name for the rule which moves round the centre

ALIBAMONS.
—
ALIDADE.

ALIDADE of a quadrant, and carries a telescope. It was also applied to the index which moves along the limb of astronomical and geometrical instruments.

ALIEN.

A'LIE'N, *v.* Lat. *Alienus*, *alius*. Another. To give, sell, or otherwise convey from one to another.—An alien (written by old writers, *alyan*) is one from another country; a foreigner; a stranger. To alienate (*act.*) is to estrange, to remove from, to withhold from.

For if I were of lood, ye were said some bigynne,
Aliens said some kind, our heritage to wyne.

H. Brunt, p. 144.

And for this they provided, that if any were sold abroad into the church, or into any manner of monastery, or king or any other lord, mediate or immediate, that might take leave thereby, might enter therinto.

Sir Thom. More's Works, p. 333.

Gyf that thou wilst be aliened vnhaw,
To be thy mach or thy gud soe in law.

Douglas, book vii. p. 219.

Symond, what seemeth to thee? byngis of evyle of whom taken this tribute, of her sonnes either of alien?

Wylf. Math. chap. xvii.

And alienat not thy mynde away fro as bypysse offendid with our trespassers, but for thy clevenesse and mekenesse, pardon our offences, which we comyt through infirmite and weakness.

Udal. Math. chap. vi.

Lykevise the dutie of the natural bore must be performed to the parent if he be true nede though he be an hethen, and alienat from the phosjel.

Id. Math. chap. x.

Schir, we besek your sovereign celsitude,

Of our doctours this self compassion;

Queson we may in way make, be the rude,

Without we seek some alienation

Of our land, for their supportation.

Sir David Lindsay's Works, v. ii. p. 79.

The politick Earl of Kent, Godwyn, finding this weakness in the King (Haroldianus), began to think himself of aspiring; and to make the better way for it he sought by all means to alien the subjects heart from the Prince.

Baker's Chronicle.

It is enacted in the laws of Venice,

If it be proved against an alien,

That by direct or indirect attempts

He seek the life of any citizen,

The party against the which he doth contrive,

Shall cease one halfe his goods.

Shakespeare. Merch. of Ven. act iv.

Thou strong retreat! thou sure entail'd estate,

Which sought has power to alienate.

Thou pleasant, honest flatterer! for none

Flatter untho' they men but thou [Hope] alone.

Corley's Poem for Hope.

O alienate from God, O spirit accurs'd,

Forsaken of all good! I see thy fall

Determin'd, and thy hapless crew involve'd

In this pernicious fraud. *Milton's Par. Lost, book v.*

Honour and justice due to my successors, forbid me to yield to such a total alienation of that power from them, which civility and duty, no less than justice and honour should have bestowed them to have asked of me.

Edm. Basilike.

There are laws in Scotland, loosely worded, that make it capita to spread lies of the king or his government, or to alienate his subject from him.

Burnet's Own Times.

Alien, misplaced, ambitious ornaments, no doubt, are every where disgusting; but in the grand entrance of a house, they should particularly be avoided.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

To receive favours, and to alienate the property of the prince; to obtain friendship, and then to desert him; to act without wisdom in his affairs; and to eat his bread: these are the faults of a minister.

Sir William Jones's Illiados.

It is notorious, that many popish bishops were no less alienators of their episcopal endowments, than many other bishops of the Protestant church proved afterwards, in the reign of Edward the Sixth and Elizabeth.

ALIEN.

T. II. *Annals*, *Life* of Sir T. Pope.

ALIEN, in Law, a person born out of the king's dominions. Thus there are alien friends, those born in the countries in alliance with the state; and alien enemies, those born in countries with which it is at war. Children born of English parents, whilst under temporary allegiance or obedience to a foreign power, are not aliens by the law of England; our children born of English parents on the high seas; or children of English ambassadors resident at foreign courts. British parents who have been guilty of felony or high treason, make their children aliens who are born abroad. 25 Edw. III. c. 7. Anne, c. 5. 10 Anne, c. 6. &c. But the last two acts, with 4 Geo. II. c. 21. and 13 Geo. III. c. 21. establish all children born out of the king's allegiance, whose grandfathers, by the father's side, or whose fathers were natural-born subjects, in the rights of natural-born subjects, though their mothers were alien, unless their male parents were, at the birth of the said children, in the service of no enemy. But such grand-children must be Protestants, and resident within the realm, to claim the privilege of exemption from the alien duty; and the claim to any estate or interest must be made within five years. The issue of an English woman by an alien, born abroad, is an alien.

An alien cannot purchase lands for his own use; an alien female cannot be endowed with lands, although she become the wife of a natural-born subject; nor can a Jewess, the wife of a naturalized Jew. But an alien may acquire any kind of personal property; his children born in Great Britain are generally to be held natural-born subjects; he may bring or defend any action or process at law, for the protection of it, and may dispose of such property by deed, will, or otherwise. Aliens also may take leases of lands, and estates in trust; but these rights of aliens must be understood as of alien friends only; alien enemies having no rights at all, and no privileges, unless by the king's especial favour.

An alien may, by letters patent, *ex donatione regis*, be made an English subject, and is then called a denizen, being in a middle state between a natural-born subject and an alien. He may now purchase lands, or possess them by devise, but cannot inherit them, although his heirs may inherit from him; the parent of the denizen being held to have had no inheritable blood, which the denizen possesses after becoming so. See DENIZEN. He is still, however, subject to the alien duty, and there is no method of giving him the full personal rights of a natural-born subject but by act of parliament. Even after naturalization, an alien cannot become a member of the House of Commons or Privy Council, or hold offices or grants under the crown; and by stat. 12 William III. c. 2. and 1 Geo. I. c. 4. every bill for the naturalization of particular persons shall contain the proper disqualifying clauses. See NATURALIZATION.

Certain alien acts of recent date (33 Geo. III. c. 4. and 34 Geo. III. c. 43, 67) arose out of the influx of strangers into this country from the continent during the French revolution. They compel the masters of ships arriving from foreign ports, under certain penalties, to give an account at every port of the number and names of every foreigner on board to the customs-house officers; appointing justices and others to grant,

ALIN.
—
ALIGHT.

passports to such aliens; and giving the king power to restrain and to send them out of the kingdom, on pain of transportation, and, on their return, of death. The same acts also direct an account to be delivered of the arms of aliens, which, if required, are to be delivered up; and aliens are not to go from one place to another in the kingdom without passports. Those acts have been from time to time amended and continued, as in 43 Geo. III. c. 155, &c. They have generally been supposed to be applicable only to a state of warfare, or decisive political danger from the influx of foreigners: the spirit of our constitution, and the nature of our Protestant principles, having always inclined our governors to make England a place of refuge for the persecuted, and of succour to the distressed of all countries.

ALIKI DUTY, in English Polity, otherwise called *petty customs*, or navigation duty, an impost laid on all goods imported by aliens beyond the duty paid for the same goods by natural-born subjects.

ALIENATION, in Law, from *admare*, to pass away, a transfer of property from one person to another, and chiefly relating to lands and tenements. Alienation in mortmain is to pass or transfer lands or tenements to a religious body politic, or house. Alienation in fee is the sale of lands, &c. in fee simple. All persons possessing lands, &c. may alien them to others, with particular exceptions, for no person can transfer to another more than he himself has received. A tenant for life incurs a forfeiture of the estate by alienation to another, Co. Lit. 113. In feoffments, conditions that the feoffee shall not alien are void, Co. Lit. 206, Heb. 261, but a grant of an estate in fee, on condition that the grantee, or person to whom the grant is made, shall not alien to any one particular person is valid, and where a reversion stands in the possession of the donor of an estate, he may restrain an alienation by that title, Lit. 361. Wood's *Inst.* 141.

ALIFE, **ALIFFE**, **ALLIFA**, and **ALIPHA**, in Ancient Geography, a town of the Samaritans, near the river Valtarnus, which bounded their country toward the west. Strabo, lib. iii. It was noted for manufacturing drinking cups. Her. lib. ii. sat. viii. v. 33. The Romans took this city a. c. 309. Livy, l. ix. c. 33. It is now **Alife**, 15 miles N. of Capua.

ALIGHT. A. S. **Alhtan**, **htan**; to alight, to light; to descend from a horse or carriage, says Junius, perhaps, because this is no other than to *lighten* a carriage or horse of its burden; and then used, generally, to come down; to descend; to fall upon.

*King Henry in pe sceptre greys his crowning,
And exchequer hunderd yer and sence of our leude alerghyn.*
R. Gloucester, p. 430.

But now is time to you for to telle,
How that we have us that like night,
When we were in that hostelle alight.
Chaucer. *The Prologue*, v. l. p. 50.

Achilles upon hym alight,
And woldo name, as he well might,
Howe slayn him fulfille in the place.
Geoffr. Con. A. book iv.

But at the last soffre he gan alight
Of Calcedonia upon the castell light.
Douglas, book vi. p. 168.

As at now so pe Samaritan hufde sighte of put yke
He elyght a non of lynde, and ledde hym in his bondes
And to his wyfe he wrote, how wrotes to holden.
Taine of *Piers Plowman*, p. 371.

Coting betwixt the windes and Lybian landes,
From his grandfather by the modern aide
Cyrene's child so came, and then alight
Upon the houses with his winged fete.
Surrey. *Fourth Booke of Virgiles Amicia*.

Mean while upon the firm opacous globe
Of this round world, whose first empires dividies
The insidious inferior orbs, cunctid
From chaos, and the inroad of darkness old,
Satan alighted walkes.
Milton's *Par. Lost*, book iii.

Sir Roger rode forward, and alighting, took up the hury in his arms; which he soon after delivered up to one of his servants with an order, if she could be kept alive, to let her go in his great sperter, N° 116.

On horseback it was impossible; and when we had alighted, we stood hesitating on the brink, whether it were prudent, even on foot, to attempt so dangerous a march.
Gibson's *Tour in the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

ALIGHT. To light, or enlighten; to kindle, to set fire to. See **LIGHT**.

The next day following, with his lamp brich
As Phobus did the ground or ere elight,
Eftir the dawning, both the dark sycthes claud
Clos'd from the sky, and the are was schrowd.
Douglas. *Devotion*, book iv. p. 29.

The next morn, with Phobus lamp, the earth
Alight clere; and the dawning day
The shadowes dark gan from the poole remove.
Surrey. *Acacia*.

And for to speaken over this,
In this parts of the aire it is,
That so full oft scue by sight
The fire in sondris forme alight.
Geoffr. Con. A. book vii.

The officer having by this time alighted his lamp, entered into the room to see him whom he accounted to be dead.
Stilton's *Treatise*, Dec. Quis. Ed. 1652.

ALIKE. In like. See **LIKE**.
pe bishop of Cantebrie in common alle e like
Believed it in like schire, alle his bishop like.
R. Brewer, p. 301.

For to the reason if we see
Of mans hyrde the measure,
It is so common to nature,
That it yearth every man alike
As well to the poor as to the rich.
Geoffr. Con. A. book iv.

And eftir thaim rike furth in rine space
Priests and Censurors straff for the first place.
Douglas, book v. p. 137.

Prudence is goodly wisdom in knowlege of thynges.
Strength vyndeth al aduersaries alike euys.
Chaucer. *Tent of Love*, book iii. l. 61. 306. c. 4.

This ought in no wise to binder our conceits, y^e the giftes of god be not al after one soyle, nor al alike equyvalent in al men: no more the we see the members of the body not after, or to be racked one fro an other, because they be not indifferently apt al to one use, or fele al alike y^e influence of y^e heud. *Pauline the Epistles*, cap. iv.

Hope! whose weak being ma'd is,
Alike, if it succeed, and if it miss;
Whom good or ill does equally confound;
And both the horns of Fate's dilemma wound;
Vain shadow!
Cowley's *Poem against Hope*.

All parts of time are alike unto him, unto whom none are preferable; and all things present, unto whom nothing is posterior or more.

Custom and use doth work in those things where little of sym-
pension and symmetry show themselves, or which are alike comely
and beautiful, to disperse the one, and counteract the other.
Ray, on the Creation.

Who finds not Providence all good and wise,
Alike in what it gives and what denies?
Pope's *Essay on Man*. Epist. i.

To be truly good, we must be so in every thing alike.
Secter's *Sermons*.

ALIGHT.
—
ALIKE.

ALIKE
—
ALL-
MENT.

The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike th' inevitable hour,
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

Gray's Elegy.

ALIL-EL, in Ancient Geography, a people of Arabia Felix, whose country Diodorus (lib. iii. c. 45.) says was not burnt up by the heat of the sun, as were the regions around it, but enjoyed frequent and copious showers,

ALILEI.
—
ALL-
MENT.

which rendered it remarkably productive. He also states, that their mines afforded great abundance of gold, obtained in pieces of the size of a nut, and not needing the action of fire to purify it. Iron and copper were, however, in the same degree scarce, so that the Alilei were willing to procure these metals by giving the foreign merchants gold in equal weight.

A L I M E N T.

ALIMENT,
ALIMENT'AL,
ALIMENT'ALLY,
ALIMENT'ARY,
ALIMENT'ATION,
ALIMON'TOUS.

Alo, alim. Vossius hesitates to pronounce from the Greek *Alao*, warmth. Nourishment; that which nourishes, cherishes, or supports, life, health.

Wise men are of opinion, the bodies of animals cannot receive a proper aliment from air. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

The sun that light imports to all, receives
From all his alimental recompence
In humid exhalations, and at even
Sups with the ocean. *Milton's Par. Lost, book v.*

The substance of gold is invisible by the powerful action of natural heat; and that not only alchemically in a substantial mutation, but also medicamentally in any corporeal conversion. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Plants are nourished, but inanimate bodies are not: the latter have an secretion, but no alimentation. *Bacon's Nat. and Exper. Hist.*

The air, at least that part of it which is the element of fire and fuel of the vital flame in animals, easily penetrates the body of water exposed to it, and diffuseth itself through every part of it. *Reg. on the Creation.*

I do not think that water supplies man, and other animals, or even plants themselves, with their nourishment, but serves chiefly for a vehicle to the alimentary particles, to convey and distribute them to the several parts of the body. *Id.*

Every animal has an aliment peculiarly suited to its constitution. The heavy ox seeks nourishment from earth; the light camelion has been supposed to subsist on air. *Goldschmidt, on Polite Learning.*

Plethora renders us lean, by suppressing our spirits, whereby they are incapacitated of digesting the alimentous humours into flesh. *Harvey, on Consumption.*

ALIMENT is a term which may properly include whatever is appropriated for nutriment by the various classes of organized existence. In animal and vegetable life we can behold the phenomena of decomposition and reproduction, and analyze the substances that administer to the growth and repair of the system most distinctly; but in their application to the wants and enjoyments of man, these phenomena became infinitely interesting. Lord of this lower world, the whole circle of organic being seems to move around him for his benefit, and the student cannot be more gratified than the common people may be advantaged, by an intelligent consideration of the admirable provisions in nature for the effectual and easy movement of this machinery toward all its important ends.

It is our object, in the present article, to present to the reader a catalogue of human aliments; more particularly referring to the separate treatises on MINERALOGY and BOTANY, in our second division, for a sufficient investigation of the other alimentary matters

of nature: we here only use the term as comprehending whatever is nutritious, and capable of being converted into chyle to support the body of man. Thus it embraces not only the animal and vegetable substances usually denominated food, but includes also the fluids with which they are diluted.

Animal food appears best adapted to recruit diminished strength, and repair the waste of the animal system generally, inasmuch as it is the most readily convertible into chyle, and yields that fluid in greatest abundance. Hence, carnivorous animals eat less in quantity than herbivorous ones, yet they are stronger; and the similarity of the substance of animal bodies to that of the human frame, naturally leads one to expect an easy conversion of it into that of our own structure.

Although man is naturally formed to live both on animal and vegetable food, as is evident from the structure of his teeth and alimentary canal, yet he is capable of subsisting wholly on either. It would appear, indeed, that as he was intended to inhabit every part of the globe, he is furnished with organs capable of assimilating every variety of substances, the produce of all climates and regions, to that of his own body. The Brachmans, and some other tribes in the East, subsist wholly on vegetable food. The inhabitants of the most northern regions live almost entirely upon animal food, scarcely ever partaking of any vegetable matter, at least during the greater part of the year. Some nations feed chiefly on terrestrial animals, others on aquatic ones. The diet of these people has, no doubt, an extensive influence on their national character.

By the peculiar operation of the digestive organs, food, taken either from the animal or vegetable kingdom, can be assimilated into a fluid, *vis generalis*. These processes of assimilation are comprehended in the term digestion, by which the food taken in is converted into chyle. The various kinds of flesh meats are known to yield this fluid in most abundance, but the relative nutrimental parts of such food, viz. of gelatine, albumen, fibrin, or oil, have not yet been correctly ascertained. The flesh of young animals yields more gelatine than that of the same species in the adult state. The flesh of wild animals is also sooner digested than that of domesticated ones. Venison is known to be the lightest and most nutritious of all kinds of animal food. Salt meat is not so strengthening as fresh, and meat which has been kept for a short time is generally considered to be more nourishing than that from a recently killed animal. Roast meat is more nutritious than boiled: for by the process of boiling much of the nutritive matter is withdrawn.

ALL-
MENT.

The power of habit on the animal economy is in no instance more remarkably shown than in diet. Moore, in his *Essay on the Materia Medica*, has very correctly observed, that if any one suddenly changes his food, and feeds upon substances to which he has been unaccustomed, he will undoubtedly become disordered.

If a person accustomed to vegetable farinacea tries to eat a large portion of animal food, he will become feverish and plethoric; and if any one accustomed to meat suddenly adopts a vegetable diet, he will be in danger of losing strength, and being seized with indigestion. This is one reason why too great a variety of food is unwholesome; for the stomach cannot acquire the habit of digesting a variety of aliments with equal facility. Those persons, therefore, who use one or two kinds of aliments constantly and regularly, have their stomachs in far better order than those who indulge themselves in variety. But it would appear that even the habit of digesting a variety of aliments is in some degree to be acquired; for persons accustomed to variety are less disordered by it than others, although their digestive faculty is probably not in such perfect order as it is in those who live in a more simple manner. We need not, then, be surprised at the frequency of stomach complaints among the rich; for the luxurious superfluity of whose tables the earth, air, and sea are ransacked. This variety, especially when prepared with eastern spices and all the refinements of modern cookery, has another bad effect; it produces a false appetite, and forms a temptation to indulge the palate after the natural appetite is gone, by which the stomach is gorged and overloaded; whereas, those who live upon a few plain and simply dressed aliments, have no excitement to eat more than their natural appetite prompts. From these, and many other causes, disorders in the stomach are frequent; and as some aliments are more easily digested than others, directions respecting diet are necessary for weak and disordered stomachs, which are unable to digest aliments that are easily overcome by stomachs of greater health and power.

Animals discover their proper food by the senses of taste and smelling. Mr. Moore conceives that men, in a great degree, do the same, and, therefore, that a strong presumption may be formed respecting the wholesomeness of alimentary substances by attending to the natural inclination of men. But the greatest care must be taken not to confound natural tastes with those which are acquired by habit and prejudice, or brought on by diseases.

It is inconsistent with the admirable order and constitution of the universe, to conceive that men will naturally have a desire for such aliments as are improper for them, and loath such as are wholesome. But we know that, in consequence of necessity, example, or prejudice, men may be induced to use as food substances at first disagreeable, but which, by degrees, they may be brought to prefer to more wholesome diet. It is owing to this that many, the rich in particular, instead of plain and salutary food, prefer what is highly seasoned with hot pungent spices. These acrid and stimulating substances are detested by every person at first; but even children may be induced to eat them in imitation of their parents and relations; and having acquired a taste for them, the stimulus given to the stomach becomes at last necessary.

But that those stimulants, though they seem to assist, yet, in reality, and in the course of time impair the appetite and digestion, is evident from this, that the stomach which could with ease digest plain food, before it was accustomed to spices, cannot afterwards digest it without their assistance. A stomach in this situation, therefore, may justly be said to be in a diseased state. And it is not without foundation, that diseases, and premature old age, have been imputed to the habit of using stimulating and acrid condiments. See *Essay on the Materia Medica*, by JAMES MOORE.

Meat which has become tender and tainted by a degree of putrefaction, is more readily digested than fresh, but it does not follow that it is more wholesome on that account. Food of this kind is universally rejected by children, whose appetites have not been depraved, a circumstance against the use of such kind of diet.

The subjoined is a list of the various kinds and species of animals from which the principal alimentary substances are derived, arranged according to their rank in the classification adopted by Linnæus:—

MAMMALIA.

ORDER I.—Primates.

Vespertilio vespertinus. Rougette. Eaten by the Indians, who declare the flesh to be very good. The French in the Isle of Bourbon boil it in their *bouillon* to give it a relish.

ORDER II.—Bruta.

Myrmecophaga tetradactyla. Middle Ant-eater. The flesh of this animal is eaten by the natives of Guiana, and is said to be good.

Manis pentadactyla. Pangolin. Is very fat, and esteemed very delicate eating by the Indians. The negroes kill them for the sake of their flesh.

Dasypros. Armadillo. All the species in this genus are edible. The following are most esteemed:

Dasypros tricusatus. Three-banded Armadillo. This is esteemed very delicious eating when young; but when old, has a musty, disagreeable taste.

Dasypros septencinctus. The eight-banded Armadillo of Mr. Pennant. This is reckoned more delicious eating than the others.

Rhinoceros unicornis. One-horned Rhinoceros. The flesh is eaten by the natives of the places it inhabits.

Rhinoceros dicornis. Two-horned Rhinoceros. The Hottentots eat the flesh of this species. It tastes like coarse pork.

Elephas maximus. Great Elephant. The flesh of this animal is edible. The trunk is said to be a delicious morsel.

ORDER III.—Fera.

Phoca vitulina. Common Seal. The flesh of this animal is often eaten by voyagers, and regarded as good food.

Phoca leonina. Bottle-nosed Seal. The flesh of this species is edible. Lord Anson's people ate it under the denomination of beef, to distinguish it from that of the common seal, which they called lamb.

Viverra zibetula. Civet. The flesh of this species of weasel is reckoned good meat, and is not unlike that of a pig; but it must be skinned as soon as killed, and the bladder and adjacent parts taken carefully out.

ALL-
MENT.

ALL-

Viverra fossa. Fossane Weasel. Reckoned very good to eat when young.

Lutra brasiliensis. Brazilian Otter. The flesh is reckoned delicate eating, and does not taste fishy, notwithstanding its food.

Ursus Arctos fuscus. Brown Bear. The flesh of this animal, in autumn, when it is excessively fat, is said to be most delicate food; and that of the cubs still finer; but the paws of the old bears are reckoned the most exquisite morsel; the fat white and very sweet.

Ursus Arctos niger. Black Bear. The flesh of this species has a strong disagreeable smell, and is difficult of digestion. The common people of Norway, Russia, and Poland use it as food. It is generally salted and dried before it is dressed.

Ursus maritimus. Polar Bear. The flesh of this species is white, and tastes like mutton.

Ursus meles. Common Badger. The carcase of this animal is found in the butcher's shops at Pekin. The Chinese esteem it.

Didelphis voapink. Virginian Opossum. The flesh of the old animals is very good, like that of a sucking pig.

Didelphis marsupialis. Molucca Opossum. This species is reckoned very delicate eating, and, according to Pennant, is very common at the tables of the great, who rear the young in the same places in which they keep their rabbits. In many parts of America, and in some of Asia, it is considered as equal to rabbit.

Didelphis carolinensis. Cayenne Opossum. The flesh of this species resembles that of a hare.

Macropus major. Great Kangaroo. This animal is eaten in New Holland, although its flesh is coarse.

Echinaceus madagascariensis. Striped Hedgehog. The flesh of this animal is eaten by the Indians; but it is very flabby and insipid.

ORDER IV.—*Glires*.

Hystrix cristata. Crested Porcupine. The flesh of this animal is eaten by the Indians. It is brought into and sold in the market at Rome.

Hystrix pritchardii. Brazilian Porcupine. This is a fat animal. Its flesh is white and very good.

Cavia cubana. Variegated Cavy, or Guinea Pig. Good food.

Cavin pocu. Spotted Cavy. Esteemed a great delicacy.

Cavia capibara. Capybara. The flesh of this species is tender, but has an oily and fishy taste.

Cavia aguti. Agouti. Excellent food. Is eaten by the inhabitants of South America.

Cavia aculeata. Olive Cavy. The flesh is white, and of excellent flavour.

Cavia aperea. Rock Cavy. Superior to our rabbits.

Castor fiber. Castor Beaver. The flesh of this animal is reckoned good eating, being preserved, after the bones are taken out, by drying it in the smoke.

Mus perchal. Perchal Rat. Eaten in India.

Mus amphibia. Water Rat. This animal is eaten in some parts of France on *maigre* days.

Mus lemmus. Lemming Rat. Eaten by the Laplanders, who compare their flesh to that of squirrels.

Mus maritimus. African Rat. Esteemed good food.

Arctomys marmota. Common Marmot. Is very fat about the back. The flesh has a strong disagreeable flavour.

VOL. XVII.

ALL-

Arctomys mamar. Maryland Marmot. The flesh is good, and resembles that of a pig.

Arctomys bobak. Bobak. The flesh of this species resembles that of a hare, but is rank.

Sciurus vulgaris. Common Squirrel. The flesh is white and sweet. It is said to resemble that of a barn-door fowl. Eaten in Norway and Sweden.

Sciurus cinereus. Grey Squirrel. The flesh of this animal is very delicate.

Myoxus glia. Fat Dormouse. This animal was esteemed a great delicacy by the Romans, who constructed places (*gliraria*) to keep them in.

Dipus jaculus. Common Jerboa. The Arabs esteem this species a great delicacy.

Lepus timidus. Hare. According to Martial, the flesh of the hare was formerly esteemed as the most superior food. "Inter quadrupedes gloriamur prima lepus." That of the leveret is the most nutritive and most easily digested. The flesh of the hare may be considered as a well-flavoured and stimulant food.

Lepus cuniculus. Rabbit. This animal affords a good, light, and nutritive food; it is well adapted to persons with weak stomachs. The tame rabbit is fatter than the wild, but not so well flavoured. The flesh resembles that of fowl, and is found to be equally delicate.

Lepus viscaccia. Peruvian Hare. The flesh of this species is white and tender.

Lepus capensis. Cape Hare. The flesh white.

Lepus minimus. Minute Hare. Is delicate eating.

Lepus brasiliensis. Brazilian Hare. Very good meat.

Hyrax capensis. Cape Hyrax. Is esteemed very good meat.

Hyrax syriacus. Syrian Hare. The flesh is sweeter than that of a rabbit.

ORDER V.—*Pecora*.

Camelus glama. Glama. The flesh of this animal has a similar flavour to that of mutton.

Camelus ricinus. Vieueuna. The Indians esteem the flesh of this species an excellent eating.

Camelus guanaco. Guanaco. When young, the flesh of this species is excellent eating; when in the adult state, it is salted, and is capable of very long preservation.

Camelus arcuatus. Chiliburque. The Chilians love the flesh of this animal; but it is never killed except on great feasts or solemn sacrifices.

Moschus moschiferus. Tibetan Musk. Although the flesh of the males of this species is much infected with the drug obtained from it, yet it is eaten by the Russians and Tartars.

Moschus americanus. Brazilian Musk. The Indians hunt this species, and the flesh is esteemed delicate eating.

Cervus alces. Elk. The flesh of this animal is eaten in Norway, Lapland, and Sweden, and is very light and nourishing. It is often salted and dried. The nose is reckoned the greatest delicacy in all Canada: their tongues are excellent.

Cervus tarandus. Reindeer. The flesh of this species affords an excellent food to the inhabitants of Norway and Lapland; their tongues are well known in this country, and much esteemed. The milk of the female is sweet and nourishing, and cheese is sometimes prepared from it.

ALL-
MENT.

Cervus dama. Fallow Deer. This animal affords a light, wholesome, and nutritious food; the fat is easier of digestion than that of any other animal.

Cervus elaphus. Stag. This species affords a very nutritive, digestive, and wholesome food. According to Dr. Pearson, it should be more than four years old. The season for killing it is in the month of August; it is then the fattest and best flavoured. In September and October the rutting season takes place, during which the stags become lean, and their flesh acquires a rank smell and disagreeable taste. The flesh of the female is inferior to that of the male.

Cervus musjoc. Rib-faced Deer. The flesh of this species is much esteemed. It is very delicate.

Cervus caprolus. Roebuck. The flesh of this species is inferior to that of the fallow-deer. It is delicate, but never fat.

Antelope orcas. Indian Antelope. The flesh of this animal is fine grained, very delicious, and juicy.

Antelope ourebi. Ourebi Antelope. This species affords excellent venison.

Antelope oreotragus. Klipspringer Antelope. The flesh of this species has a very fine flavour.

Antelope bubalis. Cervine Antelope. The flesh of this species is fine grained, but dry.

Antelope saiga. Scythian Antelope. This species feeds chiefly on acid and aromatic plants, and in the summer time grows very fat. The flesh has a disagreeable taste, and is scarcely eatable until suffered to become cold after dressing.

Antelope gnu. Gnu. The flesh of this species is of a very fine grain, very juicy, and of a most delicate flavour, in taste resembling that of others of the genus, and without the least resemblance to that of beef.

Antelope rupicapra. Chamois. The flesh of this species is tough and coarse. It is eaten by the poorer inhabitants of the Alps.

Capra ibex. Wild Goat. The flesh of this animal is hard and coarse. It is eaten by the peasants of the Alps.

Capra argagrus. Caucasian Goat. The Tartars and Georgians highly esteem the flesh of this species.

Capra hircus. Domestic Goat. The flesh of the female animal is preferred; but it is strong, hard, and difficultly digested. It was much esteemed in ancient times. The hanches of the animal are now frequently salted and dried, and by the Welch is called *lump venison*. The Scotch use the meat of the wedder goat in a similar manner, and term it *rock venison*. The flesh of the kid is esteemed a delicacy, and was highly extolled by the Arabian physicians. The Egyptians esteemed goats so highly that they durst not eat their flesh. Thus Juvenal -

— "Nefas illic factum jugulare capellæ;
Caribæ hominū vœci licet!"

Ovis aries. Common Sheep. The flesh of this animal (mutton) is perhaps more universally used than any other sort of animal food. It is very nutritious and wholesome. Wedder mutton is the sweetest and most digestible, and therefore the most esteemed. Sheep feed upon a dry pasture, mixed with wild herbs, yields the best and most savoury food. Pliny informs us, that sheep were held in great veneration by the Egyptians; and the Athenians had so much respect for them, that they judicially proceeded against those who slew a ram.

ALL-
MENT.

Bos taurus. Common Ox. The flesh of the ox when properly fed, and at a proper age, is readily digested, and proves highly nutritive. That of the cow is not so tender, and consequently not so easily digested, nor found to be equally nutritious. The flesh of the calf (veal) is tender and nourishing, and lighter than that of the full-grown animal. Sir John Sinclair relates the following circumstance, to prove the nutritious qualities of beef. "Humphries, the pugilist, was trained by Ripsham, the keeper of the jail of Ipswich. He was sweated in bed, and afterwards twice physicked. He was weighed once a day, and at first fed on beef; but as on that food he got too much flesh, they were obliged to change it to mutton." Beef is constantly in season, since, by the improvements in agriculture, oxen can always be abundantly supplied with food, even during the severest winters.

Bos taurus indicus major. Greater Indian Ox. The large, fatty hump on the shoulders of this animal, and which sometimes grows to the weight of forty or fifty pounds, is esteemed a great delicacy.

Bos americanus. American Bison. The flesh of this animal is much inferior to that of the domestic ox.

Bos bubalus. Buffalo. This is also inferior to the common ox.

Bos moschatus. Musk Bull. The flesh of this animal has a disagreeable musky flavour.

Bos caper. Cape Ox. The flesh of this species has somewhat the flavour of venison. It is coarse, but juicy. The marrow is most delicate.

ORDER VI.—BELLUA.

Equus caballus. Generous Horse. The flesh of this useful animal is eaten by the Tartars. The wild horse found in the desert of Africa is, when caught, eaten by the Arabs.

Equus asionus. Wild Mule. The flesh of this animal is preferred by the Mongolians and Tanguts to that of horses, and even to that of the wild boar, esteeming it equally nourishing and wholesome.

Equus asinus. Ass. According to Leo Africanus, "wild asses of an ash-colour are found in the deserts of northern Africa. The Arabs take them in snares for the sake of their flesh. If fresh killed, it is hot and unsavoury: if kept two days after it is boiled, it becomes excellent meat. Those people (the Tartars and Romans) agreed in their preference of this to any other food: the latter indeed chase them young, at a period of life in which it was called *Lafilio*."

Com tenu est Ovisque, reliquæ Latine mære

Pascitur: hoc infans, sed breve nomen habet.

Marcell. xiii. 97.

The epicures of Rome preferred those of Africa to all others.*†

Hippopotamus amphibius. Amphibious Hippopotamus. The fat of this animal is sold at a high price at the Cape, as a remedy for pulmonary consumption.

Tapir americanus. Long-nosed Tapir. The flesh of this animal is said to be a wholesome food. It is inferior to that of the common ox. Eaten by the inhabitants of South America.

Sus scrofa. Common Hog. We are informed by

* 340.

† President's History of Quadrupeds, vol. I. p. 10—31. Third Edition.

ALI-
MENT.

Plato, that when men began to eat flesh, that of swine was first selected, being animals wholly unserviceable to other purposes. The ancients considered pork as the most wholesome of all nourishment, and conveying most strength and vigour to those who feed upon it. This meat is adapted only to such persons as lead laborious lives. It is best when salted. The fat is difficult of digestion; that of a sucking pig is also strong, and therefore not fit food for sickly persons; they are usually disordered by it. It is very judiciously chosen as part of the aliment of our seamen and soldiers, because a less quantity of it than of any other food yields sufficient nourishment. The flesh of the wild animal is more savoury than that of the domesticated. It must be regarded as a strong, nutritive, and stimulant food.

Sus tajassu. Pecary, or Mexican Hog. This odoriferous gland situated upon the back of this animal must be cut off immediately after it is killed to render it edible.

Sus babryssus. Babyroussa, or Indian Hog. The Indians esteem the flesh of this species wholesome food.

ORDER VII.—Cete.

Balaena mysticetus. Common Whale. The flesh of this animal is very dry and insipid, except about the tail, which is more juicy, but still very tasteless.

Delphinus placena. Porpoise. This animal was formerly considered as a sumptuous article of food. It is now generally neglected, even by the sailors. It is tough and tasteless.

Delphinus delphis. Dolphin. The flesh of this animal is dry and insipid. The best parts are those about the head.

AVES.

ORDER I.—Accipitres.

Strix vociferans. Wapacuthu Owl. Is reckoned a delicate food by the Europeans settled in Hudson's bay.

Lanius ruficollis. Wood-chat Shrike. This bird is caught by the bird-catchers in Egypt, and sold in the markets as an article of food.

ORDER II.—Pica.

Corvus corax. Raven. The flesh of this bird is eaten by the natives of Greenland. It is very indifferent food.

Corvus frugilegus. Rook. The young birds resemble young pigeons, both in flavour and degree of digestibility.

Cuculus canorus. Common Cuckoo. According to Latham, this bird is as good eating as the land rail.

Picus viridis. Green Woodpecker. This bird affords indifferent food, and is not easily digested.

Picus erythrocephalus. Red-headed Woodpecker. The flesh of this bird is, by many people, accounted good eating.

Sitta europaea. European Nut-hatch. The young of this bird is esteemed good food.

ORDER III.—Anseres.

Anas cygnus. Wild Swan. This bird was once considered a great delicacy. It is similar to goose, but not so tender. The flesh of the old birds is hard and ill tasted. Cygnets were formerly much esteemed.

Anas anser. Goose. This bird yields a strong, savoury, stimulating food.

Anas bernicla. Bernicle, or Brent Goose. This species has a fishy taste. It is not easily digested. When tamed the flesh is good.

Anas moschata. Muscovy Duck. This bird resembles the common duck, both as to flavour and digestibility.

Anas penelope. Widgeon.

Anas ferina. Pochard, or Red-headed Widgeon.

Anas crecca. Common Teal. These three species resemble the wild duck in flavour, &c.

Anas boschas. Wild Duck. This bird is a well-known delicacy. It affords a savoury and stimulant food.

Anas domestica. Tame Duck. Not so stimulant as the preceding.

Alca arctica. Puffin. This bird has a fishy taste, and is not easily digested.

Alca torda. Razor Bill.

Alca cirrhata. Tufted Auk. The flesh of this and the former species is scarcely edible. Their eggs, however, form a very nourishing and wholesome food. The young are sometimes pickled, and preserved with spices, and are by some people much admired.

Pelecanus bassanus. Gannet. Has a fishy taste. The young birds and the eggs alone are eatable; the old ones being tough and rancid.

Larus marinus. Black-backed Gull. Has a fishy taste.

ORDER IV.—Grallæ.

Phœnicopterus ruber. Red Flamingo. This bird was much esteemed by the Romans, who often used them in their grand sacrifices and sumptuous entertainments. The flesh was thought tolerably good; but the tongue was regarded as the most delicious eating.

Ardea grus. Common Crane. The flesh of this bird is black, tough, and bad.

Ardea cinerea. Common Heron. In former times the flesh of this bird was much esteemed, being valued at an equal rate with that of the peacock.

Ardea stellaris. Bittern. The flesh of this bird has much the flavour of bare.

Scolopax rusticola. Woodcock.

Scolopax gallinago. Snipe.

Scolopax gallinula. Gid, or Jack Snipe.

Scolopax glottis. Great Plover, or Green Shank.

Scolopax totanus. Spotted Snipe.

Scolopax limosa. Stone Plover, or Lesser Godwit.

Scolopax lapponica. Red Gouwit. The above afford light, savoury, and digestible food.

Tringa paganus. Ruff and Reeve.

Tringa canellus. Lapwing, or Bastard Plover.

Tringa cinclus. Purge.

Tringa squatarola. Grey Plover, or Grey Sandpiper.

Charadrius morinellus. Dotterell.

Charadrius pectoralis. Green, or Golden Plover.

Charadrius edicacemus. Thick-kneed Bustard, or Stone Curlew.

Charadrius himantopus. Long-legged Plover. The whole of the above yield a savoury food, but not equally so with the woodcock, &c.

Fulica fusca. Brown Gallinule.

Fulica chloropus. Common Water Hen, or Moor Hen.

ALI-
MENT.

ALL-
MENT.

Fulica porphyrio. Purple Water Hen, or Purple Gallinule. These constitute good food, well-tasted, stimulant, and easily digested.

Rallus aquaticus. Water Rail. This and all the other species in the genus afford a well-tasted, stimulant, and digestible food.

ORDER V.—Galline.

Pavo cristatus. Peacock. This bird, which was esteemed a principal part of Roman luxury, yields a food very inferior to that of our pheasant. It is now rarely eaten.

Meleagris gallopavo. Turkey. The flesh of this bird is very light and nutritious. It is not very stimulant. This kind, and the dunghill fowl, is remarkable for its tenderness when young, and its hardness afterwards.

Penelope cristata. Guiana Guan. Light and nutritious food.

Crax alutor. Crested Curassow. Similar to the preceding.

Phasianus gallus. Dunghill Cock and Hen. A delicate and wholesome food; the fat equally dispersed throughout the muscular parts; is easily digested; best when the bird is a year old.

It is right in this place to notice eggs, as a frequently employed and important kind of aliment. Both the white (*albumen*) and the yolk (*vitellus*) are very nutritious. Sir John Sinclair conceives it to contain a larger proportion of pure nourishment than any other food; they are also reckoned stimulating. The eggs of all granivorous birds yield a mild, demulcent, and strengthening aliment. From the use of the egg, it is evident that it is intended to contain as much nutriment as possible; when new laid they are peculiarly excellent; they are lighter when raw than boiled, and they are then gently aperient; they are used in various ways: if boiled, care should be taken that they do not become what is commonly called hard. The poached egg is the best form next to that of taking them raw, in which state they certainly are more soluble.

Phasianus colchicus. Common Pheasant. The flesh of this species affords a tender and nutritious food.

Nasidia meleagris. Guinea Hen. The flesh of this bird is inferior to that of the former.

Tetrao urogallus. Cock of the Mountain. This bird feeding frequently on the tops of pine trees, the flesh becomes thereby infected with so disagreeable a taste as to render it unfit for eating.

Tetrao tetrix. Black Cock. (Grouse).

Tetrao scoticus. Red Game.

Tetrao lagopus. Ptarmigan, or White Game. This and the two preceding yield a savoury and digestible food.

Tetrao perdix. Common Partridge. This bird affords the lightest, least stimulant, and most nutritious of all game, excepting the pheasant.

Tetrao columba. Quail. This bird is very inferior to the preceding in flavor and other qualities. The ancients never eat this bird, supposing it to be unwholesome, as it was said to feed on hellebore.

ORDER VI.—Passeres.

Columba domestica. Common Pigeon.

Columba palumbus. Ring Dove. These afford savoury and very stimulant food.

Alauda. Lark. This bird constitutes a delicate and light food.

Turdus viscivorus. Mistle Thrush.

Turdus pilaris. Fieldfare.

Turdus merula. Blackbird. These birds are tender, savoury, and easily digested. When they are compelled to feed upon the berries of the mistletoe, ivy, holly, and spindle tree, their flesh becomes bitter, and acquires a purgative property. The Roman epicures held the former in high estimation; they had them in their aviaries, and fattened them with crumbs of bread mixed with minced figs.

Turdus polyglottus. Mimic Thrush. This bird is eaten by the Americans, and esteemed very delicate food.

Loxia curvirostris. Shell-dapple, or Cross-bill.

Loxia coccythraustes. Grosbeak, or Hawfinch.

Loxia chloris. Greenfinch. These are tender and good food.

Emberiza cinerea. Snow Bunting.

Emberiza miliaria. Bunting. These are savoury birds. *Emberiza hortulana*. Ortolan. A well-known delicacy. It is very savoury, and reckoned one of the greatest luxuries of the table.

Emberiza citrinella. Yellowhammer.

Emberiza oryzivora. Rice Bird, or Rice Bunting. These are savoury birds, and highly esteemed in the West Indies, and in some parts of North America.

Fringilla cœlebs. Chaffinch.

Fringilla ananthis. Brambling.

Fringilla domestica. House Sparrow.

Fringilla montana. Tree Sparrow. These birds have a bitter taste.

Motacilla modularis. Hedge Sparrow.

Motacilla ficedula. Beccaico, or Epicurean Warbler.

Motacilla ananthe. Wheat Ear.

Motacilla rubetra. Whin Chat.

Motacilla rubicula. Stone Chatter.

Motacilla phœniceus. Red Start.

Motacilla erythraea. Red Tail. This tribe of birds are all savoury, and easy of digestion.

Hirundo eculeata. Excellent Swallow. The oests of this bird are esteemed a great delicacy by the inhabitants of the Indian islands; they dissolve them in their soups. According to Thunberg they are nourishing and easy of digestion.

AMPHIBIA.

ORDER I.—Reptilia.

Testudo mydas. Green Turtle. This animal affords a well-known nutritious food; but it is not very easy of digestion, particularly if very fat.

Testudo caretta. Loggerheaded Turtle. The flesh of this species is coarse and rank.

Testudo ferox. This species is very finely flavoured.

Testudo graeca. Land Turtle. This is inferior to the green turtle. In Greece it forms an article of food. The eggs make excellent omelettes.

Rana pipa. Pips. The flesh of this toad is eaten by the negroes of Surinam.

Rana temporaria. Common Frog. The flesh of this species is not so white or palatable as that of the following one; but it is used as food.

Rana esculenta. Edible Frog. The flesh of this species resembles chicken, but is not very nutritious. It is much eaten in France.

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Rana catesbeiana. Bull Frog. This animal is edible, and has frequently as much meat on it as a young fowl.

Lacerta alligator. Alligator. The flesh of this animal is white and delicious. Many of the American tribes are in a great measure supported by it.

Lacerta iguana. Common Guana. The flesh of this animal is said to be very delicate and to have a fine flavour. It constitutes a principal support of the natives of the Bahamas.

ORDER II.—*Serpentes*.

Crotalus horridus. Banded Rattle Snake. The flesh of this animal is eaten by the American Indians; they cook it as we do eels. The flesh is white and delicate.

Coluber viperæ. Viper.

Coluber berus. Adder. Broth made from these animals is said to be nutritious. It is much used by the Italians.

PISCES.

ORDER I.—*Apodes*.

Murena anguilla. Common Eel. A very nutritious food, but not easily digested; is best in season from May to July. The Schola Salernitana declares the eating of eels to be hurtful to the throat.

Fasciulus anguilla præce sunt al comedantur:

Qui phycium non ignorant hoc testificatur.

Murena conger. Conger Eel. This species is not so digestible as the former; it is, however, delicate eating, and must be considered as a useful species of food in many parts of Europe, where it forms an article of commerce.

Murena romana. Roman Murena. This fish was regarded by the ancient Romans as one of the most luxurious articles of the table.

Murena echidna. Southern Murena. The flesh of this species is said to be excellent; but the animal has a peculiarly forbidding appearance, on account of its colour and form.

Monopterus javanicus. Javan Monoptere. This fish is a native of the Indian seas, and is very common about the coasts of Javan, where it is considered as excellent food.

Gymnotus carapo. Carapo Gymnote. This species is regarded as wholesome aliment, and is eaten by the inhabitants of South America.

Ophidium barbatum. Bearded Ophidium. A coarse food.

Ophidium mastacembalus. Mastacembalus. Eaten by the Europeans resident at Aleppo, where it is much esteemed. It is similar to eel, but less fat.

Odonotognathus aculeatus. Acolated Odonotognathus. Eaten at Cayenne.

Ammodytes tobianus. Sand Lance. This fish is not easy of digestion; but is in much esteem in the Isle of Wight.

Trichiurus argenteus. Silver Trichinure. This fish is found in the rivers and larger lakes of South America, and is considered tolerable food.

Anarhichas lupus. Common Wolf Fish. This animal is eaten by the Greenlanders. It is not bad food.

Xiphias platypterus. Broad-finned Sword-fish. According to Dr. Bloch, when this species does not exceed the length of about four feet, it is considered as

an edible fish; but is too coarse when it exceeds that length.

Xiphias makaira. Short-snouted Sword-fish. The flesh of this species is white. It is dry, but tolerable food.

Stromateus paru. Paru Stromat. This is very good food, and is much esteemed by the South Americans.

Stromateus cicerius. Ash-coloured Stromat. This is a native of the Indian seas, and is considered as excellent for the table. The largest are preferred. The skeleton is cartilaginous. It is eaten either fresh or salted. The native name is *pampel*.

Stromateus argenteus. Silver Stromat. This species is held in equal estimation with the preceding.

Stromateus niger. Black Stromat. This species is held to be inferior to the preceding ones.

ORDER II.—*Jugulares*.

Callionymus lyra. Generous Dragonet. Native of the Mediterranean and Northern seas. Is a white palatable meat.

Callionymus dracunculus. Sordid Dragonet. This species is of equal goodness with the former.

Uranoscopus scaber. Bearded Star-gazer. A coarse and ill-flavoured food.

Trachinus draco. Weaver. This fish affords a firm, tender, finely-flavoured meat; the Italians esteem it a great delicacy. It is also much esteemed in Holland, France, &c.

Gadus morhua. Cod. This is a firm, well-tasted, and digestible food. The best season is from February to the end of April. The sounds, when salted, are reckoned a delicacy, and are often brought in this state from Newfoundland.

Gadus aeglefinus. Haddock. This is also good food. In season from May till February.

Gadus collaris. Dorse. This is likewise fine, good food, and is highly esteemed.

Gadus barbatus. Pout. This is also firm, good food.

Gadus luscus. Bib. This fish is a native of the European seas, and is much esteemed as an article of food.

Gadus minutus. Poor. This fish is reckoned wholesome food.

Gadus saida. Saida. This is a dry food.

Gadus merlangus. Whiting. This is a wholesome, nourishing food.

Gadus carbonarius. Coal Fish. This fish is but little esteemed. It is salted and dried.

Gadus pollachius. Pollack. This fish is good eating, and is a wholesome food.

Gadus muelkruius. Hake. This fish is a native of the Mediterranean and Northern seas; in both of which its fishery is considerable. It is salted and dried in the manner of cod; but it is not in much estimation. It is a very useful article of food among the lower classes.

Gadus mofus. Ling. This fish, which is a considerable article of commerce, is a wholesome and nourishing food.

Gadus lota. Burbot. This fish is highly esteemed for its superior delicacy. It is also very nutritious.

Gadus brume. Torsk. In the seas about Shetland this fish is very abundant. It forms, both barrelled and dried, a considerable article of commerce.

Blennius ocellaris. Ocellated Blenny. This fish is not held in much estimation. It is dry and coarse.

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Blennius gunellus. Gunnel Blenny. This fish is dried and eaten by the Greenlanders.

ORDER III.—*Thoracii*.

Echeneis remora. Sucking Fish. This fish is often eaten, and in taste is said greatly to resemble a fried artichoke.

Coryphæna hippuræ. Common Coryphene. This fish is said to be excellent food.

Coryphæna equinola. Brazilian Coryphene. This is likewise excellent food.

Coryphæna acacia. Razor Coryphene. This is one of the most superior kinds of edible fish.

Coryphæna quinque-maculata. Five-spotted Coryphene. This fish forms an article of commerce as important to the inhabitants of the Molucca islands as that of the cod-fishery among the Europeans.

Coryphæna chrysurus. Gilt-tailed Coryphene. Very excellent food.

Gobius uiger. Common Goby. This is an edible fish, but is not held in much estimation.

Gobius jazo. Blue-finned Goby. As a food is not held in much esteem.

Gobius plumieri. Plumier's Goby. This species is held in great estimation as an article of food.

Cottus gobio. River Bullhead. This animal is of very disagreeable appearance, but it is regarded as a delicate, edible fish. The flesh turns of a red or salmon colour on boiling. It is admitted only at the tables of persons of inferior rank.

Cottus grammus. Grunting Bullhead. This species affords tolerable food, but the liver is said to be injurious.

Cottus scorpius. Lasher Bullhead. This fish is much esteemed as food about the coasts of Greenland.

Scorpena didactyla. Didactyle Scorpæna. This is regarded as an excellent fish for the table.

Zeus cumer. Brazilian Dory. This is a savoury kind of fish, but being very thin, is not held in much estimation.

Zeus ciliaris. Ciliated Dory. The flesh of this species is coarse.

Zeus faber. Common Dory. This species is savoury, and easy of digestion. It is much esteemed.

Pleuronectes hippoglossus. Halibut. This fish is not very easy of digestion. The Greenlanders cut it into slips, and dry it for winter use.

Pleuronectes cynglossus. Lesser Halibut. Superior to the former.

Pleuronectes platessa. Plaice. A very light, savoury, nutritious, and wholesome food. The moderate-sized ones are the most esteemed.

Pleuronectes limande. Dah. This fish affords a superior food to either that of plaice or flounder.

Pleuronectes leria. Smear Dah. This fish is regarded as equally good food with the preceding.

Pleuronectes limondoides. Long Dah. This species is also held in great estimation.

Pleuronectes flexus. Flounder. A light, wholesome, and nutritious food.

Pleuronectes solea. Sole. This is a firm, white, well-flavoured meat. The moderate-sized ones are the best. Regarded as next to turbot in point of delicacy among the whole genus.

Pleuronectes zebra. Zebra Sole. This species is highly esteemed by the natives adjoining the Indian seas.

ALL-
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Pleuronectes marmoratus. Marbled Sole. This is also a native of the Indian seas, and much esteemed as an article of food.

Pleuronectes tuberculatus. Turbot. This species unquestionably affords the most superior food. It is light, savoury, wholesome, and nutritious. Those caught off the coast of Holland are most esteemed.

Chætodon imperator. Imperial Chætodon. This fish affords a savoury and delicate food. It is held in high estimation by the Japanese, and is said to be superior to the salmon in flavour.

Chætodon catesbeii. Angel Chætodon. This species is much esteemed on account of its delicacy.

Chætodon togobaudus. Wandering Chætodon. This species is considered excellent food.

Chætodon rosstratus. Jaculator. A white and well-tasted fish.

Chætodon bifasciatus. Bifasciated Chætodon. This is a large species, frequently weighing upwards of twenty pounds. It is much esteemed as a food resembling the sole in delicacy.

Chætodon glaucus. Glaucon Chætodon. This species is regarded as wholesome food.

Chætodon sordidus. Sordid Chætodon. This is an edible fish, and much esteemed.

Acanthurus nigriscus. Blackish Acanthurus. This fish is esteemed for the table. It is a native of the Indian, American, and Arabian seas.

Trichopus goramæ. Goramy Trichopus. This fish is greatly esteemed in China as an article of food.

Sparus aurata. Gilt-head Sparus. This fish, which was much admired by the ancient Greeks and Romans, and by the former nation consecrated to Venus, is a native of the Mediterranean, Atlantic, and Indian seas, and held in considerable estimation as a food.

Sparus spinifer. Spined Sparus. A very delicate fish, and much esteemed.

Sparus muræ. Sparus. A savoury food, but sometimes disorders the stomach and bowels.

Labrus scarus. Scare Labrus. This fish was in high esteem with the ancients as a food, and considered by the Romans as one of the principal delicacies of the table.

Ophicephalus punctatus. Punctated Ophicephalus. This first is considered as a delicate and wholesome food.

Ophicephalus striatus. Striated Ophicephalus. This is held in equal estimation with the preceding, and is recommended as a proper diet for convalescents.

Perca fluviatilis. Perch. This is a firm, palatable, and easily-digested food. It was held in high estimation by the Romans.

Scomber scomber. Mackerel. This is a savoury fish, but not very easily digested. Caviar is made from the roes of this fish.

Scomber thynnus. Tunny. This is a coarse fish. The Romans, however, held it in great estimation. When taken in May they are full of spawn, and are then esteemed unwholesome, as being apt to occasion headaches and vapours; to prevent, in some measure, these bad effects, the natives fry them in oil, and afterwards salt them. The pieces when fresh appear exactly like raw beef, but when boiled they turn pale, and have somewhat the flavour of salmon. The most delicate parts are those about the muzzle. Those fish which the inhabitants are not able to use immediately are

ALL-MENT.

cut into slices, salted, and preserved in large tubs, either for sale or winter provisions.*

Mullus barbatus. Red Surmullet.

Mullus surmuletus. Striped Surmullet. These are fine fish, and are easy of digestion.

Trigla lyra. Piper. This is a savoury fish, and difficult of digestion.

ORDER IV.—*Abdominales*.

Cobitis barbata. Loach, or Ground Ling. A light and savoury fish.

Salmo solar. Salmon. A very nutritious fish, and not difficult of digestion.

Salmo trutta. Sea, or Bugle Trout. This is inferior to the above.

Salmo fario. Trout. A tender, finely-flavoured fish, and readily digested. It is in season from March to September. Fattest from the middle to the end of August.

Salmo alpinus. Charr.

Salmo salmaria. Salmon Trout. These are similar, but inferior to the salmon.

Salmo cephallus. Smelt. This is a palatable, but not a very nutritive fish.

Salmo albus. Whiting. This fish is neither very palatable nor very wholesome.

Salmo thymallus. Grayling. A white, firm, and delicate food; wholesome, and readily digestible.

Esox lucius. Pike. A firm and palatable fish, easy of digestion. On the continent it is much esteemed, and, being in abundance, is dried and exported.

Mugil cephalus. Mullet. Difficult of digestion, and not very wholesome.

Clupea harengus. Herring.

Clupea sprattus. Sprat.

Clupea alba. Shad.

Clupea encrasicolus. Anchovy. These are nutritive, but not very digestible fishes.

Cyprinus barbus. Barbel. This is a coarse, unwholesome fish.

Cyprinus carpio. Carp. A sweet, nutritive fish, easy of digestion.

Cyprinus gobe. Gudgeon. A palatable fish, and easily digested.

Cyprinus tinca. Tench. A soft and slimy fish, not easily digested. In season from September to June.

Cyprinus cephalus. Chub. A coarse fish; best in December and January.

Cyprinus lucius. Dace. This is a superior kind of fish to the preceding, but is full of bones; it is best in February.

Cyprinus rutilus. Roach. This is a light, wholesome fish, but not in much esteem, on account of the number of its bones. It is best in February and March.

Cyprinus alburnus. Blean.

Cyprinus brama. Bream. These species, as articles of food, are inferior to the preceding ones.

ORDER VI.—*Chondropterygii*.

Accipenser sturio. Sturgeon. This is a nutritive, but not a savoury fish. Caviar is prepared from the spawn.

Accipenser ruthenus. Starlet. Superior to the sturgeon, being more tender and delicate.

Accipenser huso. Isinglass fish. The sounds of this fish form that substance commonly known by the name of isinglass.

Squalus carcharius. White Shark. The flesh of this fish is tough, coarse, and rank; it is scarcely eatable.

Raja batia. Skate. This, although a coarse, is a nutritive fish.

Petromyzon marinus. Lamprey.

Petromyzon fluviatilis. Lesser Lamprey.

Petromyzon branchialis. Lampren, or Fride. These are savoury fish, but not easily digested.

INSECTA.

ORDER II.—*Hemiptera*.

Gryllus migratorius. Migratory Locust. This insect is eaten in several parts of Africa. It is variously dressed; boiled in milk, broiled, &c.

Cicada septendecim. American Locust. The Indians eat the bodies of these insects.

ORDER V.—*Hymenoptera*.

Apis mellifica. Honey Bee. This insect yields that useful article, honey.

ORDER VII.—*Aptera*.

Cancer maras. Common Crab. The meat of this species is coarse.

Cancer pagurus. Black-clawed Crab. Similar to the above.

Cancer gammarus. Lobster. Moderately nutritive, but not easily digested.

Cancer astacus. Craw Fish.

Cancer serotus. Prawn.

Cancer crangon. Shrimp.

Cancer squilla. White Shrimp. These may be considered in the same point of view as the lobster, with respect to their nutritive and digestible qualities.

VERMES.

ORDER II.—*Mollusca*.

Limax reflux. Red Slug. Of a slimy nature, and but lightly nutritious.

Sepia sepia. Cuttle Fish.

Echinus esculentus. Edible Sea Urchin. This is difficult of digestion.

We are informed by Mr. Bingley, that at Marseilles, and in some other towns on the continent, this species is exposed for sale in the markets as oysters are with us, and is eaten boiled like an egg. It forms an article of food among the lower class of people on the seacoasts of many parts of this country, but does not seem to have made its way to the tables of the opulent. The Romans adopted it, and dressed it with vinegar, mende, parsley, and mint.

Pholas dactylus. Dactyle Pholes. This animal is considered as a very great delicacy at the tables of the luxurious. It is common at Ancona, in Italy.

ORDER III.—*Troctoda*.

Cardium edule. Common Cockle. A palatable and nutritious food.

Ostrea edulis. Common Oyster. A very nutritious

* Bingley's Animal Biography, v. iii. p. 156.

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MENT. and digestible food; not proper for the table till one year and a half old.

Ostrea marina. Scallop. This is also very nutritious food.

Mytilus edulis. Eatable Mussel. A rich, nutritious, and digestible food.

Helix pomatia. Esculent Snail. A slimy and lightly nutritious food.

ALIMENTARY SUBSTANCES SELECTED FROM THE VEGETABLE KINGDOM.

The nutritive qualities of vegetables have, by chemical analysis, been found to depend upon the relative quantities of mucilage, fixed oil, sugar, starch, and gluten, with which they abound. This kind of aliment is much less stimulating than that which is afforded by the animal kingdom; the nutriment, too, is probably more readily extracted from it, or some kinds of it, by the process of digestion, though the quantity of chyle yielded by it is much inferior to that obtained from flesh meats; hence the great quantity of vegetable matter necessary to be taken for the support of a system wholly dependent upon this kind of food.

The seeds of certain plants which belong to the natural order of gramina, and the leguminous family of plants, seem to yield more nutritive matter than any other vegetable substance. Potatoes, yams, grains, &c. claim the next rank. To these succeed the beets, carrots, acido-dulcescent fruits, such as grapes, dates, plums, apricots, &c.; and, lastly, the oily seeds, such as almonds, chestnuts, filberts, &c.

In enumerating the principal substances selected from the vegetable kingdom as alimentary articles, we shall range them under the following heads:

1. Herbes. Herbs.
2. Radices. Roots.
3. Fructus. Fruits.
4. Semina. Seeds.
5. Algæ. Lichens and Sea Weeds.
6. Fungi. Mushrooms.

1. HERBÆ.—Herbs.

Apium petroselinum. Parsley. The roots and leaves of this plant are slightly aromatic, sweet, and nutritive. The seeds are more aromatic than any other part of the plant, and are esteemed for a diuretic property which they are said to possess.

Apium graveolens. Celery. The blanched stalks of this plant are mucilaginous, aromatic, and slightly nutritive.

Asparagus officinalis. Asparagus. This is a mucilaginous, nutritive, and slightly stimulant vegetable. It is very easy of digestion, and well adapted to sickly persons.

Brassica oleracea. Colewort and Cabbage. The different species of cabbage afford but little nutriment: they are very watery, and apt to create flatulence. The best of the family is certainly the cauliflower. The substance commonly known by the name of sauer kraut is prepared from sliced cabbage, salted, and closely pressed with aromatic seeds; it is then made to ferment; by this process it becomes savoury and easy of digestion.

Brassica italica. Broccoli. Is exceedingly delicious and nutritive, but very flatulent.

Cichorium endivia. Endive. A bitter, wholesome vegetable, but not very nutritious.

Crambe maritima. Sea Kale. The blanched stalks of this plant are dressed and eaten like asparagus, to which it is but little inferior.

Cynara scolymus. Common Artichoke. A sweet, mucilaginous, and nutritive vegetable. The receptacle is the only part that is eaten.

Lactuca sativa. Garden Lettuce. A wholesome vegetable. It is more digestible when boiled than in its crude state. It is both diuretic and slightly narcotic.

Lepidium sativum. Garden Cress. A pungent, bitter, and aromatic vegetable. It is very wholesome.

Portulaca oleracea. Garden Purslane. This vegetable is but slightly nutritive, and when eaten too freely it acts as a laxative.

Rumex acetosa. Common Sorrel. This vegetable contains both oxalic and tartaric acid; it is wholesome when moderately used. It is much esteemed in France as a sauce, for which it is well adapted.

Sisymbrium nasturtium. Water Cress. This is a wholesome, bitter, pungent vegetable.

Spinacia oleracea. Spinage. This vegetable is very apt to produce flatulency, and is not very nutritious.

2. RADICES.—Roots.

Allium ascalonicum. Shallot. A very acid vegetable, fit only as a sauce.

Allium cepa. Onion. A very stimulant and nutritive vegetable.

Allium porrum. Leek. Similar qualities to the above, but not so stimulant.

Allium sativum. Garlic. The properties of this vegetable are similar to those of the shallot.

Allium scorodoprasum. Roccambolo. Similar to the preceding.

Beta vulgaris. Red Beet. This is a very nutritive vegetable; it contains a large quantity of saccharine matter: it should be boiled till it becomes quite tender.

Beta cicla. White Beet. Of similar properties to the preceding.

Beta hybrida. Mangel Wurzel. The leaves of this beet are well tasted and whole-some.

Brassica rapa. Turnip. This vegetable is light and nutritious.

Cichorium intybus. Succory. A bitter, but nutritious vegetable; it is employed as aliment in various ways: the fresh root is put into broths and decoctions; the young herb is eaten in salads; the roots, dried and roasted, are very generally used in Germany, as a substitute for coffee.

Convolvulus batatas. Spanish Potatoe. Similar in properties to the common potatoe, but not quite so sweet or nutritive.

Dioscorea alata.
Dioscorea bulbifera. } Yams.
Dioscorea sativa.

These, when boiled or roasted, are mealy and nutritious. They are sweeter than our potatoe. The negroes feed, in a great measure, upon them.

Daucus carota. Carrot. This is a meilaginous, saccharine vegetable. It is very nutritive and wholesome.

Helianthus tuberosus. Jerusalem Artichoke. The tubercles of the roots, when boiled or baked, afford good nourishment, but inferior to that of our potatoe. It is, however, very mucilaginous, and contains a quantity of saccharine matter.

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Jatropha manihot. } Bitter and Sweet Cassava.
Jatropha jampaja. }
 The well-known substance called tapioca is prepared from the roots of these plants, which is light and nutritious.
Maranta arundinacea. Indian Arrow Root. Similar to the above. Very mucilaginous.
Orchis mascula. Salop. This is highly nutritive. It is very sweet and mucilaginous.
Pastinaca sativa. Parsnip. This is a very nutritious and sweet vegetable, but inferior to the carrot.
Raphanus sativus. Radish. Warm, acrid, watery, and but lightly nutritious.
Scorzonera hispanica. Viper's Grass. This is mucilaginous, and slightly nutritive. It is much eaten in Spain and the southern parts of Europe.
Sium sisarum. Skirret. This is a very sweet, nutritive vegetable. It is very easily digested.
Solanum tuberosum. Potatoe. This is a most important vegetable. It abounds with amylaceous matter, and when good is readily digested.
Tragopogon porrifolium. Salsafi. The root has a sweet taste, but is not very nutritious.

3. FRUCTUS.—Fruits.

Artocarpus incisa. Bread Fruit. This is very wholesome and nutritious. In taste it resembles the sweet potatoe rather than wheaten bread.
Amygdalus pernica. Peach and Nectarine. These are very wholesome and delicious fruits.
Annona muricata. Common Custard Apple, or Sonr Sop. This is a cooling, agreeable, and wholesome fruit.
Berberis vulgaris. Barberrry. With sugar forms an agreeable and wholesome sweetmeat.
Bromelia ananas. Pine Apple. An acid, agreeable, and wholesome fruit. The other species are more acid than this one.
Brosimum alicatrum. Bread Nut. A wholesome, and not unpleasant kind of food. Similar to chestnuts.
Cactus opuntia. Indian Fig, or Prickly Pear. This is a wholesome and nutritious fruit.
Citrus aurantium sinense. China Orange. An exceedingly grateful and refreshing fruit.
Citrus aurantium hispalense. Seville Orange. The juice of this fruit is rough, sour, and bitter. The rind is very aromatic.
Citrus medica. Lemon. Forms a wholesome and pleasant sauce. Its acid is very grateful.
Cucurbita citrullus. Water Melon. A juicy, cooling fruit. If eaten too largely, it is apt to produce disorder of the bowels.
Cucumis sativus. Cucumber. A watery, mucilaginous fruit difficult of digestion.
Cucumis melo. Melon. The different species of melon are all watery, but sweet; they cannot be considered wholesome.
Ficus carica. Fig. A very mucilaginous and nutritious fruit. The dried fig is more wholesome, more pleasant to the taste, and more nutritious.
Fragaria vesca. Strawberry. A very pleasant, cooling, and wholesome fruit; best eaten with milk or cream.
Garcinia mangostana. Mangosteen. A very fine-flavoured, wholesome, and highly nutritious fruit.
Mangifera indica. Mango. This is a wholesome

VOL. XVII.

ALL-
MENT.

and agreeable fruit. The unripe fruit are pickled and sent over to Europe.

Mespilus germanica. Medlar. A rough and astringent fruit, not proper for eating until it begins to decay; it is then wholesome.

Morus nigra. Mulberry. A very grateful and cooling fruit; but if eaten largely, apt to produce disorder of the bowels.

Musa paradisiaca. Plantain Tree. A very wholesome and nutritious aliment. It is used as a substitute for bread.

Phoenix dactylifera. Date. A sweet, mucilaginous, and nutritious fruit.

Prunus armeniaca. Apricot. This, when ripe, is a sweet, nutritious, and wholesome fruit. Its nutritive qualities exceed either those of the peach or the nectarine.

Prunus domestica. Plum. Pleasant and nutritive, but very apt to disorder the bowels.

Prunus cerasus. Cherry. A pleasant fruit, but not wholesome.

Punica granatum. Pomegranate. This is also pleasant and cooling, but apt to disorder the bowels.

Pyrus communis. Pear. A wholesome, refreshing fruit, but with some persons produces flatulency.

Pyrus cydonia. Quince. When prepared with sugar this fruit forms the sweetmeat called marmalade.

Pyrus malus. Apple. On the whole a palatable and wholesome fruit.

Ribes grossularia. Gooseberry. A cooling fruit, but apt to produce disorder of the bowels.

Ribes nigrum. Black Currant. A pleasant, cooling, and sub-acid fruit.

Ribes rubrum. Red Currant. Similar to the former, but more acid. Very wholesome.

Rosa canina. Hip. This fruit is used chiefly as a sweetmeat.

Rubus idaeus. Raspberry. This is a very cooling, agreeable, and wholesome fruit.

Vaccinium myrtillus. Bilberry.

Vaccinium oxycoccus. Cranberry. These berries are pleasantly acid; they are also astringent. They form good sweetmeats.

Vitis vinifera. Grape. This fruit is very palatable, cooling, and wholesome. It contains a large proportion of saccharine matter.

4. SEMINA.—Seeds.

Amygdalus communis. Almond. The sweet almond abounds in oil, and is therefore not easy of digestion. The husk is exceedingly acrid. The almond is pleasantly flavoured and nutritious.

Anacardium occidentale. Cashew Nut. The kernel is sweet and palatable; but, like the almond, difficult of digestion.

Avena sativa. Oat. A moderately nutritious, demulcent, and laxative aliment. Forms the principal sustenance of a great number of persons.

Cocos nucifera. Cocoa Nut. This is not easily digested. The milky fluid contained within it is cooling and agreeable.

Corylus avellana. Hazel Nut and Filbert. The husk is acrid, the nut pleasant, but difficult of digestion. It is, however, when eaten in a moderate quantity, wholesome.

Fagus castanea. Chestnut. More nutritive than

ALL-
MENT.

other nuts. It contains less oil and more farinaceous substance. When roasted it is not difficult of digestion.

Hordeum vulgare. Barley. Sweet and viscid. It is not very easy of digestion. It forms the principal sustenance of the inhabitants of some of the northern parts of Europe. The decoction of pearl barley (*hordeum perlatum*) is highly nutritious.

Holcus sorghum. Guinea Corn. This forms the common food of the negroes in the West Indies. It is very nutritious, but not easily digested, unless by persons who lead a laborious life.

Juglans regia. Walnut. The husk is very bitter, acid, and astringent. The nut is exceedingly pleasant and nutritious.

Oryza sativa. Rice. Whole tribes are supported by this kind of grain. It is very nutritious and wholesome.

Panicum milineum. Millet. This seed is both palatable and nutritive. When formed into bread, it is not readily digested.

Phaseolus vulgaris. Kidney Bean. Both the pods and the seeds are articles of aliment; the former, when young, are wholesome and digestible; the latter are farinaceous, and very nutritive.

Pistacia terra. Pistacia Nut. This nut possesses similar properties to the almond, but is more easily digested.

Pisum sativum. Pea. When young, peas are wholesome and excellent food; when full grown, they afford strong nutriment; when made into bread it is unpalatable and very heavy.

Polygonum fagopyrum. Buck Wheat. The nutritive properties of the seeds of this plant are not so great as in wheat and rye. It is very wholesome. In Brittany it is made into cakes, and much eaten.

Secale cereale. Rye. Not so nutritive as wheat, but very wholesome. Bread made of rye is very heavy, and apt to disorder the bowels.

Theobroma cacao. Chocolate Nut. This is exceedingly nutritious and palatable.

Triticum aestivum. Wheat. The most nutritive and most wholesome of all grain. Contains a very large quantity of starch, mucilaginous matter, and gluten. A pound of wheat flour will yield four ounces of gluten, eleven ounces two drachms of starch, and six drachms of saccharine, mucilaginous matter.

Vicia faba. Broad Bean. Nutritive, but flatulent. It is more astringent than peas.

Zea mays. Indian Corn. This grain is very nutritious, gently laxative, and wholesome; it forms the chief article of sustenance in North America, and some parts of the West Indies.

5. ALGÆ.—Lichens and Sea Weeds.

Lichen islandicus. Iceland Liverwort. Bitter, but very mucilaginous and nutritive.

Fucus vesiculosus. Eatable Fucus. This and several other species of fucus is mucilaginous and nutritive. They are eaten in the northern parts of this island, and in Ireland.

6. FUNGI.—Mushrooms.

Agaricus campestris. Common Mushroom. This is a savoury, stimulant, and nutritive food, but rather difficult of digestion.

A great number of fungi are edible. It is important

to distinguish those which are edible from those which are noxious, as many serious accidents have occurred in the use of them as food. The public is much indebted to Mr. Sowerby for pursuing this subject with laudable minuteness; but there is still much to be done. (See SOWERBY'S *Coloured Figures of English Fungi*, 3 vols. and Supplement, fol.)

ALL-
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CONDIMENTS.

Condiments, properly speaking, ought not to be considered as alimentary substances; yet they derive an importance from the assistance they afford in the digestion and assimilation of different foods with which they are generally mixed. Their common effect is to render the aliment more savoury and stimulating. In the tropical climates they are most extensively employed, and, certainly, the most needed. When used in moderation they are serviceable, particularly to aged persons whose powers of secretion fail; also to persons who lead studious and sedentary lives. Dr. Pearson has arranged them under the following heads:

1. Saline condiments.
2. Aromatic condiments.
3. Oily condiments.
4. Sweet condiments.
5. Acid condiments.

1. Saline Condiments.

Muriate of Soda, better known by the term common salt, is the most universal and essential of all condiments; it stimulates the glands about the mouth, throat, &c., and produces a copious flow of saliva and gastric juice, by which the process of digestion is more readily carried on. When taken to excess, however, it is highly injurious, producing scorbutic affections, &c. Meat slightly salted is easier of digestion than fresh. The desire for salt is an instinct universal in the human species, and is universally employed to give a relish to almost every kind of food. This relish of salt, Dr. Cullen has observed, is an institution of nature, the efficient cause of which we cannot explain; but we presume, very confidently, that it is adapted to serve some beneficial purpose in the economy, although we do not well understand either the cause or the purpose of this.

2. Aromatic Condiments.

The different species of allium (garlic, leek, shallot, onion) have already been noticed. When moderately used they are wholesome condiments. They promote the secretions, and administer to health. Mustard and horse-radish act in a similar way, but are more stimulating. Thyme and sage are very stimulant, but not unwholesome. Pepper, black and white, is the most common of all spices. In the East and West Indies it is used in very large quantities, and enables the residents to endure the debilitating effects of a hot climate. Cayenne pepper is the most stimulant of all spices, and should only, in this climate, be employed medicinally. Pimento, cinnamon, and cassia, are palatable spices: they are also wholesome. The nutmeg is a strong pungent aromatic, and perhaps the least wholesome of all the spices. Cloves are an agreeable and wholesome spice. Ginger is also a very useful article in this division.

ALL-MENT.

3. *Oily Condiments.*

Butter is the most frequently used, and is a very wholesome condiment; it does not, however, agree with all constitutions. Olive oil is also a useful and nutritious condiment, but disagrees with many persons.

4. *Sweet Condiments.*

Sugar holds the first rank in this class. It is nutritious, antiseptic, and laxative. Refined sugar is more nutritious than brown sugar. It is a very wholesome condiment. Honey also is a very useful condiment, and is gently laxative.

5. *Acid Condiments.*

The most frequently employed in this division is vinegar; taken in small quantities it is very wholesome. It is a refreshing stimulus to the stomach, but should not be taken by those who have weak stomachs and bowels, or are subject to gouty or calculeous affections. Lemon juice, orange juice, &c. is very wholesome, agreeable, and refreshing.

DRINKS.

In the term Drinks is comprehended every liquid that is fit to supply the watery parts both of the solids and fluids of which the body is composed.

Simple water, such as nature affords it, says Dr. Cullen, is, without any addition, the proper drink of mankind. Dr. Armstrong beautifully denominates it

"The chief ingredient in heaven's various works;
Whose flexible genius sparkles in the gem,
Grows firm in oak, and fugitive in wine;
The vehicle, the source of nutriment,
And life, to all that vegetate or live."

And then, as to its qualities, he adds,

"O comfortable streams! With eager lips
And trenching hand the longest thirsty quaff
New life in you; fresh vigour fills their veins.
No warmer cups the rural ages knew;
None warmer sought the sires of human-kind."

Digestion, without a due quantity of liquid food, would be very imperfectly, and with great difficulty, effected. Hence, nutrition would be incomplete, and all the secretions and excretions would be defective. Dr. Pearson justly remarks, that those who, from their youth, have made it their constant and almost only beverage, have generally been distinguished for the soundest health, the most equal flow of spirits, the most retentive memory, the most perfect enjoyment of the senses of taste, hearing, and vision, and the longest life.

The temperature of the body is in a great measure regulated by the quantity of fluids taken in. When warm, the violence of the heat is abated by cooling drinks; but care must be taken that they are not too freely partaken of, lest formidable evils should result.

Animal Secretions used as Drinks.

Milk. The nature of milk partakes of that just medium between animal and vegetable substances, which appears to be so desirable in our diet. Sir John Sinclair describes it as a kind of emulsion, or white, oily, animal liquor, from which all the parts of animal bodies, particularly in their earlier years, may receive their nourishment and growth.

All kinds of milk are resolvable into three parts, viz.

ALL-MENT.

the oily part, which yields cream and butter; the coagulable part, which gives curd and cheese; and the watery, saccharine part which constitutes whey. The milk of cows, goats, and sheep possesses the greatest proportion of curd; it is smaller in that of asses and mares; and in the milk of the human female there is scarcely any coagulable part at all. In proportion to the quantity of coagulable matter will be its digestibility. Milk, after being boiled, becomes heavier, and is apt to produce constipation.

Cream is the most nutritious part of milk, but is the most difficult of digestion. Of butter we have already spoken under the title of condiment. Curds are separated from milk by runnet; they are nutritious, but difficult of digestion. Cheese, which is prepared from the curd, varies in quality according to the milk from which it is obtained; it is in no state easily digested; when toasted, it is very difficult, and ought never to be taken by persons having weak stomachs; it also produces costiveness.

Butter-milk, which is milk deprived of its oily part by churning, is cooling, aperient, and nutritive. It is a diet well adapted to sickly persons.

Whey is light, sweet, and nutritious, and is well adapted to persons with weak stomachs.

Infusions and Decoctions of Animal Substances used as Drinks.

Beef tea is a light and pleasant article of diet for weak people. Veal broth is nourishing without being heating. Mutton broth is strong, and therefore not well adapted to delicate people. Chicken broth is diluent and restorative. The simple broth made from the green turtle is considered demulcent and restorative, and is highly recommended for weakly people.

Infusions and Decoctions of Vegetable Substances used as Drinks.

The most universally employed in this division is that of tea. The late Dr. Lettsom has shown, that green and bohea tea are derived from one and the same plant, the difference being dependant upon the soil in which the plant is situated, the time of gathering the leaves, and the subsequent management of them. A moderate use of this popular liquor is not likely to prove injurious, but a too frequent indulgence, no doubt, gives rise to nervous and hysterical affections.

Next to tea, that of coffee is most generally used. If not taken too strong, and if a large quantity of sugar and milk be added, this infusion is exhilarating and wholesome; when taken very strong, it stimulates highly, and is productive of many morbid affections.

Chocolate we have already noticed as a wholesome and nutritious beverage; it does not agree with bilious people; it is well fitted for old and emaciated persons. Cocoa possesses properties very similar to chocolate; it is better fitted for persons with weak stomachs and bowels.

Fermented Liquors.

Malt liquors, when well fermented, and not too strong, nor taken in too large a quantity, are wholesome, refreshing, and strengthening; they are best adapted to persons who lead an active and laborious life. Bottled beer is more refreshing than barrelled.

Wine. In moderate quantities, wine proves an agree-

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able and wholesome stimulus, promoting digestion, exhilarating the spirits, and strengthening the system.

"We censure not wine: the vile excess we blame;
More fruitful, than thy accumulated load
Of pain and misery. For thy mild draught
Yours and ours swells the vital tide;
And with more active poison, than the floods
Of grosser credulity convey, pervades
The far-revoted meanders of our frame." *Armstrong.*

Of wines, Rhenish and Hock are the least heating, Frontignac, Malaga, Tent, Tokay, and Cape, are more nutritious and more heating; Port is the most astringent; Sherry and Madeira highly stimulating; Claret, Burgandy, and Champagne stimulating and cordial.

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Perry and cyder are considered to hold a middle place between wine and malt liquor; they are less nutritious than the latter, and less cordial than the former. Ardent spirits. The most destructive to health and happiness; they ought never to be used, except medicinally.

On these subjects, consult CULLEN'S *Materia Medica*; SIR JOHN SINCLAIR'S *Code of Health and Longevity*; PEARSON'S *Synopsis of the Materia Alimentaria and Materia Medica*; MOORE'S *Essay on the Materia Medica*; MORLEY'S *Health's Improvement*; LEMERY'S *Treatise on all kinds of Food, &c.*; ADAIR, on *Diet and Regimen*; FALCONER'S *Observations on some articles of Diet*; HUFFLAND'S *Art of Prolonging Life*.

ALIMENTARIUM PUERI, in Roman Antiquity, were boys maintained and educated by the emperors. Trajan was the first who formed establishments devoted to their benefit. They were supported with great liberality, not only in Rome, but in other cities of Italy. Dion. Cass. lib. lxxviii. c. 5. This example was followed by Hadrian; and Antoninus Pius founded an institution of this nature for girls, in honour of his wife Faustina, from whom the children were called *Puellæ Faustianæ*. Jul. Capitol. vita Ant. cap. 8. Alexander Severus also provided for a number of girls, who were named *Mammæanæ*, after his empress Mammæa.

ALIMENTARY CANAL, or DUOD, in Anatomy, a term designating the whole of those vessels which constitute the passage of the food or aliment through the body, from its being taken in at the mouth, to its expulsion as feces. It is characteristic of animal, in distinction from vegetable life; plants having no common receptacle for the digestion or separation of their food; and is composed of the gullet, the stomach, and the intestines. See ANATOMY, Div. II.

ALIMENTARY LAW, *lex alimentaria*, in Antiquity, an old Roman law, obliging children to maintain their parents.

ALIMONY, *alimonia*, in English Law, sometimes called *rationable estoverium*, reasonable nourishment, the allowance for her maintenance to which a married woman is entitled on a separation from her husband. This may either be obtained in the spiritual or chancery court; it is apportioned by the wisdom of the court, according to the income or means of the husband; but elopement, or adultery, may be pleaded in bar of it.

ALIONE, in Ancient Topography, a name of the town of Lancaster.

ALIOTH, or ALIATH, in Astronomy, the Arabian name of a star, marked ϵ , of the third magnitude; the first in the tail of the Great Bear.

ALIPHERA, in Ancient Geography, a city in the west of Arcadia, about eight miles south of Heræa, named after its founder Aliphras, son of Lycaon, who was the first king of Arcadia, and flourished 1800 years *a. c.* It was seated on a lofty and craggy hill, approached by an ascent of more than a mile in length, on the summit of which was the fortress, and a statue of Minerva of great dimensions and of exquisite workmanship. This statue, according to Pausanias, was made by the artist Hyppatodor, but Polybius says,

by Hecatomor and Sostratus; and adds, that the inhabitants knew not when or by whom it was there placed. The city also boasted of a temple dedicated to the same goddess, whom the popular tradition reported to have been born and brought up in Aliphera. Esculapius had a temple in this city, and Jupiter an altar. At one of their religious assemblies, held probably in honour of Minerva, the worshippers invoked the god Myiagrus to be present, believing he would prevent the swarms of flies from alighting on the sacrifice. When Megalopolis was built, Aliphera was one of those cities whose inhabitants were transferred to it, but it notwithstanding continued to hold the name and rank of a city, though by that event its population was greatly reduced. It was taken with ease by Philip of Macedon, but restored to the Megalopolitans, who claimed it as belonging to them. Polybius, lib. iv. Pausanias, lib. viii. c. 26. Livy, lib. xxxix. c. 5.

ALIPILARIUS, or ALIPILUS, in Roman Antiquities, an officer or servant belonging to the baths, whose business it was, by the application of wax, to take off the hairs from the arms, or arm-pits. This operation was sometimes effected by means of an instrument called *volacella*. The removal of hair from various parts of the body was considered as an act of cleanliness by the ancient Romans.

ALIQUANT PART, in Arithmetic, that part of a given quantity which will not divide it exactly, or without remainder. It is opposed to the aliquot part of a quantity; thus *four* is an aliquant part of *ten*. It may be useful to subjoin the aliquant parts of a pound English:

3s. is an aliquant part =	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th of 1 l.
6s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th and $\frac{1}{2}$ th.
7s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
8s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th.
9s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
11s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th and $\frac{1}{2}$ th.
12s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
13s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th, $\frac{1}{2}$ th, and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
14s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th and $\frac{1}{2}$ th.
15s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
16s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th and $\frac{1}{2}$ th.
17s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.
18s.	$\frac{1}{2}$ th and $\frac{1}{2}$ th.
19s.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th and $\frac{3}{4}$ th.

ALIQUOT PART, in Arithmetic, that part of a given quantity which will equally and exactly divide it. It is opposed to the aliquant part; thus, *four* is an ali-

ALQUOT quot part of *twelv*. We subjoin the aliquot parts of a PARY. pound English :

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10s. ... = $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1l.	2s. 6d. ... = $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1l.
5s. ... = $\frac{1}{8}$ th.	1s. 8d. ... = $\frac{1}{16}$ th.
4s. ... = $\frac{1}{5}$ th.	1s. 4d. ... = $\frac{1}{20}$ th.
2s. ... = $\frac{1}{10}$ th.	1s. 3d. ... = $\frac{1}{24}$ th.
1s. ... = $\frac{1}{20}$ th.	10d. ... = $\frac{1}{24}$ th.
6s. 8d. ... = 4d.	5d. ... = $\frac{1}{48}$ th.
3s. 4d. ... = $\frac{1}{12}$ th.	

ALISE, a small town of France, in the department of the Cote d'Or, or the Auxois, Burgundy, about 20 miles W. N. W. of Dijon. It stands on the site of the ancient Alesia, which see.

ALISHUN, or ALISHUNO, a district or province of Afghanistan, in India, of which the chief town is Peshawar. It derives its name from the river Alishung, which has its source in the lofty snowy mountains that surround the whole district. It is situated between the 35th and 36th degrees N. lat. and 68th and 69th E. lon.

ALISMA, in Botany, the water plantain, a genus of plants belonging to the class Hexandrin, and order Polytrich.

ALIVE. A little.

He rested but a little, a soode pe Inglic him sendes.

R. Brunsen, p. 81.

And though thy lady would alive her greve
Thou shalt thyself thy peace hereafter make
But so to me certain I cannot lose
That she would it a now for evil take.

Chaucer. *Troilus*, book iv. f. 179, c. 2.

For leweth well and sooth is this
That when I knowe all howe it is,
I will but forthen hem alive.

Greene. *Con. A. book ii.*

ALITES (from *ale*, a wing), in Roman Antiquity, a name given to those birds which afforded omens or auguries by their flight and wings. Alites stand opposed to oscines, or birds which gave auguries by the voice, or mouth, singing, croaking, &c.

ALJUBARROTA, a town of Portuguese Estremadura, about ten miles from Leiria. It is a market town, and contains a population of about 1,600 inhabitants.

ALJUSTREL, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo, 16 miles from Beja, containing 1,500 inhabitants. There is another town of this name in Estremadura, four miles from Thomar.

ALIVE. On live, i. e. in life. See LIVE.

Our quest: pot was pen dante Helmore his wife
pe gade erle of Worcester but Hugh was pen a life.

R. Brunsen, p. 213.

For as the fish, if it be drie,
Mote in default of water die;
Right so without weir, as fine
No man, no beast, might thrive.

Greene. *Con. A. book vii.*

Quhana gif the fatis alive conserueth kailth
To tak this beetle are and draw his breath,
And not with crewell goists bid under erd,
There is na drede that soil mak vs affraid:
Now thou sall neuer repent the sickly
To schew vs first frendship and curtesy.

Douglas. *Book i. p. 30.*

Whom, if the Destinies krepes alive (if breath and ayre of skyes
He draws, nor yet among the ghosts of cruel death he lyres),
There is no fear it shall quit the famous non ynn show,
You first his kindeesse to promote, shall never repent I know.

Phaer. *ib.*

I doo no body no harme, I saye those harme, I doo make more harme,
but wither everye bodye good. And yf this be not yongste to kepe
a mance myge, in good sayth I longe not to lye.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, p. 1452, c. 1.

My Shakespeare rise! I will not lodge thee by
Chaucer, or Spenser, or bid Beaumont be
A little further off, to make thee room:
Thou art a monument without a tomb,
And we have writ, while thy book doth live,
And we have writ, and praise to give.

Ben Jonson. *Underwoods*.

Content thee while thou art alive, that, which thou canst not
enjoy, when thou art dead.

Ep. *Hall's Remedy of Discontentment*.

Close by each other laid, they pressed the ground,
Their manly bosoms pierc'd with many a grievous wound.
Nor well alive, nor wholly dead they were,
But some faint signs of terrible life appear:
The wandering breath was on the wing to part,
Weak was the pulse, and hardly beat d the heart.

Dryden's *Polixenus and Arcite*.

If it comes in question, whether a plant, that first truly formed in
the seed, have life: whether the embryo in an egg before incubation,
or a mass in a swoon without sense or motion, be alive or not; it is
easy to perceive that a clear distinct settled idea does not always
accompany the use of so known a word as that of life is.

Lack's *Essay on Human Understanding*.

His soul, where moral truth spontaneously grew,
No guilty wish, no cruel passion knew;
Though tremulously alive to nature's laws,
Yet ever firm to honour's sacred cause.

Fletcher's *Shipwreck*.

ALKADARII, in Mahometan Theology, a sect, or
branch of the Montazalites, who assert the free-will of
man, and deny the doctrine of the fixed, eternal decrees
of God, held by the Algalabari.

ALKAHEST, or ALCAHEST, in the language of the
alchemists, denotes an universal solvent, or menstruum
capable of resolving all bodies universally into their
original principles. The term was introduced by Para-
celsus, in his *Treatise de Viribus Membroium*. It is
mentioned by the practitioners of this exploded science
rather as a desideratum than as any thing they ever
actually obtained: and Van Helmont alone, the pupil
of Paracelsus, asserts that he was really in possession
of this valuable agent, which dissolved all substances
into a colourless fluid.

ALKALI, in Chemistry (from *al*, the Arabic article,
and *kali*, the glass-wort, a plant in whose ashes it is
said to have been first observed), a term given to a par-
ticular and very important class of salts. This salt, as
known to the ancients by the name of natron, or nitre,
is found in large quantities, in a natural state, in and
around the waters of Lower Egypt; and, as obtained
from the calcination of vegetable substances, is men-
tioned by Pliny under the term *livivius cinis*. The
term alkali was, indeed, restricted originally to the
fixed salt of vegetable ashes; but other substances
having been found to yield a similar salt, it was extended
to animal as well as vegetable matters. The prop-
erties of all alkaline substances are, 1st, incombustibil-
ity; 2d, a highly acrid and pungent taste upon the
tongue, which, in point of fact, they burn through the
first delicate skin; 3d, an unctuous feeling on the
finger, as they dissolve the surface of the skin, and by
mixing with the oil of it produce a kind of soap; 4th,
effecting a certain change in vegetable colours, such as
blues into greens, the red of roses into blue, vegetable
browns to yellow, &c.; 5th, being readily soluble in
water; 6th, their strong affinity with all acids, in com-
bining with which they produce neutral salts of various
descriptions.

Alkalies are divided into the *fixed*, and the *volatile*.
Potash and soda belong to the fixed alkalies, as a red

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ALKALI. — **ALL**.
 bent alone volatilizes them; ammonia, readily, and by a moderate heat, becoming gaseous, is called a volatile alkali: these are at present the principal alkalis that are known. For the process of preparing them as articles of commerce, see AMMONIA, POTASH, and SODA, in this Division; and for their relations to Chemistry, as a science, see CHEMISTRY, Div. II.

ALKALIMETER, a scientific instrument invented by Descroizelles to measure the purity of the different alkalis; it acts by ascertaining how many centimes of their own weight they receive in sulphuric acid to complete their saturation.

ALKALINE EARTHS, in Chemistry, a term applied to those earths in which the alkaline quality is found in larger proportion than the earthy quality. The principal alkaline earths are barytes, magnesia, lime, and strontian.

ALKALINE SALTS, are those salts which are procured from the calcination of vegetables and other substances. See **ALKALI**.

ALKANET, in Botany, a species of *Anehusa*, which grows in considerable quantities in Languedoc, and to be found generally in the south of Europe; from which a deep red-coloured varnish is made, by means of steeping it in alcohol. The colour from this root is also obtained by the application of the fixed and essential oils, wax, and some other oily substances.

ALKERMES, in Medicine, a confection, made chiefly of the kermes-berry, flavoured by aromatics, sugars, &c. It was formerly much given as a cordial, but is now disused. The best in Europe was made at Montpellier.

ALKETHI, one of the Pollew islands, in the Pacific ocean.

ALKMAAR, or **ALCMAAR**. See **ALKMAAR**.

ALKORAN. See **ALCORAN**.

ALKY OF LEAD, in the writings of the alchemists, a sweet substance extracted from that metal.

ALL, a. } A.S. *Æl*, *esl*, *ealle*, *alle*. The
all, adj. } etymology of this word is unsettled.
all, adv. } In A.S. *hal* is *whole* (formerly written *hole*, without the *w*). Between *al* and *hal* the difference is so slight, and the application of the two words is so generally alike, that there are fair grounds for supposing them to be the same word. See **WHOLE**.

All is much used in composition, but without effecting any change in the component words.

*He sent for alle þe kynges, fro Berwik unto Kent,
 & þei with fulle gode wille alle unto him went.*

R. Brime, p. 19.

And who ever wote be the firste among you schal be seruant of alle.
Wicklif. Mark, chap. x.

And whosoever wylbe chief, shalbe seruant of all.
Bible. 1539. Ik.

For when her househonde forsoke a right worshipful roune when it was offered hym, she fel in hand with hym (he tolde me) and all to ruled him.
Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 1274, c. l.

Hesous doth with vs, as we, with torches doe;
 Not light them for themselves: For if our vertues
 Did not goe forth of vs, 'twere all alike
 As if we had them not.

Shakespeare's *M.*, for *M.*, act i.

Theological truths are so much more precious than all others, by how much divine knowledge is more excellent than all human arts and sciences whatsoever.

Bp. Hall's *Peace-Maker*.

And even at hand, a dromasie is ready braci'd,
 That shall encounter ail, so loud as thine.
 Sound but another, and another shall
 (As loud as thine) rattle the weikin's eare,
 And tucke the deepe; noath'd thunder.

Ye sons of men, with just regard attend,
 Observe the preacher, and believe the firmit,
 Whose serious muse inspires him to explain,
 That all we act, and all we think, is vain.

Pope's *Solomon. Knowledge.*

In a sadly-pleasing strain
 Let the warbling lute complain:
 Let the loud trumpet sound;
 Till the roofs all around
 The shrill echoes resound.

White, in more lengthen'd notes and slow,
 The deep, majestic, solemn organ blow.

Pope's *Ode on St. Cecilia's Day.*

Thus let me hold thee to my heart,

And every care resign:

And shall we newer, never part,
 My life—my all this minute.

Goldsmith's *Hermis*.

ALL-CHURCH, a village of Warwickshire, five miles from Bromsgrove, on the road to Leicester, formerly said to have been seven miles in circumference, and having the Roman Icknild-street passing through it. It was once a borough and market town. The bishop of Worcester had a palace in this place, and the present church exhibits specimens of Saxon architecture.

ALL-SAINTS, in the Calendar, otherwise **ALL-HALLOW'S DAY**, a feast of the church, celebrated on the first day of November, in honour of all the saints generally, and those in particular to whose memory there is no distinct day assigned. Pope Boniface IV. first established this feast in the ninth century.

ALL-SAINTS, a large parish of George Town, South Carolina, containing about 2,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are slaves.

ALL-SAINTS BAY, one of the most commodious harbours on the coast of Brazil, South America, two leagues and a half wide, and containing several small islands. S. lat. 13° 6'. W. lon. 39° 10'. Also a captaincy in the middle division of Brazil, abounding in cotton and sugar, of which St. Salvador is the capital. It takes its name from the bay, and is bounded on the north by the Real, on the east by the Atlantic, on the south by the river Los Ilheos, and on the west by the Indian territories. There is another, a bay of New Albion, of this name, on the western coast of North America. E. lon. 243° 38'. N. lat. 31° 44'.

ALL-SOULS, in the Calendar, a feast celebrated on the second of November, in commemoration of all the faithful deceased. It was instituted by Odilon, abbot of Cluny, in the eleventh century.

ALLAH-SHEHR, i. e. **CITY OF GOD**; a town of Nalolia, in Turkish Asia. This is the Philadelphia of the ancients. See **PHILADELPHIA**, in Ancient Geography. It contains some remains of its ancient strength and importance; particularly portions of the strong walls and towers with which it was once encompassed. The inhabitants, however, considering the extent of the place, are not very numerous: they are composed of a mixture of Turks and Greeks; but during the passage of the caravans to and from Smyrna, which is distant about five days' journey, the town is much frequented. The Greeks are thought to amount to about three hundred and ten families, who live on friendly terms with their Mahometan fellow-townsmen, the attention of both

ALL.

ALLAH-SHEHR.

ALLAH-SHEIH.
ALLAN.

being happily more directed to the useful pursuits of commerce, than the idle and unprofitable wranglings of bigotry and superstition. Here is a lofty and beautiful cathedral for the use of the members of the Greek church. Besides this, they have upwards of twenty inferior churches, few of which, however, are in a state fit for public worship. The coffee-houses and public baths, of which there are several supplied by a mineral spring in the neighbourhood, are much more resorted to than the churches or the mosques. The influx of Armenian and other merchants gives the town the air of a busy and thriving place. This town is distant from the little village of Sart, once the city of Sardis, mentioned in the Scriptures, about thirty miles.

ALLAH, or ALLA (from *אלה*, Heb.), in Mahometan Theology, the name of the Supreme Being; very frequently used in the Mahometan prayers, and as an exclamation.

ALLAHABAD, a province of Hindostan, 160 miles in length, and 120 in breadth, bounded on the east by the province of Bahar, on the north by Oude, on the south by Berar, and on the west by Agra. The principal cities are Allahabad and Benares. This extensive district is subject to the British government; it was ceded to them by the treaties of 1775, 1801, and 1803. The principal produce of this country is diamonds, indigo, cotton, and all sorts of grain and fruit. The inhabitants are composed of Hindoos and Mahometans.

ALLAHABAD, the capital of the province of the same name, situate at the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges. It consists of two towns, the old and the new; the former on the banks of the Ganges, and the latter on those of the Jumna. A strong fortress of stone was erected here by the Emperor Akbar, who gave the name of Allahabad to this city, which is considered as a seat of devotion among the Hindoos. All the surrounding country, for the space of forty miles, is regarded by the natives as holy ground. The tomb of Sultan Khursu is to be seen in this place. In the middle of the fortress there stands a stone pillar, forty feet high, covered with obsolete inscriptions in Sanscrit and Persia. Dr. Robertson thinks that the ancient Palibothra is the modern city of Allahabad; but Major Rennell places Palibothra on the site of Patna. E. lon. 82°, S. N. lat. 25°, 27°.

ALLANTOIS, or ALLANTOIDES, a thin, transparent membrane, which invests the fetus of quadrupeds. It is supposed to serve as a reservoir for the urine, as it is found connected with the bladder of the fetus by means of the urachus, and is filled with an ichor resembling that fluid.

ALLAINE, a town of France, in Brittany, containing a population of 4,360 inhabitants. It stands near the banks of the Vilaine, about ten leagues from Vannes.

ALLAMANDA in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and to the order Monogynia.

ALLAN, a river of Scotland, which enters the Frith of Forth, about two miles N. W. of Stirling. Allan-bridge, or Bridge of Allan, is a small village, situated on, and deriving its name from this river. It is four miles W. of Stirling.

ALLAY', v.
ALLAY', n.
ALLAY'ER,
ALLAY'MENT,
ALLOY'.

ALLAY is *allege* (the *g* softened into *y*), from the A.S. *Allegan*, to lay, to lay down. See *ALLEGGE*.
To lay down, to put to rest, to quiet, soothe, to tranquillize, to calm, to abate, or diminish strength or violence.

If we no lusty thought away,
Which may his sory throat away,
As for the time yet it leaveth
To hym, which other laye misseeth.

Greene. *Can. A. book vi.*

The tempest was inspired unto him [Joan], and to the estate
lie in the companye should perishe, he was headlong tumbled
into the sea, to the ende that by the force of him leaping but on
man, the tempest might be stayed, whereas otherwise if it had not
deathe vato al the companye.

Udall. *Lake, chap. xiv.*

For if that they were put to swiche annoyances,
The gold of hean hath now so bad annoy
With bras, that though the coine be fyne at ryte,
It wolde rather heate stowe than plye.

Chaucer. *The Clerkes Tale, v. l. p. 368.*

When flowing cups run swifly round
With no allaying Thames,
Our careless heads with roses bound,
Our hearts with loyal flames;
When thirsty grief in wine we steep,
When health and draughts go free,—
Fishes, that tinkle in the deep,
Know no such liberty.

Ed. Lovelace in Ellis, v. iii. p. 277.

If by your art (my dearest father) you have
Put the wild waters in this roar, *alloy* them.
The *alloy* it seems would pour down stinking pitch,
But that the sea, mounting to the welkin's cheek,
Dashes the fire out.

Shakespeare. *Tempest, act i.*

But thou'll say
There were some pieces of as base alloy
And as false stamp there, parcels of a play,
Fitter to see the fire-light, than the day;
Adulterate monies, such as would not go.

Ben. Jonson. *Underwoods, On Falcon.*

How can I moderate it?
If I could temper with my affection,
Or brew it to a weak and colder pallay,
The like *alloy* could I give my grief;
My base admits no qualifying cress;
No more my grief, in such a precious loss.

Shakespeare. *Truella and Cressida.*

Gold incorporates with lead in any proportion; so it does with copper, which is its common alloy; it likewise incorporates with brass and tin, which was the ancient alloy.

Bacon's *Nat. and Exper. Hist.*

If any thing, sin, and our unworthy misdeeds toward God,
Should vex and discompose us; yet this trouble, Widdow, by representing the divine goodness, and his tender services to our ever-blessed Redeemer, doth perfectly *alloy*.

Burton's *Sermans.*

So may the mountain gods and satyrs all
Be kind. So may the boar before thee fall.
So may the water-nymphs, in heat of day,
Though thou their sea despise, thy thirst *alloy*.

Greene's *Oris. Fresh. Hops.*

Yet leave me not! I would *alloy* this grief,
Which else might thy young virtue overpower,
And in thy converse I shall find relief
When the dark shades of melancholy lower.

Bentley's *Minstrel, book ii.*

Gentle stroking with a smooth hand *alloys* violent pains and cramps, and relaxes the suffering parts from their unnatural tension.

Burke, on the *Sublime and Beautiful.*

Phlegm and pure blood are reputed *alloys* of mercury.

Harvey, on *Conceptionis.*

I will purge in the furnace thy dross;
And I will remove all thine *alloy*.
Louth's *Inuic. Preliminary Do.*

ALLAY. See ALLOY.

ALLECT.
—
ALLEGUE.

ALLECT.
ALLECT'VE, n.
ALLECT'VE, adj.
ALL'CIEN'T.
ALL'CIEN'T.

Adj; *levia*, Allicio, allectum,
to draw to.
To attract, to allure, to entice.

They made so cruel and deadly wars, that not like men, whose nature is to be satisfied with the slaughter of men, and to be mortified in the innocent and simple persons, least issues, spoiled houses and killed not only children, and afflicted with the sweetness of *apple* and *prayer*, wasted all the country of Northumbria.

Hall. Hen. VII. fo. 50.

But among all things, the very deadly pestifer is this: to be content close and tight among them, whose life is not only on every side an *allective* to anyone; but even that all set in the expansion of virtue.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 15. c. 1.

Consider what is root and ground
Of thy mischief, which is plainly found
Woman forced with fraud and deceit
To thy confusion most alluring bait.

Chaucer. The Book of the Doctor, l. 323, c. 1.

The awakened needle leapt towards its office.

Johnson's *Enders*.

If the loadstone attract, the steel hath also its attraction; for in this action the *allective* is reciprocal; which jointly felt, they mutually approach and run into each others arms.

Brown's *Valley Errors*.

ALLEG'VE, } As well as *alege*, and *alleg*
ALLEG'ATION, } from the A.S. *Allegan*; to lay
ALLEG'ABLE, } down; and differing only in the
ALLEG'EMENT, } application. *Alleg* is written
ALLEG'ED. } *alege* by Gower, and others.

To lay down—an opinion, argument, reason, assertion; and, consequently, to assert, to affirm, to declare.

I were he lying *aleged*, for were of his treason.

Notices he wild but brigid, for false here & error.

R. Brause, p. 247

Justins, which that hated his folie,
Answerd anon right in his joperie;
And for he wold his longe tale shewe,
He wolden non *allective* allege.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, vol. 1. p. 303.

And eke this noble duke *alege*
Fell many an other skill, and seide,
She had well deserved wretche.
Gower. Can. A. book iii.
Thy son Eene, mysknowing this deny,
As thou *allegis*, is shewen now away.

Douglas, book x. p. 516.

Thel wullen a legges al so, and by he godspel peoven hit
Nolite iudicare quoniam.

Lucan of *Piers Planchon*, p. 502.

And then if we fell at divers opinions, why should that one parte more believe the other, than be believed of the other, with both the partes be of the church and make the church among them? sayinge that alway that parte seemeth to be believed which best & most clerely can *allege* the scripture for their opinion.

Sir Thos. More's Works, p. 167. c. 1.

Sathan upon the pyramide of the temple neuer bestowed his *alleged* scripture more preciously, than they Monks interpreted certayne of my *allegiance*, nor yet further from their right understanding.

Bale's *Image of both Churches*.

Law and reason smeth, that the paving uses of those not commendable to the purpose, is not *allegable* in prescription for the loss of any right.

Grafton, v. ii. p. 487.

Conspicuous chief!
The first in flight from pain! hast thou *alleg'd*
To thy deserted host this cause of flight,
Thou surely hast not come sole fugitive.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book iv.

If there can be any one point of falshood founde in me, touching the *allegation* of this council of Carthage, I will not refuse to stande charged with the whole.

Jeret's *Defense of the Synode*.

So hath R. Solomon Jarchi expounded it, the foremost, or before, is the east quarter, and the west is called behind. And upon this interpretation may all be said that is *allegable* against it.

Brown's *Valley Errors*.

ALLEGUE.
—
ALLEGHAN.

But if thou shalt *allege* through pride of mind,
Thy blood with one of base condition join'd,
Thy false; for 'tis not lawless to be poor;
His poverty suggests thy crime the worse.

Dryden's *Sicilianus and Guiderius*.

But notwithstanding this *allegation* in their behalf, all other copies and translations of the Pentateuch make against them (like *Samaritans*), and prove the corruption to be on their side.

Prideaux's *Conjectures*.

They come to Saad with many complaints and *allegments*.
Sanderus's *Sermons*.

The narrative, if we believe it as confidently as the famous *allegor* of R. Pamphile, appears to do, would argue, that there is no other principle regulable, than what may result from the lucky mixture of several bodies.

Boyle.

ALLEGATION, in Ecclesiastical Law, articles drawn in a formal manner to establish the complainant's cause against the person injuring him. The defendant answers the *allegation* upon oath, and this is called a *defensive allegation*. When issue is thus joined, both parties proceed to their respective proofs.

ALLEGAS, or ALLEGIAS, in Commerce, a kind of stuff manufactured in the East Indies, of which there are two sorts, one made of cotton, and the other of some other herbs, which are spun like wax or thread.

ALLEGHAN COUNTY, New York State, in North America, is a county of very recent formation, having been formed from the Genesee county in 1806. Its first settlement commenced about two years before; it is now, consequently, only in its infant state; but, of late, it has greatly improved, both in a commercial and agricultural point of view.

ALLEGHAN MOUNTAINS, a very extensive range of hills, in North America, between the Atlantic ocean, the Mississippi river, and the lakes. They are divided into numerous ridges, having different names in the different states (viz.) the Blue Ridge, the North Mountain, or North Ridge, or Devil's Back-bone, Laurel Ridge, Jackson's Mountains, and the Kittanning Mountains; but that which is generally denominated the Allegany divides the Atlantic rivers from the Western ocean; and preserves a nearly uniform elevation of about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. These mountains will be more particularly described in the article AMERICA, NORTH, which see.

ALLEGHAN RIVER, a river of Pennsylvania, in North America. It has its source on the western side of the above-named mountains. After running about two hundred miles in a S. W. direction, it meets the Monongahela at Pittsburgh; their united streams form the Ohio. The Allegany becomes navigable about two hundred miles from Pittsburgh. The principal peculiarity of this river is the circumstance of its always being clear and limpid, whatever may be the state of the weather. Its banks were formerly inhabited by the Seneca, and other tribes of the Six Nations.

ALLEGHAN is also the name of the most western county of Maryland, North America, having Pennsylvania on the north. Cumberland is its chief town; and its principal products are, according to Morse, "iron ore, limestone, and stone coal;" with various kinds of grain; also hemp, flax, potatoes, and tobacco.

ALLEG-
GANCE.
—
ALLEGO-
RYE.

ALLEGIANCE, n. } Ad: *figura*. To bind to.
ALLEGIANCY. } Applied (to use the words
of Skinner) "to the tie or bond of fidelity, by which we,
who are subjects, are bound to our prince." See ALLY.
Applied to any tie, or bond of duty, or good faith.
In this sense *tytus*, Robert duke of Normandy, moved in con-
sequence to *vyvite* the holy scripture of our *Lorde*, called before
him his lordes of his lande, wyllinge & comaundyng: them to
owne theyre *trewe allegiaunce* into his yonge sone, Wylliam; & to
take hym for theyre lord & duke, if he recourne nat *eygier*.

Falgoner, p. 230.

And also the sayd king William did then and there condempne and
acknowledge by his letters patentes that he and his successors men
of Scotland should be loyall, *allegiaunce* and feallie to the kinges
of England, as often as they shall be requyred thereto.

Cryftes, v. l. p. 196.

Hearre me recraunt, on thine allegiaunce hearre me;
That thou hast sought to make or breake our vowes,
Which we darst never yet; and with strail'd pride,
To come betwixt our sentence and our power,
Which, nor our nature, nor our place can beare;
Our potentie make good, take thy reward.

Shakespeare. King Lear.

—For your great graces
Hear'd upon me (poore vnderwor) I
Can nothing render but *allegiaunce* thanks,
My prayres to becom for you; my loyaltie
Which cure ha's, and cure shall be growing,
Till death (that winter) kill it.

Id. Life of King Henry Eight.

Ere wit oblige had broke that steady light,
Man, like his Maker, saw that all was right;
To virtue, in the paths of pleasure trod,
And own'd a father who he own'd a God.
Love all the faith, and all that *allegiaunce* then,
For nature knew no right divine in men.

Pope's Ess. on Man, Epist. iii.

Even in swearing *allegiaunce* to their sovereigns, an act which
could extortly to be accompanied with professions of submission
and respect, they [the Aragonese] devised an oath, in such a form,
as to remain full of his dependence on his subjects.

Robertson's Charles V.

ALLEGIANCY, in English Law, is perpetual in a nat-
ural-born subject, as well as in a subject naturalized by
law, and cannot be dissolved. In case of *aliens* resident
in the kingdom, it lies on them *pro tempore*, whilst they
reside under the protection of the state; for that gov-
ernment which gives protection requires obedience.
The common law prescribes the taking the oath of
allegiaunce by all persons above twelve years of age, at
courts leet; and there are various statutes requiring
the oaths of *allegiaunce* and supremacy to be taken under
penalties. Persons above the age of eighteen may be
summoned by any justice of peace to take these oaths;
and if any natural born subject be withdrawn from his
allegiaunce, and be reconciled to the pope or to sec of
Rome, or shall promise obedience to any other state,
he and his advisers incur the guilt of treason. 1 *Edw.*
c. 1; 1 William and Mary, c. 18; 1 Anne, stat. i. c. 22,
&c. &c.

ALLEGORYE, n. } *Ἀλληγορία*, from *ἄλλος*
ALLEGORICALLY, } other; and *ᾠγναις*, from
ALLEGORICALLY, } *ᾠγναις*; to collect together
ALLEGORINITY, } (sc. to harangue), and con-
ALLEGORIZER, } sequently to harangue a mul-
ALLEGORY, } titude, to speak.

Allegory, says Quintilian, exhibits one thing in words,
another in meaning; aliud verbis, aliud sensu, ostendit.
Per *allegoriam*, in the Vulgate, is rendered by *Wicli-*
"Bi another understanding."

Now will I but say in manner blame at all, in any man that will
expel all the whole province of Genesis, by all *allegoriz*, and
VOL. XVII.

terche vs *allegoriz* consistent verses understand in the floor
floods of paradise, and tell vs that paradise is grace, out of which
all the floods of all virtues flowe and water the earth, calling the
earth mankinde that was made thereof, beyngue harangue and
fraylesome, but yf it be waiered with the floods of vertue, and so
forth in some such manner expound vs all the *creant*.

See Thomas More's *Wicli*, p. 1041. c. 1.

With his *allegoriz* exposition of spiritual eating of Christes
goodhead & of his hosti by beliefe of his passion, he goeth about
to take away from vs the very lyttrall truth, of the very eating and
bodely receiuing of Christes own veris flesh & blood.

Id.

For it is writen, that Abraham had two sones, the one by a
bondes maide the other by a free woman. Yee and which was
the bodie woman, was borne after the flesh; but he
which was of the free woman, was borne by promise. Which thynges
are spoken by an *Allegory*. For these are two testametes.

Bible, 1239. *Galatians*, chap. iv.

A kingdom they portend thee, but what kingdom,
Real or *allegorick*, I discern not,
Nor when; eternal sure, as without end,
Without beginning.

The stoic philosophers, as we learn from Cicero, were great *al-*
legoriz. *Country. Phil. Com.*

Make no more *allegories* in scripture than *oodes* most; the
fathers were too frequent in them; they indeed, before they
fully understood the literal sense, looked out for an *allegory*.

Selden's Table Tell.

But now the mystic tale that pleas'd of yore,
Can charm an understanding age no more;
The long spun *allegories* fadome grow,
While the dull moral lies too plain below.

Addison, On the Greatest English Poets.

I would ask why so great a philosopher and mist, as he [St.
Austin] was, followed this evil custom, and filled his works with
mystic, and more forced applications of corporeal images to intelli-
tual and divine subjects, than any writer, perhaps, of that metaphor-
izing and *allegorizing* age?

Bellandier's Essay on Human Knowledge.

On the broad stem, a pencil warm and bold,
That never servile rules of art control'd;
An *allegory* tale on high portending;
There a young hero, here a royal maid.

Falconer's Shipwreck, can. ii.

In his [Salmon Glusius] chapter De *ALLEGORIS FABULIS*, he
breaches those writers who affect to interpret *allegorically*, not
only texts of scripture, but also poetical fables and profane histories,
which they arbitrarily apply to the explication or confirmation of the
mysteries of Christianity.

Watson's Hist. of Eng. Poetry.

In truth, the pencil of Spenser is as powerful as that of Rubens,
his brother *allegorist*; which two artists resembled each other in
many respects; but Spenser had more grace and was in warm a col-
ourist.

J. Watson's Essay on Pope, § viii.

ALLEGORY, in Composition, a figure which con-
ceals under the literal meaning of our words another
and a different sense. An *allegory* differs from a
metaphor or simile, as it consists of a continued story
told in a chain of metaphors. Thus, likening a ship
to a state is a simile; but to steer the ship through
storms without, to rule it in spite of mutiny within,
and to reach the destined port in safety; signifying the
outward warfare and the infernal rebellions of that
state, overcome by the wisdom of its governor, is an
allegory, and one of the most usual, and the most ob-
vious kind. Thus Horace, l. i. ode xiv.

O mihi, referent in mare te ovi
Phœbus. O quid egis? fortiter occupa
Portum.

Numberless instances of *allegory*, in the highest style
of excellence, might be given from writers in our own
language, as it has been a favourite figure of com-
position with us. The Bible abounds in the finest in-
stances, of which Blair gives the LXXX Ps. v. 8—16,
as a specimen. Spenser's *Faerie Queen* is an *allegory*
throughout, and Addison, in his *Spectator*, abounds

2 u

ALLEGO-
RYE.

ALLE-
GORYE.
—
ALLE-
VIATE.

with allegories, any of which may be taken as a prototype for this kind of figure. The resemblance of an allegory to its real and intrinsic meaning may be too obvious; but equal care must be taken that it may not be broken or obscure; for in the one case, the pleasure is destroyed, and in the other the instruction intended to be conveyed is overwrought, hidden, and finally lost.

ALLEGRO, Italian, in Music, denotes a time between presto, rapid; and andante, or gravo and solemn. Gay and lively are its best synonyms in English. Allegro time may be heightened, as allegro assai, and allegriissimo, very lively; or lessened, as allegretto, or poco allegro, a little lively.

ALLELUIA, or ALLELUIAH. See HALLELUJAH.

ALLEMANDA, in Music, a term now disused, signifying moderately quick. The compositions of Handel abound in this kind of time.

ALLEN, a river in Dorsetshire, which enters the Stour, near Blandford. There is a river in Wales also of this name, which has a short subterraneous course.

ALLENDALE, a township of Northumberland, about nine miles from Hexham, and 291 from London. It is divided into two parts, east and west, which, together, contain a population of about 2,000 persons.

ALLENDORF, a town and bailiwick in the electorate of Hesse Cassel, Germany, about 24 miles W. of Mulhausen. It stands on the river Weser, and has a population of 2,500 souls. Also a small bailiwick, with a capital town of the same name, in Hesse Darmstadt, and the name of several inconsiderable towns and villages of Germany.

ALLER, a village of Somersetshire, six miles from Bridgewater, remarkable only for the ruins of a chapel, in which, it is said, Godrun, the Danish king, was baptised; and for a battle fought in 1645, between the royalists and the forces of the parliament.

ALLERBERG, a town in Bavaria, 16 miles from Nuremberg. It is a market town, and contains 1,570 inhabitants.

ALLERION. See ALERION.

ALLEUSHEIM, a market town of Bavaria, six miles S. of Wurtzburg.

ALLERTON, or CHAPEL ALLERTON, a village of Yorkshire, included in the parish of Leeds. It is mentioned in the Domesday Book, by the name of Alreton, as having been, in the time of the Confessor, vested in a Saxon lord, named Glumer. Within the space of eighty years from the date of the domesday survey, it was parcelled out by the Lacy family to several grantees, one line of which, at the earliest period of local surnames, assumed that of Allerton. The foundations of the present chapel were certainly laid prior to the reign of Henry III. as, by a charter dated in that monarch's reign, it is spoken of as then existing. This village, with that of Gledhow and Pottennewton, constitute the most beautiful portion of Leeds parish. "Dry, elevated, and healthful, they have long formed," says Mr. Whitaker, in his recent valuable History of Leeds, "the Montpelier of the neighbourhood."

ALLEVARD, a town of France, in the department of Isere, and district of Grenoble. It is seven leagues N. E. of Grenoble.

ALLEVIATE, v.

ALLEVIATION, n.

ALLEVIATIVE.

Ad: *levit*, light.

To lighten, or make light;

to relieve from a burden;

from an oppressive weight; from any thing oppressive or irksome; to moderate, to assuage, to mitigate.

How much shall we be wanting to ourselves, if we do not make use of this spiritual agility; sending up these spirits of ours from this dull clay of our bodies to those regions of blessedness, that they may thence fetch comfort to alleviate the sorrows of their heavy pantum!

Rev. Hall's Balm of Gilead.

These are, my son, special compositions of wholesome recipes for the several maladies of thy soul; wherein it shall be my happiness to have suggested unto thee such thoughts as may any way avail to the alleviation of thy sorrows. *Id.*

Some cheering allusion to lads kept in pure slavery to a few Greek and Latin words. *Cora's Dream.*

Those large bladders or membranes, extending to the bottoms of the bellies of birds, into which the breath is received, conduce much to the alleviating of the body, and facilitating the flight.

Reg. on the Creation.

The sentiments of nature, the habits of education, and the possession of a dependant species of property, contributed to alleviate the hardships of servitude. *Gibbon's Roman Emp.*

The calamity of the want of the sense of hearing is now alleviated,—compensatively speaking it is removed, by giving the use of letters and of speech; by which they [the deaf] are admitted to the pleasure of social conversation. *Hawley's Sermon.*

ALLEY, n. From the Fr. *aller*: to go.

Alley (says Skianer), a place through which it is possible to go or pass.

Applied particularly to the walks in a garden; and to paths or passages from main streets or roads.

So long about the alley is he gone.

Till he was e'en again to think pery.

Wher as this Danian stiteth full airy

On high, among the fraile leaves greene.

Chaucer. The Marchants Tale, v. l. p. 41.

An hundred lighters, truly told,

Shall play with bows in alley cold,

Your disease to drive away.

Sayer of Low Degree. Ellis, v. l. p. 349.

To-morrow, ere fresh morning streak the east

With first approach of light, we must be risen,

And at our pleasant labour, to reform

Yon flowery arbours, yonder alleys green.

Milne's Pers. Lett. book iv.

This division of sex was formerly in our churches. **** The seats for the men being next to the chancel, and the seats for the women next from the middle doors to the belfry, with an alley up to the middle of the church, and another cross that to the north and south doors. *Sir G. Wheeler, on the Churches of the Prim. Christ.*

Here eat the peasant, with inquiring face,

Bewilder'd trudge on from place to place;

He dwells on every sign with stupid gaze,

Enters the narrow alleys doubtful man.

Gay's Trivia, book ii.

O guide me from this horrid scene,

To high-sunk'd walks and alleys green,

Which lovely Laura seeks to shun

The favours of the mid-day sun.

J. Warren's Ode to Fancy.

ALLEZOIR, in Gunnery, a machine made for boring cannon. It consists of a strong frame of timber, by which the muzzle of a piece of ordnance is placed downwards, and the piece itself suspended in the air. Then, by an instrument with a strong and sharp edge, the boring is accomplished in a horizontal direction.

ALLI, or ALLIA, in Ancient Geography, a river of Italy, which falls into the Tiber a little above Rome. On the banks of this river the Romans were defeated by the Gauls under Brennus.—*Plut. in Cunnill. Virg. Æneid. vii. 717.*

ALLIANCE, in the Civil and Canon Law, the relationship which is contracted between two families by marriage; also a treaty, offensive or defensive, between sovereign powers and states, for their mutual con-

ALLE-
VIATE.
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ALLI-
ANCE.

ALLI-
ANCE.
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ALLITE-
RATION.

venience. The forms and ceremonies attendant upon the making alliances have been varied according to the nature of the contract and the progress of civilization. Signing, sealing, and swearing, sometimes on the altar, are our present forms; but anciently, the ceremony of sacrifice was often considered requisite to ratify an alliance. Calves and heifers were offered on these occasions by the Jews and Chaldeans; amongst the ancient Greeks, bulls and goats; and amongst the Romans, hogs were sacrificed. The ancient Arabs drew blood, by a sharp stone, from the palms of the hands of the two chiefs contracting; they stained a portion of their garments with their blood, and beameared with it seven stones, invoking, as testimonies, the gods Voral and Allat, whom Herodotus avers to be the same as Bacchus and Uranus. The people of Colchis ratified alliances by one of the contracting chiefs sucking at the breast of the wife of the other chief until blood issued.

ALLIER, a river of France, rising in the base of the Lozère mountains, near Coudray; pursuing its course through the heart of France, it falls into the Loire about three miles below Nevers. This river gives name to the modern department of the

ALLIER, which comprises the province of the Bourbonnois, and a portion of the generalité of Moulins. It is divided into four arrondissements, viz. Mont Luçon, Moulins, Gannat, and Palaise; and contains a population of 254,558 inhabitants.

ALLIGATION, in Arithmetic (from *aligare*, to connect together), the rule whereby the average value of various ingredients in a compound is ascertained; or by which, the average price or value being given, the quantities and values of the several ingredients are to be regulated. The former has been called alligation medial, the latter, alligation alternate. These operations are now more commonly and more quickly performed by algebra. See ARITHMETIC and ALGEBRA, in MATHEMATICS, Div. I.

ALLIGATOR, in Zoology, a large species of Lacerta; the American crocodile.

ALLIGHUR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, formerly called Kola, about half way between the Ganges and the Jumna. It is a strong fortress, and was taken by the British in 1803. Cattub, the first Mahometan King of Delhi, resided here for some time.

ALLIONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Tetrandria, and order Monogynia.

ALLIOTH. See ALIOTH.

ALLITERATION, *a.* Ad: *litera*. To a letter.

ALLITERATIVE, *a.* Applied to the close recurrence of words beginning with the same letter.

Who often, but without success have pray'd
For apt alliteration's artful aid.

Churchill. *Prophecy of Famine*.
Thus the fields must be flowry, heavy must be bearing, ladies must be lovely; and in the same manner must the "waves wind their watery way," the "blasting blasts blow," and "locks all loosely lay," not for the sake of the poetry, but the elegance of the alliteration.

Consuetor. No. 83.
This partial attachment to particular letters is a kind of contrast to the famous Odyssey of Tryphiodorus, where every letter in the alphabet was in its turn excluded; and the alliteration must be as fully employed to introduce his favourite vowel or consonant, as the Greek poet to shut out the letter he had proscribed.

Id.
The propensity of the Welsh bards depended much on alliteration. Hence they seem to have paid an attention to the æsthetic verification. The Icelandic poets are said to have carried alliteration to the highest pitch of exactness in their earliest periods.

T. Warren's *Hist. of the Eng. Poetry*.

Nor did he [Longland] make those writers [the Anglo-Saxon poets] the models of his language only; he likewise imitates their alliteration, fine verification, which consisted in using an aggregate of words beginning with the same letter.

T. Warren's *Hist. of the Eng. Poetry*, § viii.

ALLITERATION is chiefly used in Poetry, in successive words, or in words succeeding each other at short intervals, and is mostly applied in the beginning of these words. It is not considered as an arrangement of much importance amongst critics; and in prose is often inconvenient and disagreeable; but it has been used by the most celebrated poets, both of ancient and modern times. Virgil, Lucretius, and even Homer, afford instances of alliteration; the Italians are particularly fond of it, as were our Shakespeare and Spenser. It would be difficult to appropriate this figure to any particular passion, for we find it expressing rage and grief, pity and despair; the roughness and strength of the muse, equally with her smoothness, seriousness, and gaiety. Specimens might easily be selected of each of these different uses of alliteration; but the foregoing extracts from Churchill and the Consuetor will sufficiently illustrate this peculiarity of composition.

ALLIUM, in Botany, garlic, a genus of plants of the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

ALLOA, a sea-port of Scotland, on the Frith of Forth, in the county of Clackmannan. It has a commodious harbour, having sixteen feet of water in neap, and twenty-two in spring tides. There is also a dry dock, an extensive glass-house, distilleries, and considerable collieries. Formerly a flourishing woollen manufacture was carried on here, but it has considerably declined. The malt liquor brewed at Alloa is in repute in various parts of Scotland. It has two markets. There is an export and import trade carried on here with the Baltic; and the Frith, at this town, first becomes a navigable river. Its exports are coals, glass, and spirits; its principal imports, lime-stone, iron-stone and grain. The earls of Mar formerly made their residence in the castle of this place, of which there still remains a tower eighty-nine feet high, with walls eleven feet in thickness, supposed to have been built in the thirteenth century. The population is about 3,000. Distance from Edinburgh 27 miles. W. lon. 3°. 46'. N. lat. 56°. 7'.

ALLOBROGES, or ALLOBROGES, a warlike people of Gaul, who dwell near the Rhone, in that part of the country now called Piedmont, Savoy, and Dauphiny. Though they valiantly resisted the efforts of the consul Domitius to subjugate them to the Roman yoke, and left 20,000 men out of 23,000 dead on the field in a battle with that general, the defeat of the neighbouring tribes of the Arverni shortly afterwards, and their utterly exhausted situation, compelled them to submit to Fabius Maximus, who took the surname of Allobrox from this circumstance. The ambassadors of the Allobroges were entreated by Catinus to join in his conspiracy against his country, but they received his proposals with indignation, and discovered the plot to the senate. SALL. in *Con.*; CAT. *Cic. in Cat.*; Tac. *Hist.*; STRAB.

ALLOCATION, in the Exchequer, a sum of money allowed upon or placed in account.

ALLOCATIONE FACIENDA, the writ issued to the chief barons or lords of the exchequer, allowing to an accountant such sums of money as may have been lawfully expended in his office.

2 u 2

ALLITE-
RATION.

ALLOCA-
TIONE
FACI-
ENDA.

ALLOCU-
TION.
—
ALLOT.
—

ALLOCUATION, *n.*, or ADLOCUTION. *Ad:* *loquer;* *locutus.* To speak to.

A speaking to; addressing the speech to. See ADLOCUTION.

Upon such a high tribunal or scaffold [the *stage*, or pulpit] we often see the emperor standing, and sometimes sitting in majestic and august attitudes; both in *allocutions* to the army, and in distributing their bounty to the people.

Sir O. Wheeler. On the Churches of the Prim. Chris.

ALLodial, ALLodium, or ALLEUD, in Law, an inheritance held in a man's own right, and not under any rent or service to a superior lord. In this it differs from lands in fee, which always pay either rent or service when demanded. In Domesday Book it is applied to free manors, and the allodial are lords paramount.

ALLOGNE, in Military Tactics, the cordage by which floating bridges are guided from one side of a river to the other.

ALLONGE (from *allonger*, Fr. to make long, or lengthen), in the Art of Fencing, a pass or thrust made by a rapier or small sword. It seems to have been derived from the stretching out of the arm in this action, which sometimes demand unusual vigour and dexterity.

ALLOO, *interj.* or Loo, alloo, halloo; the im-HALLOO, perative loo, of the verb lool.

Written, by Spenser, alew.

Awile she walkt, and chaunt; awile she threwe

Herself upon her bed, and did lament:

Yet did she not lament with lowde alew;

As women woul, but with dympe sighes and singulies few.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book v. c. vi.

MAR. Lord Hamlet.

HOR. Heaven secure him.

MAR. So be it.

HOR. *Allo, he, he, my Lord.*

MAR. *Allo, he, he, boy; come hild, come.*

Shakespeare's Hamlet, act i.

List, list; I hear

Come far off halloo break the silent air.

Milton's Comus.

I'll halloo,

If he be friendly, he comes well; if not,

Defence is a good cause, and heaven be for us. *Id.*

That hallo I should know; what are you? speak;

Come not too near, you fall on iron stakes else. *Id.*

MAR. JES. *Hallo! who walketh there? is't you my lord?*

KING. *Mortimer, 'tis I.*

Marlow's Edward II.

Alloo thy furious mastiff, bid him vix

The anxious herd, nee print upon their cars

A and memorial of their past offence. *Philips.*

ALLOPHYLUS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Octandria, and order Monogynia.

ALLOT, *v.* } *Lot*, in the A. S. written *alot*,
ALLOTNEXT, } is the regular past tense, and
ALLOTTEY. } therefore past participle of *hlaban*,

tegepe, *operire*, to cover, and means something covered, or hidden. Tooke, v. 2. p. 195.

Upon this past participle the verb *allot* appears to have been formed.

To put to lot, to give by lot, to grant, or distribute by lot, and then generally, to give, grant, distribute, apportion.

Of Priamus this was the fatal fine,

The wofull end that was allotted him;

When he had seen his palace all on flame,

With ruine of his Trojans turbae eke.

Surrey. Sonnets Book of Virgiles Aeneid.

Thy self content with that is the asiada,

And use it well that is to the alotted. *Hyatt.*

Then Jupiter is heauen above in coaul balance wayes

Their detailes both, and from his reuence graue a while he stayes,

And vnto either diuers chance alota, who shall endure

More trouels hard, and who to present death to die is sure.

Aeneid, by Thos. Tyn, book xii.

Five dayes we do allot thee for provision;

To shewd thee from diasters of the weat,

And on the sixt to turn thy hated backe

Vpon our kingdom. *Shakespeare's King Lear.*

— Her [the moon] spots thou seest

As clouds, and clouds may rain, and rain produce

Fruits in her soft'n'd soil, for some to eat

Abhorred there. *Milton's Par. Lost, book viii.*

Whereas the province that is allotted to me is to treat of a right way to govern the female sex, I hold my lot to be fallen upon a fair ground, and I will endeavour to husband it accordingly.

Howell's Letters.

The spirit of my father grows strong in mee, and I will no longer endure it: therefore allow me such exercises as may become a gentleman, or give mee the power: alottory my father left me by testament, with that I will goe buy my fortune.

Shakespeare's As You Like It, act i.

The fire, that once extinct reviv'd again,

Forebode the love extinct to remain.

Dryden's Poems and Arcite.

As no man can excel in every thing, we must consider what part is allotted to us to act in the station in which Providence hath placed us, and to keep to that.

Means, or Self-knowledge.

And let no one say, that God has no ordered things in this life, that upon the whole there is a fair and just allotment of temporal blessings.

By Pearce's Sermons.

ALLOTMENT of lands, in Law, the parting out and apportioning of certain parcels of common or waste ground, when enclosed, to the various proprietors of other lands or tenements, in the same parish, according to the value of their respective possessions.

ALLOTMENT of goods, in Commerce, the dividing of goods by lot, and more particularly applied to the disposal of a ship's cargo, which has been purchased by several persons jointly. In this case, the names of the purchasers are sometimes written on separate pieces of paper, which are given over to an indifferent person, who designates each particular lot or parcel of the goods to the several names.

ALLOTRIJÆ, or ALLOTRIJES, in Ancient Geography, a nation mentioned by Strabo, as forming part of the Gauls, in the southern districts of Spain.

ALLOW, *v.* } The etymology of this
ALLOW'ABLE, } word is unsettled. It is
ALLOW'ABLENESS, } usually derived from the
ALLOW'ABLY, } French, *allowen*; which
ALLOW'ABCE, } Menage derives from the
ALLOW. } Lat. *Ad: laudare.*

The Gothic *lewyan*, *ga-lewyan* (Junius says) is, to offer, or bear forward, to hold out, to hold before. The instance he gives is from Luke, c. vi. v. 29. "Unto hym that smytheth thee on the one cheek, offer also the other." Galewii: *præbe.*

The adverb *alow*, is used by Chaucer, in a passage already quoted, under the word *acknowledg*.

The verb is written by Chaucer, Surrey, and others, with a single *l*; and may probably be the same word with *alow*; to low, or to make low; formed upon the past participle of the A. S. verb *hegan*, *jacere*, *cubare*; and thus mean

To low, or lower (our claims or pretensions), to make, or grant; permit, or concede, an allowance, abatement, or deduction. And then, consequently,

To offer, to admit, to permit, to suffer, to assent, to concede, to yield.

pe gode bihsop Antoin per he bare pe pris,

His dedes ere to alow, for his hardynesse.

H. Branner, p. 231.

ALLOT.
—
ALLOW.
—

ALLOW.

Considering then youth,
So fringly thou speakest, sire, I allow thee
As to my dome, there is man that is here,
Of eloquence that shall be thy peer,
If that thou live.

Chaucer. *Franklin's Prologue*, v. i. p. 436.
For love nothing ne praiseth this
Ye yere good comrade sickerly
That praiseth me al day, that I
himself not loves here.

Id. *Roman of the Rose*, fol. 140, c. 3.
For side it is, that here alloweth
The gentill man withouten good,
Though his condition be good.

Gower. *Can. A. book iv.*
Some that purpose to meude, and woulde fayne have some tyme
lefe them longer to beate somewhat better, say peradventure be
holie to die also by h. by,—yet will I not saye, but that suche kynd
of sillenesse to dye, maye be before God allowable.

Sir Thos. More's Works, p. 1250, c. 1.

þ; lord lokeþ to have a lousure for his beater,
And of þe alloweþ þow lousid þe myd.

Vision of Piers Plowman, p. 161.

When his master is from home in a strange country (he, the
faithful steward), will see well to his household, of which he is
made caretaker and depote, not to see himself as a lord or a
tyranny over it, but out of the tenderness of his lord to bring
forth good unto every body, his due allowance, as much as
merit is, and at such times as is requisite.

Udell's S. Lark, chap. xii.

So as his errors manifold, that many words dothe use,
With humble secret phylt, few words of better effect,
Honor thy lord; I allowe value of thy debt neglect.

Surrey.

With thine life doth defende this thyne amallite
Of sayne allowance of his owne discrete;
And all the pleye of his forgotten faulte
In God also be dothe it hole curete.

W. Jett.

Wee doo worshippe God, and the Father of our Lord Jesus
Christe; and doo allowe al thinge which our lawe writen either
in the lawe, or in the prophetes, or in the apostles wordes.

Jean's Defence of the Apologie.

This is, in summe, what I would have ya say:
First, whether ye allowe my whole device,
And thinke it good for me, for them, for you,
And for our country, mother of us all;
And if ye like it, and allowe it well,
Then for their pydings and their governance,
Shew forth such weame of circumstance,
As ya thinke meete to be both knowne and kept.

Sackville's Poem and Poem, act 1. sc. 2.

Yet hear me, Sonson; not that I coudavour
To loose or satiate my offence,
But that on the other side, if it be weigh'd
My self, with aggravations not tarding'd,
Or else with just allowance counterpois'd,
I may, if possible, thy pardon find.

Milvia's Sonnet Agn.

The journey is allow'd but one career,
Of the tough ash, with the sharp-grained spear,
But knights unhorn'd may rise from off the plain,
And fight on foot their honour to regain.

Dryden's Pal. and Ar.

Lets, on to their nature, use, and allowance, in matters of re-
creation, are indeed impugned by some, though better defended by
others.

I should abundantly enough discharge my part in this treatise, if I
should not do any more with the sharp-grained spear, but content with that
certain high expressions of the fruits, that may be gathered from
natural philosophy, if it be industriously and skilfully cultivated.

Boyle's Exper. Phil.

The ruin'd spendthrift, now no longer proud,
Claim'd kindred there, and had his claims allow'd.

Goldsmith's Deserted Village.

It is an uncommon thing for some who excel in one thing, to
imagine they may excel in every thing; and, not content with that
share of merit which every one allows them, are still catching at that
which doth not belong to them.

Mason, on Self-knowledge.

Many have weighed carefully, and observe conscientiously, some
duties of life; but will not reflect a moment, whether it be advisable
for them to behave, in other points, as they do.

Sayer's Sermons.

ALLOY, in Chemistry, the combination or amal-
gamation of various metals into one mass, such as
brass, bronze, type metal, &c. The alloy of gold is
valued by carats; that of silver by pennyweights; but
when the word is used as a verb, it is generally ap-
plied to the action of mixing a more valuable metal
with one of less estimation, and so deteriorating its
value, as silver with tin, or gold with copper.

ALLSPICE, in Botany. See MYRTUS.

ALLSTADT, or ALSTADT, an ancient town and
bailiwick of Germany, in the circle of Upper Saxony, in
the principality of Eisenach, 26 miles N. of Weimar,
and 28 N. N. E. of Erfurt. The Emperor Otho had
a palace in this town, and held a diet here in 974.

ALLUDE, v.

Ad: *Indo*. To play, or
sport upon.

ALLU'ITE, v.

Applied to playful or spor-
tive hints and intimations;

ALLU'IVELY,

and then generally; to hint
at, to intimate, to refer to.

ALLU'IVENESS.

These words good readers have no great harm in them at the
first face. But they allude unto certain wordes of Tyndall wyth
whyche he argueth agaynst me.

Sir Thos. More's Works, t. 860.

As for the grace of the Latin tongue I thinke vposible to bee
fluely expressed, as this autours doeth it in the Latin by reason of
recondite allusion, discrete proverbs, many figures, & exornations
rhetoricall.

Udell's Preface to S. Lark.

In play'd in the convales of every one of those vast capacious
spires some living creature to glorify his name, among whom
there is in every of them one experiment, like man upon earth, to
be lord paramount of all the rest. To this happily may allude this
old opinion, that there is a peculiar intelligence which guides and
governs every orb in heaven.

Bowell's Letters.

— The rest were all

Far to the island retir'd, about the walls

Of Pandemonium; city and proud seat

Of Lucifer, so hy allusion call'd

Of that bright star to Satan paragon'd.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book 1.

The Jewish nation, that rejected and crucified him, within the
compass of our generation were, according to his prediction, de-
stroyed by the Romans, and preyed upon by those eagles (Romans
viii. 20.), by which, allusion, are noted the Roman armies, whose
enign was the eagle.

Hammond.

The great art of a writer shows itself in the choice of pleasing
allusion, which are generally to be taken from the great or beautiful
works of art or nature.

Spectator, No 421.

The foundation of all parables is some analogy or similitude
between the tropical or allusive part of the parable, and the thing
couched under it.

There may, according to the multifarious allusion of the pro-
phetical style, another notable meaning be also intimated.

More's Seven Churches.

The people of the country, attending to the whiteness of its (Bater-
more lake) foam, call it our-still force.

Citipia's Tour in the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

To resume a former allusion, the running horse, when fastened,
will still be fit for very useful purposes, though unqualified for a
course.

Goldsmith's On Fasting Learning.

ALLUMEE (*allumé*, French), in Heraldry, denotes
the eyes of an animal when they are represented light,
or sparkling, and of a different colour from the animal
itself, as when they are red, and the animal proper.
Also applied to the flame of a torch, when illuminated,
and the handle itself is of the colour of nature.

ALLUMINOR (*allומר*, French), a person formerly

ALLOW.

ALLUMI-

NOR.

ALLUMI- employed in colouring or painting upon paper or parch-
NOR. ment, the initial and other letters of manuscripts, parti-
— ALLURE. cularly our old charters and deeds, which are called from this custom illuminated.

ALLURE, *v.* } Of unsettled etymology. In
ALLURE, *n.* } *Fr.* *allure*; allure, from the verb
ALLUREMENT, } allure, to go; is a way or path;
ALLUREN, } and in this literal meaning,
ALLUREN, } allure, shures, is found in Robert
of Gloucester, and in Lidgate.

Allure, then, may mean to show, open, or point out the way (subdued to the gratification of any desire); to lead or draw on the way; to attract, to tempt, to entice.

*Vpe be alure of be castles be layden þeune stude,
And hynde þy noble game, & whiche kyngis were god.
R. Gloucester, p. 192.*

*Such lay had she, for to take hede
On her stalkes for to seen hem sprede
In the shure walking to and fro.*

The Story of Thane, by John Lidgate, part ii. p. 388, c. 9.

In my mynde both his reasons & subuersions are so eynlysh and vnosuety, so vnderstand and hard, so full of factes and playnauys, that I rather pyte the mines depe ignorance & blindness thil I feure that by his wayes prebitions shold allure any man to conuenit vato hym.

A Bebe made by John Fryth.

What shoulde I speake of the other lease evils, that he sheweth and alured her with, as the pleasure of the eye in the bekynginge of that frute, with lykous desyre of the delicious taste.

Sir Thomas More's Works, f. 127, c. 1.

*His bulke, as Titan radiant,
Wald pers an hart of adamant,
And it to love allure,
His miring beuile delis embroyls
My heart, and all my mind amys.*

Rebels of Helicon, Sibbold, v. iii. p. 107.

Why did not euer loe towards God allure you hither before as well as y^e fere & drede of punishment dooeth viciety hyle you hither now at this present. Your mydes and bettes are as yet nothing changed at al.

Udal. S. Luke, chap. iii.

And coer and beyndes at this, those persones who laied their battay against the truth euangelical to cast it down and to destruye it, not onely had diuerse and soundry kindes of terrors wherewith euen veyrly stumblers also might have bene quailed, but also they had diuerse and sundrie allements, wherewith an herie, though it wer right continant, might be corrupted.

Id. Preface to S. Luke.

*The faire Serene (so his lady bright),
Alured with nyctherne of the gentle weether,
And pleasance of the place, the which was dight
With diuers flowers distinct with rare delight,
Wandred about the fields, as liking led
Her wauering lust after her wand ring led,
To make a garland to adorne her hed,
Without suspect of ill or dangers hidden dred.*

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book vi. c. iii.

*Study such kindes as would reuele a man,
And turn thy self into a thousand figures,
To add new fancies unto me, I would stand
Thus heavy, thus repudiate, thus dooping
Thee, and thy best alarings.*

Banquet and Fletcher's Women's Prize, act I.

*To satisfy the sharp desire I had
Of tasting those fair apples, I resoly'd
Not to defer; hunger and thirst at once,
Powerful persuaders, quicken'd at the scent
Of this alluring fruit, urg'd me so keen.*

Milnes's Far. East, book ix.

Thus then, whereas by temptation here is meant any occasion alluring or provoking to sin, or withdrawing from duty, with a violence, all things considered, exceeding our strength to resist or avoid. God may be said to bring them into it, when in justice he permits to be exposed thereto.

Barnes, on the Lord's Prayer.

*When fishy stalls with double store are laid;
The golden-belly'd carp, the broad-fish'd moid,
Red speckled trout, the salmon's silver jewell,
The jointed lobster, and unsunderly eel,
And luscious scallops to allure the tastin,
Of rigid ascetics to delicious feasts.*

Gay's Trivia, book ii.

*When will our losses warn us to be wise?
Our wealth decays, and our charges rise,
Money, the sweet allurer of our hopes,
Ebbes out in ocean, and covers us by drops.*

Dryden's Prologue to the Prophetess.

*Though caution'd oft her slippery path to shun,
Hope still with promise'd joys allur'd them on;
And while they listened to her winning lure,
The softer scenes of peace could please no more.*

Falconer's Shipwreck.

Among the Athanasians, the Arecopagites especially forbade all al-
lurements of eloquence.

ALLUSH, or ALUSH, in Scripture Geography, a station of the Israelites in Idumea, between Dophkah and Replhidim. Num. xxxiii. 13, 14. St. Jerome and Eusebius fix it in the neighbourhood of Petra, the capital of Arabia Petrus; Ptolemy and others, among the cities of Idumea, in the third Palestine.

ALLUVIAL LIMESTONE, or ALLUVIAL ROCKS, in Mineralogy, calcareous substances washed away from rocks or chalky cliffs near the sea, or great waters, and deposited on neighbouring lands or coasts. This limestone is used as a manure, and is sometimes called magnesian limestone, from the quantity of magnesia it generally contains.

ALLUVION, *n.* *Ad. luv, luvum.* To wash to. The washing away. Particularly applied to the washing up of sand or earth, so as to form a new soil.

And likewise vnto y^e storme of Perpetuities there came a graphic of the sea (and yett y^e wyldest amys earthquake and overfluyng) that dydde bestie downe one parte of the wall, together with the paleis and many other houses. Of the whyche alluvion and overfluynges, the earthquakes (as I thynke) were the cause. For on that syde, where it nooie troublede and quaketh, yt thurshede and replaid the sea from it, whiche retournyng agayne wylt greute force and violence, caused the alluvion and overfluynges.

Thurside, by Thos. Nicols. Lib. 1256, f. 92, c. 2.

Slow rivers, by insensible alluvion, take in and let out the waters that feed them, yet are they said to have the same beds.

Hewitt's Letters.

If the alluvion or delivion be sudden and considerable, in this case it belongs to the king; for, as the king is lord of the sea, and so owner of the soil while it is covered with water, it is but reasonable he should have the soil, when the water has left it dry.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ALLUVION, in Civil Law, is a right of property in lands left by the sea, or on the banks of rivers, or to islands arising out of them. According to Bracton (l. ii. c. 2.), if an island arise in the middle of a river, it belongs in common to the owners of land situated on each side of the river; but if it arise nearer to one side than the other, it belongs to the proprietor of the nearest lands. In cases of land gradually left by the stream of a river, as alluvion is defined to be, "a latent, imperceptible accretion," it becomes the property of the owner of the lands adjoining; but if a sudden change of the course of a river destroy a man's land, and leave other land in other parts of its course, he that loses his former right by dereliction, shall obtain this newly-created property. Imperceptible additions to land by the shrinking back of the waters of the sea, become, in like manner, the property of the nearest land-owner; but if the alluvion, or dereliction, be considerable, it belongs to the king; as do all islands

ALLURE
— ALLU-
VION.

ALLU-
VION-
—
ALMA-
GEST.

arising out of the sea, according to our law, though the civil law gave them to the occupant.

ALMADIE, the original name of a canoe used by the negroes of Africa, about twenty-four feet long, and made from the bark of trees. It is also the name of a long boat used on the coast of Malabar.

ALLY, *v.* } Ad: *figure*. To bind to. Alliance
ALLY, *s.* } and allegiance are the same word,
ALLI'ANCE, } differently applied, the *g* being
ALLI'ANT. } softened into *y*. To bind or unite
by covenant or affinity; to join, associate, or confederate together.

Ac nophes ys counsell hym gan her to rede,
And unite, þat it was to hym gret prou and honour
To be in such marriage alied to þe emperor.

R. of Gloucester, p. 65.

Oþer radde þat he schude al myd þe kyndome
Lete ys doxter sposal to an heyr prince of flour,
And þenre, for þe alliance þat were hem by twene
Hoo mygt þis bond al in þes holden with oþte tene.

Id. p. 89.

þe kyng sister of France Henry alied him to
Here of a dyscreunce þei counsell him to do.

R. Brant, p. 133.

Glees myrde cite, with alle þe purueinor,
Richard I gaf it fre, to make þis aliance.

Id. p. 156.

O to adorne ys freynship and ally,
With Tirberne popill and folk of Testony?

Douglas, book x. p. 315.

Amonges the which points yspeken was
To haue with certayne contray alliance,
And here of Thebanes full obedience.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. l. p. 117.

SIL. If this man

Had but a mind alied onto his words,
How blisat a fate were it to us and Rome!

Ben Jonson's Sejanus, act I. sc. 2.

The church and commonwealth, humane and diuine laws, have
conspired to avoid hereditary diseases, forbidding such marriages
as are any whit allied.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

In the presence and approbation also of other princes, states, alliances,
deputies with full power and authority, we do promise and vow for
our selves of each party, allies, electors, princes, and states, by all
the real words of truth and fidelity.

Accord of Uin. Reliqua Wottonian.

Heaven forming each on other to depend,
A master, or a servant, or a friend,
Bids each on other for assistance call,
Till one man's weakness grows the strength of all.
Wants, fruities, passions, closer still ally
The common interest, or ender the tie.

Pope's Essay on Man. Epist. iii.

Along the laws, where scatter'd banquets rose,
Unwieldy wealth and cumbersome repose;
And every wing to luxury ally'd,
And every pang that sily pays to pride.

Goldsmith's Deseried Village.

By this extraordinary and unexpected success of his ally (Qu-
tavian), Charles failed of the purpose for which he trusted the
alliance.

Hume's History of England.

ALMAGEST (from the Arabic particle *al*, and *maghest*), its Greek title being *Ἑρμῆς Μεγίστη*, the Greatest Collection; the name of a celebrated work on Geometry and Astronomy, compiled by Ptolemy, and comprising the earliest account we now possess of the observations and problems of the ancients in and upon these sciences. It is divided into thirteen books, and contains an account of the planetary motions, a catalogue of the fixed stars, and the records of numerous eclipses. The Arabians found this work at Alexandria after the capture of the city, and, by order of the Caliph Almammon, it was translated into Arabic about

the year 827. The first Latin version appeared in the year 1230, at the desire of the Emperor Frederic; but the Greek text was not known in Europe until the commencement of the fifteenth century, after the taking of Constantinople, whence it was brought hither by George, a monk of Trebizond, who also translated it into Latin. Ricciolus published, in 1651, a book of Astronomy, entitled, in imitation of Ptolemy, the New Almagest. This treatise contains the ancient and modern discoveries in the sciences; and a Botanical Almagest was published by Plukenet, under the title of Almagestum Botanicum, in the year 1696.

ALMAGRA, in Mineralogy, an ochre called *sil effusus* by the ancients. It is of a fine deep red colour, with a tint of purple; heavy, dense, yet friable, and with a rough dusty-like surface. It is much used by painters. In medicine it is an astringent; that of the best quality is found in Spain, and especially in Andalusia.

ALMAGRO, or ALMAGOR, a town of La Mancha, in Spain, which contains a mineral spring. Population about 3,000.

ALMAGUER, a pleasant, though small city of South America, in the kingdom of Quito, province of Popayan. It stands on the summit of a mountain, and commands a pleasing prospect. It was built in the year 1543, for the sake of the gold mines in the neighbourhood.

ALMANAC, a table, or calendar, in which are set down and marked the several feasts and fasts of the church; those that commemorate political events; the common ecclesiastical notes; the rising and setting of the sun, the course and phases of the moon and of other celestial bodies, for every month and day of the year.

The etymology of the word has been differently given; some have derived it from the Arabic particle *al*, and *manach*, to count; others from *al* and *maghest*, the course of the months. Golius is of another opinion; he says, that throughout the East, it is the custom for subjects, at the beginning of the year, to make presents to their princes; and among the rest, the astrologers present them with their ephemerides for the ensuing year, whence those ephemerides are called *almanaks*; viz. *handels*, or new-year's gifts. Others again, as Versteegan, write the word *almanak*, making it of German origin. Our ancestors, this author observes, were in the practice of carving the courses of the moon for the year upon a square piece of wood, which they called *almanak*, signifying, in old English or Saxon, *all-moon-hand*. Whether any one of these may be considered as a direct derivation of the word *almanac*, it is very difficult to decide; with respect to the notion of Golius, we have had an opportunity of consulting Murza Ja' a' far, a gentleman belonging to the court of the prince of Persia, a native of that country, of great intelligence and veracity: he assures us, that though the custom be as Golius describes, neither the Persians nor the Arabians have any such word as *almanak*. The same gentleman has favoured us with an inspection and explanation of a Persian *almanac*.

The first page contains a list of fortunate days for certain purposes; as, for example, to buy, to sell, to take medicine, to marry, to go a journey, &c. &c.; then follows predictions of events, as earthquakes, storms, political affairs, &c. after the manner of Moore's

ALMA-
GEST.
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ALMA-
NAC.

ALMA-
NAC.

Almanac, except being apparently more concise, occupying only one small page.

Then begins the general calendar, which is arranged much after the manner of our almanacs, except that each month is not made to occupy exactly a page, but runs on from the beginning to the end, without any regard to the place where the month may terminate. In this calendar part, the days of the month and those of the week are arranged, as we have said above, from the top of the page downwards; in the second column is given the time of the rising and setting of the sun; and in the seven following columns, the distance of the sun from the six principal planets, according to the Persian system of astronomy, viz. the Moon, Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn.

In the next page, the days of the month are repeated, with successive columns of the distance of the moon from the other planets, another column shows the time of the moon's being in the zenith and nadir, or rather the time of its coming upon the meridian, both above and below the horizon; and the last, or right-hand column, registers the several feasts and other remarkable events connected with the Mahomedan religion. The two last pages contain a scheme of the configuration of the planets and the prediction of eclipses: with respect to the latter, however, we do not imagine there can be much accuracy, as the Persians still make all their computations with reference to the Ptolemaic system.

In Europe, and more particularly in England, we have almanacs of various descriptions, some in pamphlets, others in sheets; some annual, and others perpetual. The essential parts of our almanacs are the calendar of months, weeks, and days; the motion, changes, and phases of the moon; and to these are commonly added various matters, astronomical, astrological, chronological, meteorological, and even political, rural, and medical; and two almanacs in particular, the *Lady's* and *Gentleman's Diary*, have a portion appropriated to poetry and mathematics. The astronomical part relates to the prediction of eclipses, solar ingresses, equinoxes and configurations of the heavenly bodies; the time of new and full moon; the time of high tide; the equation of time, &c. &c.; and the astrological, which is, however, confined to one or two only of these publications (and ought to be rejected from every one), containing prognostications of the weather, and of political and domestic events, &c. In France, no predictions relating to civil affairs, either of the state or of private persons, are allowed; an edict to this effect having been promulgated by Henry III. so early as the year 1579.

The following is a list of the most popular book almanacs of the present time:—1. The *Lady's Diary*, commenced in 1705; 2. The *Gentleman's Diary*, commenced in 1741; 3. *Moore's Almanac*; 4. *Partridge's Almanac*; 5. *Poor Robin's Almanac*, commenced in 1652; 6. *Season on the Seasons*, commenced in 1735; 7. *White's Ephemeris*, or *Celestial Atlas*; 8. *Goldsmith's Almanac*; 9. *Rider's Pocket Almanac*.

The influence of the *Lady's* and *Gentleman's Diary* on the mathematical sciences of this country is very remarkable; it is generally allowed by foreign authors, that there is in this country a far greater portion of the population acquainted with mathematical science, to a certain extent, than in any other part of Europe;

ALMA-
NAC.

and there is no doubt that this circumstance is to be principally attributed to the two publications above mentioned; the proposing of questions from the most easy to the most difficult, one year, to be answered in the following; and the chance of having the solutions printed and published under the names of their respective authors, is well calculated to excite emulation in the breast of any young man who has imbibed a love for mathematical pursuits; he begins by sending the solution of some of the easiest questions, and proceeds till he is at length qualified to answer most, or all those that are proposed; his attention is drawn to the subject, and, from an amateur, he becomes a proficient. Many of the most distinguished English mathematicians of the last century, and whose works are an honour to their country, began their pursuits with the *Lady's Diary*; of these we may mention, in particular, *Simson*, *Emerson*, *Landen*, and *Waddell*; and many mathematicians of the present day might be added to the above list.

The almanac annexed to the Book of Common Prayer is part of the law of England, of which the courts must take notice in the returns of writs, &c. This may be considered as a sort of perpetual almanac; but it begins now to stand in need of some revision, being founded upon the Gregorian calendar, according to which, the length of the year is accounted 365 days 5h. 49' 12", whereas its actual length is 365 days 5h. 48' 45"; it will, therefore, necessarily become erroneous after a great number of years has elapsed; and the error, as we have said above, begins already to have a sensible effect.

Nautical Almanac.—Beside the almanacs of which we have before spoken, another highly important work of this kind is published annually, but two or three years in advance, under the direction of the commissioners of longitude, bearing the title of the *Nautical Almanac*, in which (beside most things essential to general use, that are to be found in any other almanac) are contained many interesting particulars; more especially the distances of the moon from the sun, and from certain fixed stars for every three hours of apparent time, adapted to the meridian of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich. By comparing these with the distances carefully observed at sea, the navigator may, with comparative ease and certainty, infer his longitude to a degree of accuracy unattainable in any other way, and which may be considered sufficiently near for most nautical purposes. The publication of this work is principally intended to facilitate the use of *Mayer's Lunar Tables*, by superseding the necessity of intricate calculations in determining the longitude at sea. It commenced with the year 1767, and has been continued annually ever since, greatly contributing to the improvement of astronomy and navigation. In this work the sun's longitude, and every thing relating to it, have been, till lately, always computed by means of *Mayer's Tables*, printed in 1770, under the inspection of Dr. Maskelyne, the late astronomer royal, in whose exertions and strong solicitations the *Nautical Almanac* owes its origin; and both the sun's place and that of the moon are inserted in the same work since the year 1791; these having been principally computed from *Mayer's Tables*, and those of *Mason* published in 1780; but now the valuable *Tables of Delambre*, as improved by Professor Vince, are also employed.

AL-JA- In the Almanac for 1803, the latitudes, as well as
NAC. the longitudes, of the stars, are corrected, and the
— moon's distance from them, computed by means of
ALMAN- Taylor's large and valuable Tables of Logarithmic Sines,
ZA. Tangents, &c., to every second of the quadrant. Since
1780, the calculations of the places of the planets
have been made from Lalande's Tables, contained in the
second edition of his Astronomy, and those of the
eclipses of Jupiter's satellites, from the same time to
1796, from Wargentine's Tables, annexed to those of
Lalande's (with the exception of the second satellite,) which
were computed by new Tables of Wargentine,
inserted in the Nautical Almanac for 1779; but from
1793 to the present time, the eclipses have been com-
puted to mean time, from Delambre's New Tables, an-
nexed to the third edition of Lalande's Astronomy.
At intervals, since the commencement of this impor-
tant publication, many valuable papers have been
added, which have directly or indirectly a reference to
the general object of the work; of these we may
mention, in particular, the rule laid down by Brinkley,
for clearing the lunar distance, which was published in
that for 1819.

For many years this important work maintained a
character for remarkable accuracy and perfection, viz.
from the period of its first publication to the death of
its celebrated institutor and conductor, our late worthy
astronomer royal; but since that event, numerous
inaccuracies have been discovered in its pages, which,
if continued, would have rendered the work not
merely useless, but highly injurious to the interests it
was proposed to promote. The subject, however,
because in the last sessions of parliament, a matter of
discussion; the board of longitude has been re-
modelled, and the direction of this valuable publication
is now to be put under the immediate inspection of a
secretary to be appointed by that board, to whom an
ample salary will be given; and it is much to be
desired that no political or other interest will be em-
ployed in placing any person in that situation, who is
not fully competent to the important charge that is to
be confided to him; but this observation is not made
without some cause for apprehension.

The *Connaissance des Temps*, is the French national
almanac, published with the same views as our
Nautical Almanac, and nearly upon the same plan;
but it commenced much earlier, its first publication
being in the year 1698; since this date its form and
manner have at times received slight alterations;
and it has been, in one or two instances, discontinued
for short intervals; it has, however, now for many
years, been published with great regularity, and in a
manner highly creditable to the scientific character of
the Bureau de Longitude. Beside the calendar part
of this publication, we find in it many valuable and
highly interesting communications on various mathe-
matical subjects, which may be had either jointly with,
or separate from, the calendar itself. A very particular
and minute history of this work is given in the volume
for 1808.

ALMANDIN. See ALARANDIN.

ALMANZA, a town of New Castile, Spain, in the
district of Villena; 15 miles from that town, and 54
from Valencia. It is now only remarkable for the victory
which the French, under the duke of Berwick,
VOL. XVII.

gained over the allies here on the 25th of April, 1707.
Its present population amounts to about 6000 persons.

ALMARIA, or ALMARIA, in Ancient English Re-
cords, denote the monuments or archives of a church
or library.

ALME, a small river of Westphalia, in Germany,
which runs into the Lippe. There are also two small
towns of this name, in Westphalia, called Upper and
Lower Alme.

ALMA, in Egyptian and Eastern Customs, girls
brought up to the profession of dancing and singing
for the public amusement, in feasts and other assem-
blies. They are expected to be well-versed in the
poetry of their country, though many of their songs
are impromptu, and they thus resemble the Improvi-
satori of Italy. In Hindostan the custom of training
various classes of these females is of very remote
antiquity. They are of considerable importance in the
amusements of the Turkish harem, and teach the
women all the new songs and dances. In the latter
the indecorum and indecency of their gestures have
been an universal subject of disgust and censure with
travellers; though in this meretricious profession there
are many gradations of rank, from the more select, and
comparatively decorous attendants on the entertain-
ments of the great, to those who parade the streets
and public places of resort in Grand Cairo. Some-
times they attend and fill up the ceremonies of a
funeral, and are frequently employed in the religious
rites of the east. Their dancing and singing is accom-
panied by the castanet or the cymbal, which instru-
ments they play on themselves; and in this, as well
as other traits of their profession, they may not unap-
propriately be compared to the Bacchantes of the ancients.

ALMEIDA, a strong fortress of Portugal, in the
province of Beira, on the Spanish frontier, containing
about 2,500 inhabitants. It has been subject to
several obstinate sieges. The French took possession
of it, through the treachery of a Portuguese officer, in
the year 1810; but Lord Wellington retook it, for its
rightful owners, the year following. It is 113 miles
from Lisbon.

ALMELOO, a town or lordship of Holland, in the
province of Overijssel, belonging to the count of
Richteren. The town of Almelo manufactures excel-
lent linen, and contains about 2,500 inhabitants.

ALMENE, in Commerce, an Indian weight of about
two pounds, principally used in the weighing of saffron.

ALMERIA, a sea-port town of Spain, in the pro-
vince of Granada, 64 miles from that town. It
is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan of Granada;
and has a strong castle, and very commodious harbour.
There is a small town of this name in Mexico, 50
miles from Vera Cruz.

ALMERICIANS, in Ecclesiastical History, a short-
lived sect of the thirteenth century, who are stated to
have insisted that the power of each of the persons of
the Holy Trinity commenced at certain periods of time.
Thus the power of the Father was said to be confined
to the Mosaic dispensation, that of the Son reached to
the beginning of the thirteenth century, and the reign of
the Holy Ghost then commencing, all the ceremonies
of external worship were to be discontinued. Their
morals are said to have been very defective. MOSHEIM,
vol. iii.

ALMAN-
ZA
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ALMERI-
CIANS.

ALM-

BURY.

AL-

MIGHTY.

ALMESBURY, or AMESBURY, a flourishing town of North America, in Essex County, Massachusetts, on the western bank of the Merrimack river, about five miles N. W. of Newburyport, containing about 12,000 inhabitants. It is divided from the Salisbury township by Powows River, over which a very handsome bridge has been erected. There are several mills, and some manufactures of nails in the neighbourhood.

ALMIGGIM. See ALMUOIM.

ALMIGHTY, *adj.* } All-mighty.

ALMIGHTINESS. } Having all might, or power. Omnipotent. See MIGHT.

He li bet God almygty, þe he sende hym þu ower hund,

To reue vp ægen þe churches a bouste into al þat lond.

R. Gloucest. p. 130.

O thou almighty Jupiter,

That his sweetest, and loveliest ferre,

Thou sufferst many wretched doynge,

And yet it is not thy wyllynge.

Gower. Cen. A. book v.

Almighty Joze, good be [Hyras kyng], qulham to feil yis

On braut beddis his feint and sacrifice

Of Maxusia the popill hantia thus,

Offering to the the honour of Baachus,

Consideria thou this? Or quillider, fader, gif we

For sought the dreds qaten thou latti thowder be?

Dought. book iv. p. 107.

Almighty God, whom the Moors nation-

Fed at rich tables prewarth with wine

Sent thou these things? or feare we thee in vain

When thou latest say thy thowder from the cloudes?

Or do those flames with vaine toyce sa allye?

Surrey. B.

Almighty Jove I to whom our Moorish line

In large illutions part the generous wine,

And feast on painted beds; say, father, say,

If yet thy eyes these flagrant crimes survey,

Or do we vainly tremble and adore,

When through the skies the pealing thunders roar?

Pitt. B.

Greete and woundifull ben ihu werkis, Lord God Almygty, this
wores ben isart and trenn lord kyng of worldis.

Wiclyf. Apocalyp. chap. xv.

Gret and maruolous are thy workes: Lords God Almygtye, lost
and true are thy wayes, thou kyng of minces.

Bible. 1539. B.

Sleep'st thou, companion dear? What sleep can close

Thy eye-lids? and remember'st what decree

Of yesterday, so late hath pass'd the lips

Of Heaven's Almighty.

Milnes's Par. Lost, book v.

Whence comest thou, Satan? and he said, from compassing of the
earth. For though an enemy of God, and hater of all truth, his wisdom
will hardly permit him to falsify with the All-mighty.

Brown's Fulgor Errors.

In the glorious lights of heaven, we perceive a shadow of his divine
countenance; in his merciful provision for all that live, his manifold
goodness; and lastly, in creating and making existent the world
universal, by the obsolete art of his own word, his power and Al-
mightiness.

Raleigh's Hist. of the World.

The Almighty discovers more of his wisdom in forming such a vast
multitude of different sorts of creatures, and all with admirable
and improvable art, than if he had created but a few.

Ray, on the Creation.

See! see! he upwards springs, and towering high,

Spurns the dull province of mortality;

Shakes heaven's eternal throne with dire alarms,

And sets his' lightning thunder in arms.

Addison's Account of the greatest English Poets.

How boundless a power, or rather what an almightiness is em-
ployed in God's making out of nothing all things!

Boyle. On Exor. Phil.

In highest heav'n's
Vengeance in storms and tempests sits exulting,
Vested in robes of lightning, and there sleeps,
Unaw'd but by the lucres of Almighty's call.

Mason's Efigies.

AL-

MIGHTY.

ALMO-

HEDES.

ALMIRANTE BAY, in South America, on the coast of Veragua. It was discovered by Columbus in his fourth voyage, on which occasion he narrowly escaped shipwreck on the numerous hidden rocks which are found near its entrance. It is also the name of a river in the province of Florida, which runs into the bay of Pensacola.

ALMISSA (anciently Peguntium), a small sea-port of Dalmatia, at the mouth of the river Cetina, once celebrated for its piracy. It stands in a strong natural situation, on a rock between two mountains, and is now an episcopal see. It contains 1,000 inhabitants, and is 16 miles E. of Spalatro. E. lon. 16°, 40', N. lat. 43°, 52'.

ALMO, or ALMOR, in Ancient Geography, a river of Italy, falling into the Tiber near Rome. It was consecrated to the worship of Cybele; in its stream the statue of the goddess was annually washed on the 25th of March. It is at present called the Rio d'Appio, "The River of Appia," from its crossing the Appian way. STAT. SYR. ; MART. EPG.

ALMODOVAR, a small town in the province of Alentejo, in Portugal, containing about 1,900 inhabitants.

ALMODOVAR DEL CAMPO, a town of Spain, in the neighbourhood of the Sierra Morena, and province of La Mancha. Its situation is romantic, and it has an old castle; population about 3,000. It is 18 miles S. of Ciudad Real.

ALMODOVAR DEL PINAR, a town of Spain, in the province of Cuenca.

ALMODOVAR DEL RIO, a town of Andalusia, on the Guadalquivir, in the district of Cordova.

ALMOEHEDDES, or ALMOEDDES, an Arabian sect and dynasty, which displaced the Almoravides in Morocco, in the beginning of the twelfth century. The founder, Abdallah, like that of the Almoravides, first commenced his career as a teacher of religion, and assumed the title of Mohdi, or Mohedi, the leader of the orthodox. The number of his followers inspired him with the daring hope of seizing the sovereignty, and having defeated Al Ibrahim, the last of the Almoravides, in a pitched battle, in 1140, he quickly secured the capital. Abdolmumen another chief of the sect, pursued the ill-fated Ibrahim to Fez and to Oran, who leaped down a precipice in despair, in the neighbourhood of the last-mentioned place, leaving unobstructed the path of Abdallah to the throne. His reign, however, was short, and was principally occupied with making some remarkable regulations or the maintenance of his party in their new power. He appointed a council of forty teachers of the sect, who were to regulate all the public concerns of the state, and maintain their doctrines by itinerant preaching; to these were added sixteen assistants, as secretaries. Out of the former class, the supreme heads of the sect were to be elected, and to unite the regal and pontifical power. Abdolmumen, his former general, or conductor, however, seems to have anticipated this mode of succession rather prematurely. Returning towards Morocco, after the death of Ibrahim, he over-

ALMOR-
VIDES.
—
ALMOND
TREE.

ran the kingdom of Tremecen, and arrived at the seat of Abballali's empire just after his death. He was now declared the head of the party and of the state, by the title of chief, or emperor of the true believers; and commenced his reign by strangling, with his own hands, Isaac, the son of Al Ibrahim, the only surviving male branch of the Almoravides. During these revolutions, the states of Barbary were first diverted into those of Tripoli, Kairwan, Tunis, Algiers, Tremecen, and Bujeia, each of which established itself into a petty sovereignty. Abdolmunen, however, finally united Tunis, Tremecen, the ancient Numidia, and the greater part of Mauritania, and Tingitana, to his dominions; he drove the Christians from Mobeida, their chief city in Africa, and made several conquests on the opposite shores of Spain and Portugal. He was succeeded by Yusuf, Yakub, Mohammed, surnamed Al Nakir, and Zayed Arraz, the first of whom united the whole northern coast of Africa under his sway, from Tripoli to Morocco, a territory of 1,200 leagues in length. But in 1220, this dynasty met its downfall, in an immense battle fought on the plains of Tholasa, in Spain, where Al Nakir is said to have brought into the field 300,000 foot and 120,000 cavalry, but, according to some writers, the battle was fought in 1212. Returning to Morocco, this chief died of ebriety at his defeat; his grandson, who succeeded him, was assassinated by Camararon Ebn Zeyden, of the Zenneten tribe, and thus terminated one of the most formidable and successful of the Arabian sovereignties which preceded the present race of lawless depredators on the African shores.

ALMON, or ALMYN, in Scripture Geography, a city of Benjamin, Jos. xxi. 18; probably, says Calmet, the Almoneth given to Aaron's family, 1. Chron. vi. 60.

ALMONBURY, an extensive town and parish, consisting of several townships, in the neighbourhood of Huddersfield, Yorkshire. It stands on the slope of a hill, terminating about a mile above, in a lofty precipice on three sides, and overlooking a great extent of country around. The advantage of this site, for the purposes of defence, has not been overlooked. The crown of the hill was once strongly fortified by a double wall and trenches. The area within was subdivided into an outer and inner enclosure from the gate. The remains of mortar and stones, almost vitrified, prove, beyond all controversy, that the place has been destroyed by fire. Camden, but on no sufficient grounds, conjectures that this was the Cambodunum of Antonine's Itinerary. It is, however, unquestionably of Saxon origin. The castle, which, in the reign of the Confessor, was in ruins, was rebuilt by the Lacis; and it is probable that the present church owes its origin to that circumstance. There was a dungeon here in the time of Edw. II. It is distant from Huddersfield about a mile, and 186 miles from London; containing a population of 4,613 inhabitants.

ALMOND, the name of two rivers of Scotland, one of which rises in Lanarkshire, and enters the Frith of Forth at Cramond, five miles from Edinburgh; and the other in the Grampian hills, which runs into the Frith of Tay.

ALMOND, in Commerce, a Portuguese measure used for oil; it is equal to about four gallons and a half, and twenty-six of these almonds make a pipe of oil.

ALMOND-TREE, in Bouary. See AMYGDALUS. The wood, blossoms, and fruit of this tree have each

been made emblematical of scripture truth. Pliny, *ALMOND TRELL.* *Nat. Hist.* lib. xvi. cap. 25. says, Floret pruna omnium amygdala, mense Januarii, Martio vero pumum maturat; and Dr. Shaw, in his Travels, speaks of it as the most early bearing fruit in Barbary. Its Hebrew root עמר, signifies to watch or waken; and when the prophet Jeremiah was first commissioned to deliver the will of God to the Jews, he was shewn "a rod of an almond tree," for עץ אלהים, "I am hastening," it was said, or am watching, or waking over "my word to perform it." The rods of the chief of the tribes seem each to have been made of this wood, as emblematical of the vigilance required in their duties, Numb. xvii. 6—8, and Aaron's rod distinguished him as God's peculiar servant, by miraculously bringing forth its fruit. Solomon, alluding perhaps both to its early appearance and white blossom, describes the approach of old age by the phrase, "the almond-tree shall flourish." "The almond-tree flourished around Smyrna," says Hasselquist, in his Travels, "February 12, on bare boughs." The bowls of the golden candlestick were made of the graceful shape of this fruit, and here the light was never to be suffered to decline.

ALMONDSBURY, a village in Gloucestershire, about ten miles from Bristol, where Almond, the father of Egbert, the first sole monarch of England, is said to have been interred. It has a ruined Saxon fortification, which commands a fine view of the Severn.

ALMONER, or ALMYER, *elemosynarius*, in English Customs, an officer of great distinction, belonging to the king's household, whose duty it is to distribute his majesty's alms daily; to admonish the king to bestow alms on saints' days, &c. and who is anciently disposed of the king's meat, immediately after it came from table, to twenty-four poor persons of the parish in which the palace stood, whom he selected at the court-gate. Deadlands, and the goods of a *fech de er*, fell to the lord almoner, for the purpose of relieving such as he judged proper objects of charity. In France, the grand almoner was formerly the highest church dignity of the kingdom. He bestowed the sacrament on the king, and said mass before his majesty on state occasions. All hospitals and houses of charity were under his superintendence. See ALMS.

ALMORA, a town and district of Kemaon, in the north-east of Hindostan, separated from the British territories by a lofty range of hills. It is subject to the rajah of Nepaul, and situate in E. lon. 79°; 40'. N. lat. 29°; 35'.

ALMORAVIDES, in Arabian History, a tribe of political religionists, founded on the coast of Africa, in 1031, by Abubeker Ben Omar, according to the Spanish historians called Abu Traxien, an Arab of the Zinhagiana tribe. This sect first affected to retire from the corruptions of the world, to devote themselves to the more rigid observation of the rules and discipline of the Koran. Their leader took the title of Amir al Minnim, or chief of the faithful, and the people assumed the name of Morabitines, afterwards, with the addition of the article *al*, corrupted to Almoravides. Driving the feeble inhabitants of Numidia and Libya before them, they seized, under Yusuf, or Joseph, their second leader, the whole district of the Morocco states, and founded the city of Morocco as their capital. They shortly after depopulated the settlements of the Zenneti in Tremecen, and seized upon Fes and Tunis.

ALMORAVIDES. — **ALMS.**
Under Yusuf this tribe passed over into Spain, and over-ran the kingdoms of Cordova, Granada, Murcia, and Juen. They afterwards ravaged Andalusia, and part of Portugal, and penetrated as far as Lisbon, which they subdued to their arms; but having lost Gibraltar and Algarve in the interim, and being defeated by sea on their return, they were for awhile made tributary to Spain. Attempting to shake off this yoke, they defeated the Spaniards in a celebrated battle, called the battle of the Seven Counts, near Toledo, but were so exhausted by the victory, as never more to assume their former attitude of conquerors. Yusuf was succeeded by Ali, who was defeated by Alphonso, king of Arragon, with the loss of 30,000 men, in the sixth year of his reign, and in his son, Al Abraham, this tribe was finally expelled from the Morocco throne by Ali Mubedi, who founded the tribe of the ALMONEDES, which see.

ALMOST. *adv.* *All and most* (i. e.) *most part of all, or of the whole; quod enim fere perfectum est, a toto (i. e.), a complemento suo parum abest.* Skinner.

Douglas, book v. p. 138.

And in the subtle sayings almost all the clime can together to heere, the word of God. *Wierif. Devils, chap. viii.*
And y^e state Sabbath days came almost y^e whole citle together, to heare the worde of God. *Bible, 1539. It.*

O King Agrippa, beleest thou the Prophetes? I knowe that thou beleest.

Then Agrippa said unto Paul, Almost thou persuadest me to become a Christian.

Then Paul saide, I woulde to God that not onely thou, but also all that heare me to day, were like unto me and altogether such as I am, except these bondes. *Actes xvi.* *Geneva Bible.*

This course of vanity almost complete,
Tie'd in the field of life, I hope restrain
In the still shades of death: for dread and pain,
And griefs, will find their shafts clos'd in vain,
Prior's Solomon, book iii.

The shepherd-swain of whom I mention made,
On Scott's mountain fed his fide flock;
The sickle, scythe, or plough, he never away'd;
An honest heart was almost all his stock.
Beattie's Minstrel, book i.

ALMS, n. } Formed by successive corrup-
ALMONE, } tions of the Greek *Ελεησιμον*,
ALMONEY, or } from *Ελεος*, mercy: thus, almsouse,
ALMERY, } almsome, almose, almes; and lastly,
ALMORY. } alms. Tooke, ii. 452. Charitable donation.

Beaufit he was to needy men, of his almsous largesse & free.
R. Gloucester, p. 360.
For his death he made drest him, and was in soules for let do
Almes dede mani on, & must manne al so. *Id. p. 546.*

For trees of be crones, & much & channon
Had drawn in voice his fees to her almsous,
Jergb which drawt his seruise in leas & laid down.
R. Brunne, p. 239.

And yet he growth almsous,
And lasteth oft and hereth mens.
Gower. Con. A. book i.

And to a man stood before me in a whyt clooth and seide, Cur-
ueth this prier is herd, and thin almesdeles ben in mynde in the
sight of God. *Wierif. The Desin of Apollie, c. x.*

And beheld, a man stood before me in bryght clothyng, and
sayd: Conclutis, thy prayer is heard, ad thyne almesdeles are had
in remembrance in the syght of God. *Bible, 1539, It.*

[This was] A man that had ben long in office under dyvers
of the kynge's almesmen, to whom the goodes of such men as kylt
the sacred be appropriated by the laue, and bys offer, as deuotidnes
to be great to educt. *Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 235, c. 2.*

ALMS.
As if I saw my brother, and he have neede of me, & he in po-
uerty, how will make me put myne hand into my purse or almsy,
and to geue him some whet to refresh him.

The Works of W. Tyndall, dec. fol. 253, col. 1.

CLER. You since agnost
Obdience, which you owe your father, for
The contract you pretend with that base wretch,
One, lord of almes, and foster'd with cold dushes,
With scraps of th' court. *Shakespeare's Cymb. act ii.*

Richard Rich was a scrivener, and founded alms-house at Hoddeston
in Hartfordshire, which he don't here by him conspicuously ex-
posed; though now the alms-houses are no purer as the almsfeld,
the one needing repairing, as much as the other relieving.
Fuller's Worthies. London.

The second was an almsman of the place:
His office was the hungry for to feed,
And charity give to drink; a work of grace:
He heard not once himselfe to be in need.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. can. x.
He feeds you alms-house, neat, but void of state,
Where age and want sit smiling at the gate.

Pope's Man of Rom.
They live, and live without extorted alms,
From grudging lands; but other boast have none,
To sooth their honest pride, that scorn to beg;
Nor comfort eke, but in their mortal love.

Cooper's Task, book ii.
Many people, who lead useless lives, are very liberal in giving
alms, are constant at church, and often at the sacrament.

Gilpin's Sermon.
Arthur Yeldard, born at Houghton-Strother, near the river Tyne,
in the county of Tindal, in Northumberland. He was educated in
grammar and singing, as a boy of the almsouse, or chorister, in the
Benedictine convent, now the dean and chapter of Durham.

T. Warren's Life of Sir T. Pope. App. No. 237.

ALMS, in an ecclesiastical sense, were, in ancient times, the principal, and, in some instances, the only subsistence of the clergy. Those of the primitive Christians were divided into four parts; one of which was reserved for the poor and for the repairing of churches, the other three were distributed amongst the bishops, priests, and deacons.

In process of time, that which was originally a fruit of benevolence became enforced by ecclesiastical laws, and all the powerful stimulants which an artificial priesthood could deduce from eternal hopes and fears. The convenient doctrine of the apocryphal book of Tobit, that "It is better to give alms than to lay up gold; for alms doth deliver from death, and shall purge away all sins," was universally inculcated, until the riches of the world were poured into the lap of the church. Hence arose the sounding titles of great and grand almsman, lord almsman, lord high almsman, &c. offices which, in France, sometimes conferred the highest ecclesiastical dignity. See **ALMSMAN.**

"Oh, excellent alms-giving!" says Edgar, "Oh, worthy reward of the soul! Oh, salutary remedy of our sins!" It was usual, observes Mr. Fosbrooke, in his Monasticism, "to recommend this as a means of liberation from guilt. The sick were taught to expect cures by the same mode. It was a general opinion, that persons who had no issue should give alms and found charitable institutions. They (the rich), as well as their inferiors, used to put a written schedule of their sins under the cloth which covered the altar of a favourite saint, accompanied by a donation, and a day or two after re-examined the schedule, which the virtues of the saint converted to a blank." It is not, however, to be forgotten, that many of the monastic establishments which became surreptitiously enriched

ALMS.—
ALMUG-
GIM.

were afterwards the sources of the most effectual charity to the poor; and are found to this day, in various parts of Catholic Europe, distinguished for the useful exercise of this Christian virtue. In the Romish church the term is still used, as including all gifts to the church and the poor.

The Mahometan theology represents ALMS as needful to make the prayers of the faithful to be heard above; and a saying of one of their caliphs has been often quoted amongst them with approbation, "Prayer carries us half-way to God, fasting to the door of his palace, but alms introduce us to his presence chamber." The general disposition of liberality to the distressed is certainly amongst the best features of the Mahometan church, which has produced many shining examples of this species of charity.

ALMS BY THE KING, or ALMS OF ST. PETER, were names sometimes given to the *Peter-pence*.

ALMS OF PLOUGHED LAND, *elemosyna pro aratis*, or *elemosyna carucarum*, was a tax upon each piece of ploughed land, anciently levied for the benefit of the poor.

ALMS PASCHAL, *elemosynæ paschales*, were those distributed, with certain ceremonies, at Easter. Alms Reasonable, *elemosyna rationalis*, certain portions of the effects of intestate persons set aside for the use of the church and the poor.

Mahometans divide their alms into *voluntary* and *legal*; the former, denominated *sadaqat* by the Arabs, are left to the discretion of the donor, though the kind of things which are to be given is prescribed; the latter, called *zakat*, were originally imposed by the prophet himself (averaging about the amount of a tythe), and were first devoted to the support of his government and wars. Latterly, they have been left by his successors to the consciences of the faithful, and other and more regular imposts substituted for the public service.

ALMS-BOX, or CHEST (called by the Greeks *Kyriakon*), a box in which the alms of the church were collected, both in public and private assemblies. By 27 Henry VIII. and the injunction of the canons, a small chest, or coffer, is to be placed in a convenient situation in every parish church of England and Wales, and the produce of it distributed to the poor. It is generally secured, by three keys, which are kept by the minister and churchwardens.

ALMS-HOUSE, a name commonly given to houses, or inferior hospitals, left for the benefit of the poor.

ALMUCANTARS, in Astronomy, an Arabic term designating the circles which are supposed to be drawn parallel to the horizon and to pass through every degree of the meridian.

ALMUCANTAR STAFF, in Astronomy, an instrument that has been used in the science, to take observations of the sun at its rising or setting, for the purpose of finding the amplitude and variation of the compass.

ALMUCIA, or ALMUCIUM, in Old Customs, a cap worn chiefly by the clergy, made of goats' or lamb skins; the part covering the head was square, and behind it covered the neck and shoulders. It is probable this square form of the cap was the origin of the one now worn in our universities.

ALMUGGIM, or ALMIGIM, a valuable kind of wood, mentioned in Scripture as imported by Solomon from Ophir, and of which he made pillars or rail-work

for the temple, &c. and musical instruments. Hence, perhaps, the Septuagint renders it *aromatic wood*. The Vulgate calls it *ligam thymum*. The rabbins think it was coral, ebony, or pine; others the citron; (known to the ancients as the *thyium*, and much esteemed). Calmet, detaching the *al* as an article, considers it to have been the tree which produces *gum Arabic*, and thence the same with the shittim of the Pentateuch. Dr. Shaw observes, that the wood of the *cypress* is still used in Italy and other warm climates for violins and stringed instruments generally, and conjectures that this was the *almug-tree* of Scripture. From the testimony of Josephus, it seems to have been white and shining, as well as remarkably light.

ALMUNECAR, a small sea-port town of Spain, on the Mediterranean, in the province of Granada. It has a commodious harbour and an ancient castle, and contains about 2,000 inhabitants; 35 miles S. W. of Granada. W. lon. 3°, 54'. N. lat. 36°, 42'.

ALMUNIA, a town of Arragon, in Spain, 23 miles from Saragosa. Inhabitants about 3,000.

ALNAGER, or AULNAGER (from *aular*, French, an ell), in Old Customs, a public officer of the king, sworn to measure cloths by the ell, to fix their assize throughout the kingdom, and put his seals on them in token of his approval. The aulnage-duty was a tax on cloth collected by him; his fees were properly regulated, and he incurred the punishment of the forfeiture of his office and of the value of the goods, by affixing seals falsely. He had his power by stat. 25 Edw. III. and several succeeding ones.

ALNE, a river of Northumberland, which rises in the hills W. of "Alnham Towne." It has given names to Alnham, Halne, Alnwick, and Alnemouth, all which are seated on its banks. At the last of these towns, the Alne enters the German ocean.

ALNEMOUTH, or ALNMOUTH, a small sea-port, in the parish of Lesbury, Northumberland, 315 miles distant from London. It has suffered by the encroachments of the sea, and appears to have been the scene of several of those skirmishes with which the history of the Scottish borders so greatly abounds. The harbour is both small and inconvenient, although safe for small vessels and fishing-craft. During the reign of Queen Elizabeth this town was taken by the French, who fortified it.

ALNEWICK, or ALNWICK, a market town and borough of Northumberland, on the banks of the river Alne, 308 miles from London, and 34 from Newcastle upon Tyne. It contains a population of 5,426 inhabitants, and about 800 houses, and is the county town of Northumberland. The market is held on Saturdays. It has four annual fairs, for shoes, hats, and pedlary; and for horses and horned cattle. There is an ancient and immemorial custom in proclaiming these fairs: on the eve of the day on which they are held, the bailiff is joined by the representatives of several neighbouring townships, who, after the proclamation, disperse themselves over the different parts of the town and keep watch all night; one of the most perfect remains of the old custom of watch and ward in England. There is a respectable town-house, where the quarter-sessions and county-courts are held, and the members of parliament for the county are elected. The Percy family derives the title of baron from this borough. Alnwick is a very ancient town, standing advantageously

ALMUG-
GIM.—
ALNE-
WICK.

ALNE-
WICK.

for its defence on the side of a hill. It was at one time fortified, as appears from the vestiges of a wall and three gates, which still remain. It is governed by four chamberlains, who are chosen, once in two years, out of twenty-four common-councilmen, and a bailiff nominated by the duke of Northumberland, his authority being derived from the obsolete office of constable of Alnwick castle. Persons are admitted to the freedom of this borough on St. Mark's day, by a whimsical ceremony, enjoined in the charter, in consequence, as it is said, of an accident that befell King John, when travelling in this neighbourhood. Being compelled to leave the high-road, because of its neglected state, his horse sunk into a bog adjoining; and as a mode of punishing the inhabitants of the town for not keeping the roads in better order, he appended to their charter this condition: that the freemen, on their admission, should pass through a well, or pool, near the spot, now called Freeman's well. This is said to be nearly twenty feet across, to be from four to five feet deep in many places, and formerly had much pains taken with it to make the bottom uneven and mud abundant, for the occasion; an officer, living near, having a perquisite of five shillings on the admission of each freeman into the pond. After this ceremony (to whatever degree it is now practised) is over, the new-made freemen ride round the bounds of the moor, attended by the two oldest inhabitants as guides, and each of them, alighting from his horse every quarter of a mile, casts a stone upon the boundary cairns, or kirkcups. This road, which is about twelve miles, is over many dangerous precipices.

The noble castle of Alnwick stands on the northern brow of the eminence on which the town is situated, and is the principal seat of his grace the duke of Northumberland. It is a very ancient and strong building, "believed," says Grose, "to have been founded by the Romans; for when a part of the castle-keep was taken down to be repaired, some years ago, under the present walls were discovered the foundations of other buildings, which lay in a different direction from the present, and some of the stones appeared to have Roman mouldings. The zig-zag fretwork round the arch leading to the inner court, is evidently of Saxon architecture, and yet this was probably not the most ancient entrance, for under the flag-tower (before that part was taken down and rebuilt by the present duke) was the appearance of a gateway that had been walled up, directly fronting the present gateway into the town." This was a fortress of great strength in the eleventh century, and resisted a powerful siege in the year 1093, when Malcolm III. king of Scots, coming into England to concert an alliance with William Rufus, was offended at his cold reception, and raised an army on his return, with which he ravaged all the country as far as Alnwick. The garrison of Alnwick castle was about to surrender, when a soldier promised to deliver Malcolm the keys on the point of his spear; but, on his advancing to receive them, the soldier ran his spear into his body and killed him. In the year 1774, her grace the duchess of Northumberland (lineally descended from Malcolm) erected a cross on the spot where he fell: it is now called Malcolm cross. The son of Malcolm, Prince Edward, also fell before this fortress. Alnwick castle likewise held out against William III. king of Scotland, in 1174, whose forces were obliged to raise the siege, after the king

had been taken prisoner here. In the year 1216, King John burnt the castle down; but it was afterwards repaired. Henry II. confirmed the castle and barony to Eustace Fitz John, whose posterity took the name of Vesey; and, after many successions, William de Vesey becoming heir, and dying, in 1297, without legitimate issue, empowered Anthony Beck, bishop of Durham, to preserve this barony and divers lands for his natural son, who was then in Ireland, and under age; but the bishop, on some pretence, sold the castle and honours of Alnwick to Henry Percy, from whom the dukes of Northumberland are descended. The last duke but one greatly enlarged and improved the castle. It now consists of three wards; and contains within its outer walls an area of five acres, flanked with fifteen embattled towers, ornamented with various figures of warriors, connected with the history of its long line of princely possessors. The avenue forming the approach to the mansion is exceedingly magnificent; three noble gateways lead through the two outer courts into the one immediately under the walls of the citadel. A grand staircase conducts the stranger to the range of apartments inhabited by the family, in which the grandeur and general keeping of this ancient structure has been most admirably preserved and intermingled with the conveniences and elegancies of modern times. The saloon, the drawing-room, and dining-room, are of noble size, and contain several good portraits of the family. The chapel is erected like that of King's college, Cambridge, and the walls gilt and embellished in imitation of the great church of Milan. This town is also remarkable for the remains of the first abbey of Premonstratensian canons, founded in England when settled here in the year 1147. The abbey was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and, in 1375, Lord Percy granted it the hospital of St. Leonard, in the town of Alnwick. At the time of the dissolution of monasteries, it was valued, according to Dugdale, at 189*l.* 15*s.* and, according to Speed, at upwards of 197*l.* The Brandling family occupied it as their country seat; and after them the Doubledays, by whose heirs it was ultimately sold to the duke of Northumberland. Very little of the original building now remains, but the chronicle of this abbey is still shown, in the library of King's college, Cambridge.

ALNEY, a small island in the river Severn, near Gloucester, remarkable only for being the site on which a compromise of their interests in the crown of England took place between Edmund Ironside and Canute the Dane. Some say this was effected by single combat.

ALNUS, in Botany, the alder. See BETULA, CORSCARPUS, and BOTANY, Div. ii.

ALOA, in Grecian Antiquity, a feast held at Athens in honour of Bacchus and Ceres. The oblations were fruits of the earth. From this festival Ceres is sometimes surnamed Aloas, or Alois. MEUNSIUS, *Grec. Ekos.*

ALOE, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

ALOE, in Medicine, the inspissated juice of the various sorts of aloes. It acts as a purgative, both when applied externally and taken inwardly.

ALOEUS, in Mythology, one of the giants, the son of Titan and Terra; by others said to have been the offspring of Neptune and Canace, or Canope. His wife Iphimedia, had two sons by Neptune, whom Aloeus

ALNE-
WICK.
ALOEUS.

ALONG. poses, Andlang, Andlong, Ondlong, for the first; and Gelong for the second; and our most ancient English writers observed the same distinction, using *enlong* for the one, and *along* for the other. Tooke, v. i. p. 424.

ALOOF. And these words said, she straight her on length and rested a while.

Here I tell ye give all myn bettings,
& as along as I live to be in myn estate.

R. Browne, p. 196.

And every thing in his degree
Endelange upon a horse he laide.

Gower. Con. A. book v.

Loke what day that ending Brytayne,
Ye remove all the rocks, stone by stone;
That they to let shyppe be bote to gone,
Thus wal I love you best of any man.

Chaucer. *Franklyn's Tale*, fol. 53, vol. i. p. 458.

But then the women all, for drede and affray,
Fled here and there, ending the coast away.

Douglas, book v. p. 151.

This worthy Jason nere alonght
To see the strange regions
And knowe the condicions
Of other marches.

Gower. Con. A. book v.

For ever when I thinke amonge
Howe all is on my selfe alonge
I wile, O foote of all foetes,
Thou farest as he betwene two stales
That walde sitte, and goth to gronde.

Id. book iv.

For Phlegyng that they made towards the towne & knowing
that it was vnpopuled of people, was constrynged to cause his people
to be suddenly embarked, and to myle along by the lande, trustinge
in the foote men of the Messeniens, which were already for to accom-
paigne him by lande.

Thucydides, by Thot. Nicoll, fol. 68, c. 2.

The' you that villen was so fern and strong,
That nothing might outstirke his ferious force:
He cast him downe to ground, and all along
Drew him through dirt and myre without remorse.

Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, book ii. c. v.

KING. I like him not, nor stands it safe with us,
To let his sodden rage. Therefore prepare you,
I your commission will forthwith dispatch,
And he to England shall along with you.

Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, act ii.

About that time the earle of Essex was setting forth for Calles
voyage, and my father, that had a mind to quit his idle court life,
procured an employment from the vicarall of the navie, to go
along with that fleet.

Memorie of Col. Hutchinson.

Boy. It's all long on you, I could not get my part a night or
two before.

He said; when loud along the vale was heard
A shriller shriek, and nearer fires appear'd.

Cottle. *The Fugitives*.

ALOOF, adv. All-off, entirely separate, Skinner. Janus
suggests that it may be of the same origin with *aloft*.

Mine adverse with such greivous repulse,
Thus he began, "Hearc loud the other part;
That the plain truth, from which he draweth aloof,
This vindict may may shew, ere that I part."

Wyller.

Like the stricken hinde with shuff, lo Crete
Throughout the woods which chasing with his dartc
Aloof, the shepherd smilith at vnaare
And leaves unvist in her the thirling hand.

Surrey. *Virgils Aeneid*, book iv.

But surely this anker lyeth to face aloof for thy shyppe, and
both never a cable to fasten her to it.

See *Thomas More's Works*, p. 759. c. 2.

Nowe both the brant in equall fight to meete him hand to hand,
But thorough darts, and raining hurtle myse, aloof they stand.
Aeneid, by Thot. Nicoll, and Thot. Tye, book x.

Then badd the knight his lady yede aloof,
And to an hill herself withdrew aryle;
From whence she could behold that battailles proof,
And eke be safe from danger far descryde.

Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, book i. c. xi.

The lady astounded and fearful of that which shee beheld, com-
manded the coachman to goe a little out of the way, and sat aloof,
beholding the rigorous conflict.

Shelton's *Trans. Don Quix.* ed. 1656.

There are some pleasures and conditions too in the world, which
make us for a show at a distance, that in those that gaze at them
aloof off, they frequently begot envy at them and wishes for them.

Bayle's *Des. Dictionnaire*, f. vi. ref. 2.

And while aloof from *Belius* shee sters,

Malacha's forehead full in face appears.

Falconer's Shipwreck, canto ii.

ALOPA, or **ALOFF**, in Ancient Geography, a town
of Thessaly, mentioned by Homer and Pliny, and sup-
posed to have been called after Alope, the mistress of
Neptune.

ALOPECE, in Ancient Geography, an island in
the Palus Meotis. Strabo. Another in the Cimmerian
Bosphorus. Pliny, iv. c. 12. and a third in the Ægean
sea, opposite to Smyrna. Pliny, v. c. 31.

ALOPECES, or **ALOPES**, in Ancient Geography,
a small town of Attica, in which was the tomb of
Anchimolus. This town was the birth-place of
Aristides and Socrates. Eschin. contra Timarch. Herod.
v. 64.

ALOPECIA, in Medicine, a term denoting a morbid
baldness in any part of the body, whether produced by
any deficiency in the nutritive juices, or by the vicious
state of any of the fluids at the roots of the hair.

ALOPECONNESUS, in Ancient Geography, a town
of the Thracian Chersonesus. Livy, xxxi. 16.

ALOPECURUS, in Botany, glo-glove, a genus of
plants belonging to the class Triandria, and order
Diygnia.

ALOPER, in Zoology, a species of the canis, which
is found in Burgundy, with a strait tail, black at the
tip; its feet and legs are likewise black. It is com-
monly called the charcoal, or coal fox, and the field fox.

ALOS, or **ALCS**, in Ancient Geography, a town of
Achaia, mentioned by Strabo, l. ix. and Pliny, iv. 7.

ALOSA, in Ichthyology, a fish belonging to the
Clupea species; its sides spotted with black, and the
upper jaw bifid. By Aristotle and the ancients it is
called *Thrissa*; by Gesner, *Alaus*; and its common
name in English is the shad.

ALOSE, s. } From the Latin *laus*, praise. Skinner.
ALDSED, s. } To praise, to commend. But
laus itself is from the A. S. *Plun*, the past participle
of *hlýren*, celebrate. *Loos* was formerly in common
use in the language. Tooke ii. 301.

And Hope afterwards, of God more use to take
And brende for his love, to love's all man lyde
And hym above all, and best be as my selfe
Nether lacke ne slow, ne serve but for we
Eve wicked in his world, how I were myself.

Faust of *Piers Plowman*, p. 326.

Who to with Loose woll gon or ride
He mote be curies, and void of pride
Merie, and full of iollite
And of Largesse a lord be.

Chaucer. *The Remour of the Rose*, fol. 127, col. 2.

Was there no knight so high of blood,
Ne had so make wordes good,
That therefore should be holder of price,
But he in deed were pured thirior;
Thirior proved at the least;
Then was he alant at the feast.

R. Browne in *Ellis*, v. l. p. 419.

ALOSING. In losing.
And as they were a language y^e colts, the owners thereof asyle
vnto them, why loose ye the colts?

Bible, 1539. S. Luke, chap. xix.

ALOOF.

ALOSING.

ALPHA-
BET.
—
ALPS.

Syriac, and Samaritan, 22 each; the Greek, 24; the Latin, 22. The Chinese can hardly be said to furnish a distinct alphabet; but the number of separate characters employed to express its words has been estimated at upwards of 80,000.

Neither the question of the origin of language, nor that of the first introduction of written symbols to express the ideas of the mind (evidently interwoven with each other), belongs to this place. Our first division will be found to take a comprehensive view of these questions, under the article GRAMMAR; and in their relations to the philosophy of the mind, they connect themselves with some of the most interesting branches of LOGIC and METAPHYSICS. Tables of the actual state of all the important alphabets will be given with the article GRAMMAR, Div. i.

ALPHEUS, in Ancient Geography, a name sometimes given to Pisa, in Etruria, which was supposed to have been built by the Ælians, who came from the banks of the Alpheus.

ALPHUS, in Ancient Geography, now Alpheo, a river of Peloponnesus, which rises in Arcadia, and falls into the Ionian sea below Olympia. The nymph Arethusa having excited the admiration of the god of this river, was closely pursued by him; when Diana changed

her into a fountain in Ortigia, a small island near Syracuse. From this circumstance the poets feigned that the Alpheus passed under the Mediterranean from the Peloponnesus, and rose again in Ortigia unmixed with the waters of the ocean. STRABO vi.; VIRG. Æn. iii. 694.; OVID. Met. v.; HAL. x.

ALPHION LAKE, in Ancient Geography (from Ἀλφειο, a leper), the source of the river Alpheus; which had the power of cleansing lepers by its waters.

ALPHONSIN, in Surgery, an instrument taking its name from a Neapolitan physician, Alphonsus Ferrier, who invented and used it for the purpose of extracting balls from gun-shot wounds. It had three prongs, which were closed by the pressure of a ring, and opened at pleasure. In its closed state, it was introduced to the wound, and opened to grasp the ball, which was thus extracted. It is an instrument not much in modern use.

ALPINIA, in Botany (so named from Prospero Alpini, a Venetian physician), a genus of plants of the class Monandria, and order Monogynia.

ALPISTE, or ALPIA, a sort of seed, which is much used as a food for birds which are kept for breeding. It is of a pale yellow colour, but has a bright and glossy hull.

ALPHEUS
—
ALPS.

A L P S.

ALPS, or ALPES, in Geography, derive their name either from the Celtic, Alp, signifying verdant heights, or mountains, (Isidore in Origin, lib. iii. and Servius in Virgil, Æn. lib. iii.); and, amongst the ancient Scythians and Scandinavians, the spirit of a mountain; or from albus, alps, white with snow; for the etymology from Albion, the son of Neptune, who was said to have been killed by Hercules, when disputing the passage of this god across these mountains, is too fabulous for our attention.

The Alps are the highest range of mountains in Europe, and extend, in a crescent-like form, from 600 to 700 miles, being the stupendous boundary which divides Italy from the other parts of this continent. This chain commences on the western side toward France, near the shores of the Mediterranean, at the Italian town of Monaco, running through Genoa and the borders of the county of Nice, Provence, Dauphiny, Savoy, Switzerland, the Tyrol, Trent, Brixen, Suabia, Salzburg, and the Venetian States; and terminating on the eastern side, near the gulf of Carnaro, in the Adriatic. In the course of this immense range, these mountains assume several distinct names and subdivisions, according to their different and relative situations.

The Maritime Alps, or Alpes Littorales, or Maritimes, so called from their neighbourhood to the Mediterranean, begin at the eastern extremity of the whole chain, near Monaco, and terminate near the source of the Po, at Mount Viso, between Dauphine, in France, and Piedmont, in Italy; thus connecting the Alps with the northern part of the Apennines of Italy, and leaving ancient Gaul to the west, and Genoa to the east. But Saussure has included the whole range of mountains, from Nice to Genoa, under this subdivision, which he

divides into two branches, one running eastward along the coast, until it joins the Apennines; the other stretching westward through Provence: the usual distribution gives the eastern branch of this range to the northern Apennines. The heights of Camelon and Tenda, the most celebrated and conspicuous of this division, are both situated in the county of Nice; and the passes called the Col di Tenda, which is the boundary of Nice on that side, and the Col d'Argentiere, leading from Barcelonnette, in Provence, to Cenis, in Piedmont, are those most known and described by travellers. The ancient city called Embrun was formerly the capital of this district, the inhabitants of which enjoyed, under the Emperor Nero, the privileges appertaining to the allies of ancient Rome; and trophies were erected on one of its highest summits, called Tropæa, or Turbia, in honour of the Emperor Augustus.

The Cottian Alps, Alpes Cottinæ, or Cottanæ, now The Cotti-Mont Genève, begin at Mount Viso, at the termination of the Maritime Alps, and take a northern direction to Mount Cenis, forming the boundary line between this part of Dauphiny and Piedmont. The chief town of this district is Soas, and across this range it is supposed, by Holstenius, D'Anville, and others, that Hannibal passed with his army when he entered Italy. In the silence of the ancient historians, however, upon this point, it is by no means clear over what part of the Alps Hannibal effected his passage; and some circumstances which are said to have attended it are still more equivocal. The manner in which the Carthaginian general levelled some of the most inaccessible heights, splitting the rocks by means of fire, and afterwards pouring on quantities of vinegar, which are said to

The Maritime Alps.

ALPS. have softened and crumbled them, rests entirely upon the authority of Livy (l. xxi. c. 27.), supported by a complimentary and extravagant line of Juvenal (Sat. x. v. 15.) "Dilucid scropulos, ad montem rumpit aceto." In the present advanced state of chemistry, we know nothing of a calcination of immense masses of rock that could be thus effected. Pliny, indeed, states, in book xxii. c. l. of his *Nat. Hist.* that vinegar will dissolve calcined substances, and the pearl of Cleopatra may be instanced as a proof of this; but the details of natural history are so imperfectly given by the ancients, and Pliny is himself so full of marvellous relations, that this evidence can weigh but little; while it is obvious, as to the pearl, that the dissolution of so small a substance can bear no analogy to softening down the rocks of the Alps. There is, however, still extant an ancient pass on this division of these mountains, which leads from Briançon to Susa, formerly called the Cottia; and if Hannibal passed over this portion of the Alps, it must have been by that road.

The Greek Alps. The Greek Alps, or, according to Pliny and Cornelius Nepos, Alpes Graie, begun at the northern part of the range last described, and divide Savoy and the Tarentine territory in a western direction; they also run to the east, between Piedmont and the valley of Aosta, terminating at Great St. Bernard. This division is sometimes called Little St. Bernard, as it contains that mountain, and is the part where Hercules, on his return from Spain, was fabled to have forced his passage against Albiou.

The Pennine Alps. The Pennine Alps, or Alpes Pennine, seem to have derived their name from the Celtic word Pen, signifying head or top, in relation to the heights of these mountains; for the etymology which derives the name from Pwni (Carthaginians), as denoting it to have been the place where Hannibal passed, is inconsistent with the general tenor of history, though it was a conjecture entertained in the time of Livy, (lib. xxi.) This division begins at the north-east of the Alpes Graie, and, separating the Valais from Italy on the south, extends to the sources of the Rhine and the Rhone, at the foot of the Great St. Gothard. There are three roads across these mountains; by one of which the Emperor Constantius marched his army against the Alemanni; and by another, which is over Mount Simplicon, Buonaparte invaded Italy, in 1800, prior to the battle of Marengo. This is the great road into Italy, highly improved by the ci-devant emperor, and that usually travelled. It runs along the Savoy side of the lake of Geneva, thus connecting the ridge of the Jura with the Alps. At St. Maurice it falls in with the road that traverses the Swiss margin of the lake, passes up the Vallais beyond Sion; and then, turning to the right, climbs the Great Simplicon, and conducts the traveller to the lake Maggiore and Milan. At the town of Mastignu, a track unworthy the name of a road, and only passable by mules, branches off to the Furca, the Col de Balme, and the romantic scenes of the vale of Chamouni. This division contains Great St. Bernard, Mont Blanc, and that immense range of precipices which extends southward from the Rhone, and northward from the modern Piedmont. Here too the Alps assume their greatest breadth, and branch out into those enchanting vallies, which form the habitations of the Swiss.

The Rhetian Alps, or Alpes Rhetice, are named

from their situation in the ancient Rhetia. There are three subdivisions of this range, first, the Rhetian Alps Proper, which form an immediate junction with the Pennine Alps, and run between the country of the Grisons and the Tyrol, to the sources of the rivers Piave and Drave, and in their course give rise to the Inn, the Adige, the Oglio, and the Adda; second, the High Alps, designating the peculiar heights of St. Gotthard, the Vogelsberg, the Furca, the Crispalt, the Schreckhorn, and the Grimsal, which they contain; this chain runs from St. Gotthard to the lake Maggiore, dividing Milan from Switzerland, and, in its course, a branch of the river Rhine springs from the mountain Vogelsberg, and the sources of the Rhone and the Reuss are to be found in the mountain of Furca. This subdivision is sometimes called the Helvetic Alps. The third subdivision of this range is that of the Lepontine Alps, taking their name from the inhabitants of the country around, called Lepontines; these mountains extend southward of the Pennine Alps and of the High Alps, and standing between the sources of the Rhone and the lake Maggiore, join the Great St. Bernard westerly.

The Tyrolese, or Tridentine Alps, Alpes Tridentine, run northward of Trent, and include the great mountain Brenner; the Alps of Algha, in Suabia, are a part or continuation of the Tyrolese Alps, and cannot justly be divided from it; within this range, in the county of Konigsack-Rothentels, stands the Hochvogel, and the rivers Lech, Iller, Bregenz, and the Aller, derive their several sources.

The Noric Alps, or Alpes Norice, take their name The Noric from the ancient Noricum, and divide the countries of Alps. Nice and Salzburg, and the territory of Venice; they extend eastward of the Rhetian Alps, and terminate at Dolback, in the Tyrol.

The Carnic Alps (Alpes Carnice, a part of them which has been little explored) extend from the Noric Alps to Mount Occa, running between Carinthia and Friuli.

The last distinct portion of these mountains is that known by the different names of the Julian, Pannonian, Alps, &c. or Venetian Alps; Alpes Julice, from Julius Cæsar, who formed a plan of a road over this part of the Alps, which the Emperor Augustus afterwards completed; and the additions of Pannonia or Venetia are derived from the counties of Pannonia and of Venice, through which they run. This division of the Alps continues the chain from Mount Occa to the gulf of Carosaro, in the Venetian gulf, or Adriatic sea, near Istria, running between Carinthia, Carniola, and Friuli, and thus completing the crescent before described.

The Alps, according to Saussure, consist in their higher summits chiefly of a large-grained granite. Mount Blanc, the majestic monarch of the scene, rises nearly 16,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is seen at Lyons in all its grandeur, and even at Dijon and Langres, a distance of 140 miles. Mount Cenis, to the south of Mount Blanc, is another remarkable summit, and on these, as well as on some other heights, the sun sheds its lustre at setting full three quarters of an hour after the light has disappeared in the Pays de Vaud, and other places in Switzerland, which stand more than 1,000 feet above the sea. At the rising of the sun the tops of these mountains are illuminated for an equal length of time before his rays reach the surrounding country, when they appear like stars amidst the darkness

ALPS.

of the morning. The summits of all the higher ranges are covered with perpetual snow, and the valleys formed on their sides are guarded by terrific precipices, frequently of 1,000 feet and upwards in depth, and interspersed by those beautiful, but dangerous wonders of nature, the glaciers. These are rocky pyramids of ice, accumulated both in the chasms and on the sides of the Alps in immense quantities, and in great varieties of shape. Coxé divides them into the upper and lower glaciers, of which the last are much the more considerable in extent and depth; that of Des Bois is fifteen miles long, and in some places upwards of three broad. Sansure found the average depth of the ice composing this glacier from eighty to a hundred feet. They seem in the larger ravines as if enormous multitudes of icy bills had rushed from the summits of the surrounding mountains, and crushed each other into the thousand forms that thus fill up the valley below. Their surfaces are rough and granulated, the ice of which they are composed being remarkably porous and full of bubbles; they are easily passed, except in a rapid descent, and in the case of snow accumulating over the fissures, which, however, are not many, and always felt for by the guides. The upper glaciers, on the sides and summits of the Alps, are formed of the purest snow, converted into various degrees of hardness, and continually sliding downward

to the valleys. The avalanches are prodigious masses of these accumulations, which are suddenly precipitated down the sides of the mountains, and increasing as they proceed, sometimes overwhelm whole villages at their feet. The valleys themselves present some of the finest landscapes to the eye, and afford the most luxuriant pasturage; corn, vines, and fruits, diversify the scene, and excellent fish of all kinds abound in the waters. Recesses from the world are formed in the very heart of Europe, which would seem designed to be the cradle of innocence and liberty; but how differently have they hitherto appeared to the warrior and the statesman, who have often decided the fates of the civilized world upon their borders!—There are, of course, many parts of the Alps which yet remain untrodden by the foot of man; but the most noted passes, besides those already mentioned, are those of Mount Cervin, Furca, Col di Seigne, Great St. Bernard, St. Gothard, Splügen, the Bulls of Rastatt, and the Brenner. Tourists in these districts have so multiplied the descriptions of particular passes, that we deem it unnecessary to conduct the reader through any of the ordinary routes: Sansure and the MM. Bourrit have given us, perhaps, the only scientific accounts of the geological and mineralogical wonders of the scene; while Mr. Archdeacon Coxé, and other intelligent English travellers, are in the hands of most of our readers.

ALPS.
—
AL-
READY.

ALPS, SWABIAN, a chain of mountains which stretch along the frontiers of Württemberg, in Germany, and separate the Danube from the Neckar. These may be considered as a continuation of the Tyrolean Alps; and as forming part also of the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest. They reach from Sultz to the vicinage of Tübingen, and then eastward as far as Ulm.

ALPS, MARITIME, department of the, in France, is formed from the ancient county of Nice, and a certain part of High Provence. Nice is its chief town, and, with Puget and Hericres, forms three sub-prefects or arrondissements. It is divided into twenty-two cantons, and its population consists of 131,300 inhabitants. This is a mountainous district; but the valleys produce excellent wine and oil. It is in the eighth military division east.

ALPS, LOWER, department of the, in France, is formed out of Provence High, or the north-east part of Provence, and of the valley of Barcelonnette. Digne is the chief place of this division, and there are five arrondissements, or sub-prefectures, i. e. Digne, Barcelonnette, Castellane, Sisteron, and Forcalquier. The population is about 149,400, and its extent three hundred and seventy-two French leagues. It has the department of the Upper Alps to the north, to the east the Piedmontese Alps, the department of the Var bounds it on the south, and the mouth of the Rhone and Vaucluse westward. It is also in the eighth east military division.

ALPS, HIGHER, department of the, in France, formed of the south-east part of Dauphiny, and part of Provence. Gap is the chief place, and there are three sub-prefectures or arrondissements, viz. Gap, Briançon, and Embrun. It is divided into twenty-three cantons, its extent is two hundred and fifty-one French leagues, and contains a population of 121,500 inhabitants.

This department is fertile in corn, wines, and nut-oil, and on its hills sheep and goats abound. It is in the seventeenth east military division.

ALPUXARRAS, lofty mountains of Spain, in the kingdom of Granada, on the coast of the Mediterranean: they extend from Velez to Almería, and are seventeen leagues in length from east to west, and eleven leagues from north to south. This district is, perhaps, the most populous and best cultivated in Spain; it is covered with vines and various other fruit trees; and the climate is temperate and salubrious. The inhabitants were originally Moriscos.

ALQUIER, in Commerce, a Portuguese measure of oil; also called cantar; two alquieres make an almond. It is likewise a dry measure at Lisbon; containing an English peck, three quarts, and one pint.

ALRAMECH, or ARAMECH, in Astronomy, an Arabic name for the star of the first magnitude in the constellation Bootes, commonly called Arcturus.

ALREADY, *adv.* All-ready: wholly ready; or in readiness. Applied to that which is all ready, done, past.

For if the welts come in the wale
Their godly staffe is then awale,
Whereof they shold their flocks defende.
But if the poure sheepe offend
In any thyng, though it be lile,
Then be all ready far to smite.

Greene. Com. A. The Prologue.

That same Messias the deliverer and saviour of his people, which long & many daies gon hath been promised, and many hundred yeres already looked for, is now at hand to come in deede.
Udall. Lute, ch. i.

And bidst thou be advised for the best,
Ere thou thy daughter linck, in holy band
Of wedlocke, to that new unknown guest:
For he already playeth his right hand
Upon another love, and to another land.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, east. xii.

AL-READY. In the spirital heaven, in vain shall we expect any further insight, than the already revealed will of the Father hath vouchsafed to open to us.
By *Hell's Peace Master*.

ALSHEIM. All things are God's already, we can give him no right by concealing any, that he had not before.
Selden's Table Talk.

The tuneful lark already stretch'd her wings,
And, flickering on her nest, made short essays to sing.
Dryden's Palamon and Arcite.

ALRESFORD, a market town of Hampshire, divided into two parishes, Old and New, the first being a little north of the other, six miles from Winchester, and 57 from London. The united population of these parishes amounts to 1,429 inhabitants. It was at one time a place of considerable importance, and sent a member to parliament; but time, and three dreadful fires have united to reduce it to its present dilapidated state. It is, however, at present, a neat town, and has a considerable market on Thursdays, with an annual fair for sheep, horses, and cows. At Cheriton Down, near this town, a battle was fought, on the 29th of March, 1644, between Lord Hopton, who commanded the forces of Charles I. (about 8,000 in number), and Waller, who headed the army of the parliament. Hopton was defeated; and there fell on the king's side, Lord John Stewart, brother to the duke of Richmond, and Sir John Smith, brother to Lord Carrington.

ALSA, in Ancient Geography, now ARSA, a small river which runs by Aquileia, in Italy, and joins the Adriatic gulf. It was into this river that the body of Constantine, the eldest son of Constantine the Great, was thrown, after he was defeated by his brother Constantians.

ALSACE, that portion of France which has, since the Revolution, been divided into the Upper and Lower Department of the Rhine. It is a rich and extensive district, bounded on the E. by the Rhine, on the S. by Switzerland, on the W. by the Vosges mountains, and on the N. by what was called the Department of Mont Tonnerre. It comprises an area of 3,740 square miles, and a population of 915,191 inhabitants. It abounds with various valuable mineral productions, with wood, hemp, corn, and wine, the last being principally confined to the Upper portion of the province. It is a very flourishing manufacturing portion of the French nation.

ALSCHAUSEN, a castle and small town in Suedia, formerly the seat of the knights commanders of the Teutonic order. Population of the town about 1,600. It is nine miles S. of Buchau.

ALSEN, a small but rich island in the Baltic, between Finen and the coast of Sleswick, containing about 15,045 inhabitants: it is eighteen miles long and nine broad. There is a small town of this name in Sweden, 22 miles from Ostersund.

ALSFELD, a town of Germany, in the grand duchy of Hesse, 50 miles from Frankfort on the Maine. It contains 3,020 inhabitants; and has an ancient castle belonging to the princes of Hesse Darmstadt.

ALSHASHI, a city and province of Great Buckharin, on the river Sihoun, or Sir. This city, now called Thascand, was once a flourishing place, but was ruined by Jenghiz Khan. N. lat. 43°.

ALSHEIM, a market town now belonging to the grand duchy of Hesse, in Germany; but formerly com-

prehended in the upper bailiwick of Alzey, in the palatinate of the Rhine. It contains about 1,000 inhabitants, and is ten miles north of Worms.

ALSINE, in Botany, chickweed; a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Trigynia.

ALSIRAT, in the Mahometan Theology, a bridge across the abyss of hell, over which, it is feigned, all persons are to pass after trial on the day of judgment. This bridge is represented as being sharper than a sword, finer than a hair, and beset with briars and thorns; yet, led by the prophet and his Mussulmen, all the good and faithful are to fly over it, rapidly and easily as the wind, while the wicked will fall headlong into the depths below.

ALSIUM, in Ancient Geography, a maritime town at the west of the Tiber, now called Statua. *PLIN. iii. c. 3. Ctc. ad Fam. ix. Epist. 6.*

ALSLEBEN, an ancient town and castle of Prussia, in the duchy of Magdeburg, on the Saale. It has a population of nearly 1,100 inhabitants, and contains about 234 houses. E. long. 11°, 52'. N. lat. 51°, 40'.

ALSO, *adv.* } AL-so. So, from the Gothic article
ALs, } sa, so; it, or that.

ALSOON'. } Als is al, and es, or as, it, that, or which.—Tooke.

pe cyte be barnde al clene, & a chyrche al so
Of oure leude, yst pr iane was. *R. Gloucester, p. 380.*

Also the salen, there is an helth.
Whiche unto mena sinis is due;
And hidden vs therfore excheue
That wicked is, and do the good.

*Astronomy in a, are at two whites end
Of yst was calculat of pe clymat, the contrarye pr iudicp.
Vision of Piers Plouman, p. 291.*

Rolls was kald Robert, when he was baptizid
pe kyng Alfrede, als he had desired.
R. Brunet, p. 24.

The next morow als some as the bryght day,
The son vprissid about the sternes away,
Esau gas ten every enist about
His felis all assevely in one rout.
Douglas, book v. p. 178.

Alasone may shepheard climbe to alie,
That leades in lowly daies,
As gotcherd prout, that, sitting like,
Upon the mountayne sayles.

Spenser's Shep. Cal. July.
I swear by all the orders of knight-hood that are in the world, to pay thee, as I have said, one reall upon another; yea, and those also performed.
Shelton's Truce. Din Quia. Ed. 1639.

At the same time that God gave us our being and nature, he planted in us an inclination to preserve it, and a desire also of our own well-being and happiness.
By. Bull's Sermons.

ALSTOE, the name of a hundred in the county of Rutland. It is the most extensive division of that county, containing about 22,091 acres; and comprehending the parishes of Ashwell, Busley, Cotmore, Exton, Grestham, Market Overton, Pickworth, Streton, Tigh or Teigh, Thistleton, Wissembard, and Whitwell. Edmund, earl of Cornwall, son of Richard, a younger son of king John, and eldest king of the Romans, held the entire fee of this hundred as early as the reign of Edward I. It afterwards came into the possession of the crown.

ALSTONIA, in Botany, so called from Dr. Charles

ALSHEIM.
ALSTO-
NIA.

ALSTO-
NIA.ALTAI
MOUN-
TAINS.

Alston, of Edinburgh, a genus of plants belonging to the class Polyandria, and order Monogynia.

ALSTROEMERIA, in Botany (deriving its name from Baron Alströmer), a genus of plants belonging to the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

ALT, a river of Lancashire, which rises near Knowsley-park; and thence, running in a north-westerly direction, enters the Irish sea near Fronny point.

ALT, in Music, the higher notes in the gamut.

ALT-RANSTADT, a village and castle in the bishopric of Menneburg, between Leipzig and Lutzen, on the borders of Saxony, noticeable as the place where a treaty was concluded between Charles XII. of Sweden, and Augustus II. of Poland; and where, in 1707, the religious freedom of the Protestants of Silesia was secured by a treaty with the imperial envoy, Count Wratislaw.

ALTA GRACIA, a small city of South America, founded in the year 1540. It is situated in the province of Latagons. This is also the name of several small places in these parts of the New World.

ALTAI MOUNTAINS, a range of mountains in Asia, extending, under different names, about 5,000 miles in length, between the 70th and 140th degrees of E. lon. The heart of this immense chain consists, for the most part, of granite, porphyry, limestone, marble, and various valuable ores. In some parts of it, in Russia, are several gold and silver mines, and large masses of native iron have been occasionally dug out of it.

The Bogdo Tola, or Bogdo Ala, the Almighty mountain, is situated in about 94° E. lon. and 47° N. lat. on the limit between the Sogorian and Mongolian deserts: thence a chain runs N. W. called the Golden mountain, being the main Altai ridge, and passing the sources of the Irish, extends to the lake of Altyn. Another range called Changai, passes to the south, and a ridge, by the Tartars called Alla Koola, or Alla Tau, or the Casaguer mountain, stretches to the west, and gives rise to the river Hi, a considerable stream running northward. This principal chain forms the boundary of the Chinese and Russian empires, and proceeds onward from the Irish to the Amur, or Amour river, branches into the mountains of Kamschatka and Oudskot, or Okhotsk, terminating in the sea of Kamschatka, where it forms the extended chain of the Aleutian islands which unite the eastern shores of Asia with North-west America. The Lesser Altai chain separates Sogoria from the government of Kolhivan; and near the conjunction of these two main divisions are the principal sources of the Yenisei, the Obi, and the Irish, which empty themselves into the Northern ocean. Though much of these mountains as have been explored present many interesting mineralogical and geological facts, and the whole chain, in point of magnitude and extent, can be rivalled only by the Andes of South America, they have never yet been very accurately laid down in maps, and are known amongst the semi-barbarous people who inhabit the surrounding country, by so many various names and subdivisions, that a connected description of them is exceedingly difficult to gather. The Russian maps of these districts are little credited by Major Rennel; and though they are prefaced by Mr. Pinkerton, he admits that these mountains are very faintly indicated in them. The map of Iseniff, a Russian officer, appears to be the best.

The nine Russian portions of the Altai chain are most known, and are divided into the Alasey or Alaskai, the Kolhyan, the Korbolikinsk, the Obinsk, the Bukhtarminsk, the Teletsk, the Tsharinsk, the Krasnyarsk, and the Kunetz; the last two ridges are almost wholly inaccessible, and the tops of many of them are covered with perpetual snow. Sometimes the whole of the seven preceding divisions of these mountains are called the Kolhivan mountains, as situated principally in the government of that name. The best mines of Siberia are found amongst these mountains, particularly in the Korbolikinsk division. In the course of forty years of the last century, the only period of which any regular account of the annual produce of these mines appears to have been kept, they produced 830 poods Russian (equal to about 36 English pounds each), of fine gold; and 24,460 poods of fine silver. The copper mines yield annually 15,000 poods of metal; the iron mines, running through the larger portion of the range, are too extensive, and in the hands of too many agents, to be distinctly estimated; but they form one of the most important sources of the rising greatness of Russia.

The reader will find further details of these mountains under such of the respective names of the various links of them as are known.

ALTAMONT, a handsome but small town of Calabria Citerior. It has mines of gold, silver, and iron. E. lon. 16°, 22'. N. lat. 39°, 40'.

ALTAMURA, a small town and province in the kingdom of Naples, in the territory of Bari, at the foot of the Appennines. E. lon. 16°, 54'. N. lat. 41°.

ALTAR, *n. Altare*. Lat. from *altus*, high (*dū superi*). A place raised, to receive offerings to Jehovah, in the Jewish Theology; to the gods, in the Heathen Mythology; and applied by many Christians to the place where the sacrament of the Lord's Supper is administered.

*He lying wept with his low, that night my kelle he praised,
& silver grette plants upon the shere laid.* R. Browne, p. 79

*The quene hir self fast by the shure standis,
Haldend the weider in hyr deane handis,
Hyr in late here, and the handis of thered,
Not fowneyt, bot hung by hyr low weide.*

Douglas, book iv. p. 118.

*She with the mole all in her handes devout
Stode neare the altar, bare of the our feetis,
With vesture loose, the handes vntied all.* Surrey. B.

*Now with a sacred cake and lifted hande,
All bent on death, before her altar stands
The royal victim, the devoted fair;
Her robes were garter'd, and one foot was bare.* Fair.

*Men of Athenys bi alle thingis I se gho as veyas worshipper is
for I passide and high ghoare masuicte, and sounde as eate in
which was writen to the unknowne God, therefore which thing ghe
enknowinge worshippen this thing I schewe to gho.*

Wielſ. Dedic. ch. xvi.

*Men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are to super-
stitious. For so I passed by, and beheld the manner how ye wor-
ship your goddess, I founde an altar wherein was writt; vnto the
unknowne God. Whom ye then ignorantly worship, him shew I
vnto yee.* Bible, 1359. 2a.

*They come like sacrificers in their trimme,
And to the fire ey'd maid of smokie wanne,
All hot, and bleeding, will we offer them;
The mayed Mars shall on his altar sit
Vp to the curve in blood.*

Shakespeare's King Henry IV. 1st pt. act iv

ALTAI
MOUN-
TAINS.

ALTAR.

ALTAR. The way coming into our great churches, was anciently at the west door, that men might see the altar and all the church before them, the other doors were but posterns.

Selden's Table Talk.

Thy liberal heart, thy judging eye,
The flower unbudded shad' deny,
And bid it round heaven's altars shed
The fragrance of its blushing head.

Gray's Ode for Music.

Orders were given, and rigorously insisted on, that the communion-table should be removed from the middle of the area, where it hitherto stood in all churches, except in cathedrals. It was placed at the east end, raised in, and denominated an altar.

Hume's History of England.

ALTARS, in a theological sense, are connected in their origin with one of the most important inquiries into the customs of antiquity, *i. e.* the origin of sacrifices. If, with many eminent Christian writers, we regard the latter as of divine institution, we must then date the origin of altars, perhaps, with the sacrifice of Abel; while the strong attestation of the divine acceptance given to that sacrifice, to the sacrifices of Noah and of Abraham; the express prescription of them to the friends of Job, as a means of propitiating the Deity; together with the systematic establishment of them by divine authority, in the law of Moses (on which occasion the forms and ceremonies of the altars were distinctly enjoined), throw an interest around the history of these edifices, connected with the highest hopes of man. The first altars were doubtless temporary, and crude in their materials. When we consider the origin of the word, and the constant propensity of the eastern nations to select the highest eminences for their early religious rites, it might designate, in the first instance, nothing but the spot on which their offerings were made, an opinion which is confirmed by Hesychius and Plaviarius, who speak of people that had sacrifices without altars (or distinct edifices); and a similar testimony of Strabo, respecting the ancient Persians.

In sacred history we first read expressly of the altar of Noah, on the memorable occasion of his leaving the ark after the deluge: Abraham erected several; and Jacob consecrated, perhaps, the stone upon which he had slept at Bethel to this purpose: it is certain he returned to this place afterwards (Gen. xxv. 1.) for the express purpose of erecting an altar at the command of God; and this is the first occasion on which we find the building of an altar enjoined.

The first altar which Moses erected by the command of Deity, was constructed of earth; those of Gideon and Manoah were respectively a rock, employed upon the emergency for that purpose. Among the Jews there were three principal altars: the altar of incense, the altar of burnt-offering, and the altar, or table, of shew-bread. These were each built of wood; the first and the last overlaid with gold; the second with brass, and all richly ornamented with the sculpture of the times. With respect to the form of these altars, there has been much dispute among critics. They are represented, by Josephus, as being square, and having horns at the four corners. His words are, *ῥεταγωνίου τὸ ἄλυσον, ἀντιστοιχίου ἑκατέρωθεν κέρατα*. But it is doubted whether these horns (alluded to Ps. cxviii. 27.) were made of wood, horn-shaped, or were in reality the horns of some animal. Their origin is also curious. Some writers have imagined

them to refer to the diverging rays of light, when breaking forth in the morning or from behind a cloud; but their uses are clear. They served to secure the sacrificial victims, and for the fugitives to seize when fleeing to the altar for protection. Horns were well-known badges too of dignity and power.

It was a custom among the ancients to inscribe upon the altars the name or character of the divinity to whom they were dedicated. Hence St. Paul found the inscription of the "Αγνιστερος Θεος" upon some Athenian altars; a singular inscription, eternized by the memorable discourse which St. Paul grounded upon it, and to which a variety of interpretations have been affixed. Some have ascribed this particular altar to Dionysius the Areopagite, who, unable to account for the eclipse at our Lord's death, was yet sensible that it was the sympathy of nature with a superior Being. Theophylact attributes it to the appearance of an unknown spectre after a battle lost by the Athenians; others to a complaint of the god Pan, during the war between the Persians and Greeks, who considered himself neglected, and, lest any other deity should have like cause of displeasure, all those gods who were not named were included in this general inscription. Cœcumenius imputes the occasion to a pestilence, or burning disease, which seized the Athenians, after their offerings to all the acknowledged idols remained in full force, until they sacrificed to the Unknown God whom they had dispensed, and when the disorder shewed, to him they attributed the cure. St. Jerome has supposed it to have been inscribed to the gods of Europe, Asia, and Africa; others, that it was one of those uninscribed altars erected in several parts of Attica, after a solemn expiation of the country by Epimenides. Pausanias and Philostratus assert that there were several altars at Athens "to the unknown gods"; and Lucian, in his Philopatrias, swears by "the unknown god of Athens." Some have supposed that the God of the Jews is particularly intended, whose power had been often displayed, but whose name was unknown to them, the Jews not using the word Jehovah.

There were three kinds of altars among the Greeks: *εἰσπρατοι*, designed for burnt sacrifices; *αἶσρατοι*, without fire, and *ἀσπασατοι*, without blood; for upon the two last, only offerings of cakes, or fruits of the earth, and libations, could be presented to their respective divinities. Venus had an altar at Paphos, which was *ἀσπασατοι*, but not *αἶσρατοι*; and Tacitus says that she was worshipped, *precibus solis et igne puro*, by prayers and fire alone. Among the primitive Greeks, the consecration of their altars was attended but with little expence; but as they increased in riches, they gradually introduced more magnificent and costly ceremonies into this part of their religious worship. From a passage in the *Æneid* of Aristophanes, and from the Danaides of that poet, we find that the ordinary mode of the consecration of altars was *decras*; that is, of incense. He speaks of a woman dressed in a robe of various colours, with a vessel filled with pulse upon her head, consecrating the statues of Mercury and the altars of Jove. The usual mode of dedication was performed by placing a garland of flowers upon them, then anointing them with oil, and afterwards offering up libations of wine and oblations of fruits. There is no doubt but that the unctio, with oil, constituted the

ALTAR. principal part of the ceremony of consecration, and that this practice was derived from the most remote antiquity. We all know that, among the Jews, the altar of Moses was consecrated by the pouring out of oil, by the express command of the Divinity; and the altar of Jacob was dedicated to God by the performance of the same ceremony.

Altars, as well as temples, were accounted so sacred by the ancient Greeks, that most of them had the privilege of protecting malefactors of various descriptions, debtors, and even rebellious slaves, who fled to them for refuge; and it was deemed an act of sacrilege to force the fugitive away.

Τὰς γὰρ πᾶσι ἀλταῖς ἑταίροις ἐστὶν ἄστυ, ἅλλ' ἰδιωτικῶς οὐδὲ γὰρ δαίμων ἀλλὰ θεὸς ποιεῖται χρεῖα.

Enrip. Ion. 1512.

Plutarch tells us, that those who killed Cylon and his followers when hanging upon the altars were afterwards stigmatised with the epithet *Ἀλταροφόναι*, impious and profane; and Justin, in his history, observes, that the murder of Laodamia, who had fled to Diana's altar for protection, and was there killed by Milo, was the cause of the death of Milo, and of the public calamities of Æolia. After this, and similar cases of violation, the privileges of the asyla were seldom if ever directly broken.

But although the sanctity of altars was generally considered inviolable by the Greeks, they sometimes evaded it in an indirect manner either by setting fire to the altar, or shutting up the temple, and unroofing it. Thucydides tells us, that when Pausanias, king of Sparta, after having entered into a traitorous correspondence with the Persians to betray the interests of his native country, fled to the temple and altar of Minerva Chalcioecus; the Lacedæmonians, reluctant to violate the shrine of the goddess, and at the same time determined to punish his treason, unroofed the temple, and left him to perish with hunger. And Euripides, in his *Hercules Furens*, thus introduces Lycus treating the descendants of Hercules—

Βασιλὺν τῆρις πυρρῶντι ἀπὸ τοῦ ἵου
ῥεσπύοντι κείνῳ, καὶ σπύροντι πυρρᾷ.

Eurip. Herc. Fur. 250.

In the same poet, Hermione threatens to expel Andromache from the temple of Thetis:

Πᾶσι οὖν πυρρῶνσι καὶ τοῖς ἐν πυρρῶνσι-ἵουσι.

Androm. 356.

In Plautus's comedy of the *Mostellaria*, the like inviolability of altars and temples appear to have existed among the Romans. A master is introduced, threatening his runaway slave, who had fled for some crime to a sanctuary:

Jam jubebo ignem et surculos, curules, circumdare.

Act v. sc. 5.

and he represents Labrax, in the *Rudens*, menacing his female slaves, who had fled to the asylum of Venus for protection:

Voleamus adducere, Is Veneris est adversarius.

Act III. sc. 4.

It may, perhaps, be thought that these instances militate against the inviolable sanctity of altars, but it must be remembered that these examples of using force were considered by the ancients as not altogether free from impiety, and the general protection of altars among the Romans is clear, from Ovid's

using the word "ara" in the metaphorical sense of "refugium," in his *Tristia*, b. iv. c. 5. v. 2. We must not, however, suppose that every temple, or altar, and image of the deities, afforded a place of safety to those who implored their protection. A passage of Servius, in his Commentary upon Virgil's *Æneid*, expressly affirms that every temple was not a sanctuary, but only those which had received that privilege from the manner of their consecration: "non fuisse asylum in omnibus templis, nisi quibus consecrationis lege concessum est."

It is impossible to say who first introduced the practice of considering altars as sanctuaries among the Greeks. Some writers assert, that the first asylum was founded at Athens by the Heracleidæ; others, that there was one previously erected by Cadmus, at Thebes. However this may be, Virgil evidently considers that altars were asyla in the early heroic ages, and introduces Priam and Hecuba clinging to the altar for protection:—

Ingens ara fuit
Hic Hecuba, et nate nequiquam altaria circum,

— Divin amplexus simulacra tenebant. *Æneid l. ii. 516.*

and again:

Hæc ara totius omnes.

Id. 523.

The sanctity of altars, of temples, and of images, was generally preserved inviolate until the time of Tiberius Cæsar; but this able and profligate prince, with his usual political sagacity, saw the encroachment which was thus held out to crime, and abolished them all, with the solitary exception of the temple of Juno, at Samos, and a temple of Esculapinus. Suetonius, in his *Life of Tiberius*, seems to think that the emperor abolished the privileges of all the asyla in the empire: "Abolere jus moreque asylorum, quæ usquam erant." But Tacitus, in his *Annals*, an authority far superior to the former, states them only to have been reformed and abridged.

Independent of the public altars of the Greeks and Romans, they had also private or domestic altars, which were dedicated to the Lares, or Penates, the household gods of the ancients. The Greeks called them "εἰχνοποι," and the Latins "foci." These "εἰχνοποι," or "foci" were but one step in height from the ground, and very much resembled the fire-places or hearths which may be found among the inhabitants of country villages in England and France. It is very evident that a domestic altar existed in the palace of Priam, from the testimony of Virgil; and it appears, from Pausanias and Servius, that it was consecrated to Jupiter Hecæus. The foci contained a perpetual fire, considered as sacred to the "lar familiaris," or the domestic *δαίμων* or genius of the family. Around these domestic altars the ancients placed their penates, or household deity. Thus Virgil, in speaking of the altar of the Hecæan Jove and then penates, says,

Juxtaque veteribus luron,
Incensibus ara, atque ambrosia penetralibus;

and Plautus

In medio foco
Dei dicit, me veterem, ut id servarem sibi.
Plaut. Aulid. Prolog. vi.

ALTAR. The altars of the ancients, in their temples, were placed towards the east; and, probably, hence arose the Christian custom of placing the sacramental table on the eastern side of the early churches.

Among the Romans, the word "altare" properly signifies "a high elevated altar," in contradistinction to "ara," which means a "lower altar." Or ara may be regarded as the generic word for altar, and altare the specific one; for altaria is included in "ara," according to the following lines of Virgil:

—Ecl. quatuor aras:
Ecce duas tibi, Daphni, disque altaria Phœbo.

Ecl. v. 66.

Among the Greeks, the word βωμὸς had a much more extensive signification than the altare of the Latins, for it included both the high and low altar. With the Greeks, too, the altars differed considerably, according to the character of the deity to whom they were consecrated; the θεῶν Ὀψωπιῶν had altars elevated to a great height from the ground; and Pausanias tells us, that that of the Olympian Jove was nearly twenty-two feet high. Porphyry, however, makes no difference between these altars and those that were consecrated to the use of the θεῶν Ὀρεσίων. But the Greeks also sacrificed to their heroes or demi-gods on altars close to the ground, and only one step in height, which they called *εσχαπῶν*. The θεῶν Ὑπερσθενῶν had ditches or trenches dug for the purpose of sacrifice, which the Greeks called βόθρος and λακός; and the Latins, "scrobes." The high altars also were temples, as were the tombs of the ancients, the pyramids of Egypt, and other stupendous edifices, which, while they served as sepulchres, were dedicated to religious purposes, and consecrated by sacrifice. We have already pointed out this circumstance, under the article *Εὐρυτ*, History, chap. V.

Sacrifices performed upon a turf of green earth (the aspes virus of Horace) were, according to Hesychius, termed θυσίαι ἀσπερίων. The altars of the Greeks were originally made of heaps of earth, and sometimes of ashes, as that of the Olympian Jupiter, mentioned by Pausanias; there was also another altar of ashes, at Thebes, consecrated to Apollo, who derived from it the cognomen of Ἐροδιός. In process of time they were formed of horn, brick, and stone (the material of the famous altar at Delos). They were first erected in groves, in the highways and streets, as well as upon the tops of mountains; but after the introduction of temples, they were, of course, transferred to those edifices.

The square form was that most commonly adopted among the Greeks. But we find from some ancient medals, that there also existed altars of a circular figure. Many were certainly triangular; some possibly pyramidal. The ancient altars of the heathen world, as well as those of the Jews, were undoubtedly adorned with horns. In the Dionysica of Nonnus, Agave is introduced offering up a sacrifice upon *εσχαπῶν* *σάρα βωμῶν*, and those which remain in the ruins of Rome are ornamented in the same manner.

ALTAR, is a term used among many Christians, to signify a square table placed on the eastern side of the church, and sometimes the whole of the platform on which it stands, a little elevated above the floor, and set apart for the celebration of the holy communion, marriage, &c. These altar-tables, generally made of

wood, formerly possessed the power of screening from justice the individuals who fled to them for succour.

The council of Paris, in the year 1509, decreed that no altar should be built but of stone. The Romanists seem to have denominated them altars with much greater consistency than the term is retained by Protestants, inasmuch as they regard the celebration of the Eucharist as a proper sacrifice. It was the ancient practice, both of the Greek and Latin churches, to pray with their faces towards the east, and, as we have seen, to place their altars on tables towards that quarter; hence also possibly arose the practice of the members of the church of England turning and bowing towards the east on the recital of the apostles' creed, &c. Moressin expressly tells us, that the altars of Papal Rome, were placed towards the east, in imitation of the practice of antiquity.

At first, each church contained but one altar; but in process of time they were so multiplied, that we read of no less than twelve or thirteen altars in some churches; in St. Paul's cathedral, when the chantries were granted to Henry VIII. there were fourteen; and in the cathedral of Magdeburg there were forty-nine. The altars of the Roman Catholic church bear a strong resemblance to tombs; and as the primitive Christians were in the habit of holding their meetings and celebrating the mysteries of their religion over the graves of their martyrs, it was formerly a rule in the Romish church never to erect an altar without enclosing in it the relics of some saint.

ALTAR is also used in Church History for the oblations, or incidental incomes of the church. In former times they made a distinction between the church and the altar: the tithes were called ecclesia, the church, and the other contingent revenues the altar.

ALTAR OF PROTHESIS, is a name given by the modern Greeks to a small preparatory kind of altar, upon which they bless the bread before it is carried to the larger one.

ALTARAGE, in English Ecclesiastical Law, includes the offerings made upon the altar, and the tithes derived to the priest by reason of his administering at the altar, *obtentio altaris*. There has been much dispute, since the Reformation, with regard to the extent of the vicar's claim upon tithes, as altarage: by Mich. 21 Eliz. it was determined, that the words, *altaragium cum manso competentis* should entitle him to the small tithes of the parish; but in the case of Franklyn, T. 1721, it was decreed, and it is now generally understood, that the extent of the altarage depends entirely upon the usage and manner of endowment.

ALTAR-THANE, or CHURCH-THANE; in ancient law books, the parson of the parish is so called.

ALTAVILLA, a town of Naples, with the title of county, 18 miles S. E. of Salerno. It is also the name of another town seven miles S. of Benevento.

ALTEA, a town of Spain, in Valencia, on the Mediterranean, 24 miles N. E. of Alicante. W. lon. 0° 12'. N. lat. 38° 36'.

ALTENA, a town of Prussia, in the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, on the banks of the rivers Lette and Netze. Here are a Lutheran and Calvinist church, a court of justice, and about 3,300 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in several branches of manufacture. There is also a small district in South Holland of this name.

ALTE-
NAU.
—
ALKER.

ALTENAU, a river of Germany, in the principality of Wolfenbützel, which falls in the Ocker.

ALTENAU, a town of the kingdom of Hanover, in the principality of Grubenhagen, nine miles from Goslar; with 1,200 inhabitants. There are some valuable mines of silver, lead, and tin, in the neighbourhood.

ALTENBERG, a small mining town in a bailiwick of the same name, in the mining country of Saxony, with about 200 houses, 18 miles S. of Dresden.

ALTENBRUCK, a large town of Hanover, in the land of Hadeln, with 380 houses, and 2,600 inhabitants. It is 27 miles N. W. of Stade.

ALTENBURG, an ancient town and principality of Upper Saxony. The principality is divided by the county of Gera, into two parts, which are now respectively possessed by the houses of Gotha and Saxe-Weimar; the domains of the former containing 96,000 inhabitants, and those of the latter 25,000. The soil of both portions is generally good and fruitful, particularly that of the house of Gotha, the duke of which formerly derived from it a seat and a vote at the diets of the empire of Germany. The capital town, which bears the name of the principality, has several manufactures of cotton and wool, and has long carried on an extensive trade in corn and cattle. It is 20 miles S. of Leipzig, and has a population of 9,500 inhabitants.

ALTENBURG, sometimes called HUNGARIAN ALTENBURG, a town of Hungary, on the Leitha, near its junction with the Danube, in the county of Wieselburg; carrying on a considerable trade in cattle and corn. It is 17 miles from Presburg, and 40 S. E. of Vienna. There is a ruined castle now used for granaries. E. lon. 23°, 15'. N. lat. 47°, 56'. Also a market town of Lower Austria, on the confines of Moravia, with a Benedictine abbey in the neighbourhood; a village, with a medicinal bath, on the Danube, in Lower Austria; a market town in Transylvania, county of Hunyad, with gold mines in the neighbourhood; a village below Botzen, in the Tyrol; and the name of several villages of Saxony, in the circle of Thuringia.

ALTENMARKT, a market town in Upper Bavaria, circle of the Isar, on the borders of Salzburg, 26 miles N. W. of Salzburg. Also the name of two market towns in the Austrian dominions: one near the Eos, in Styria; the other in Lower Austria, on the borders of the forest of Vienna.

ALTENSTADT, a market town and bailiwick in the duchy of Hesse; also a town of France, in Lower Alsace, on the Lauter, which contains 1,000 inhabitants, and is nine leagues N. E. of Strasburg.

ALTER, *v.*
ALT'ERABLE,
ALT'ERANT,
ALT'ERATE,
ALTERATION,
ALTERATIVE, *adj.*
ALTERATIVE, *n.*

Alter, vel alterus (which
Vossius thinks is from the
Greek ἀλλοτριος), other.
To make otherwise, or dif-
ferent; to change.

For gift thou ween'st that all the victory
Of the battail, and chancie by and by
May be reduc'd, and alter'd cleave againe:
Aue mybelieve thou foster'st all in vaine.

Douglas. Book 2. p. 341.

So long I am content to live, but if you farther crave,
I'll still be ready to give redress of all this war to have.
Or that the fates may alter'd be, your hope is spent in vaine.

Plaut. Book 2.

I call God to secunde against the daye we shall appeare before
our Lawde Iesus to geve a reckoning of our doings that I never
alter'd one sillable of Gods word, against my conscience, nor wold don
this day if all that is in earth, whether it be honour, pleasures, or
riches, might be given us. Tyndale in *Fifth's Works*, fo. 116.

Now if ye be in verai dede turned fro evil trees into good trees,
buying ye forth the good fructes, such as make testific your heries be
bee truly alter'd into a better frame.

1st Edm. St. Luke, cap. iii.

Under smiling she was dissimulate
Promiscuous with blinks amorous
And suddenly changed and alternate
Angry, as any serpent venomous
Bright purgative with words odious
Thus variant she was who list take kepe
With one eye laugh, and with the other wepe.
Chaucer. *Treatise of Criseide*, fol. 195. col. 4.

Nature that gave the bee so fease a grace,
To fledge honey of so wondrous fashion,
Hath taught the spider out of the same place
To fetch payson by strange attraction. W. gill.
If prayer
Could alter high decrees, I in that place
Would speed before thee, and be louder heard,
That on my head all might be visited.

Milton's *Paradise Lost*, book 2.

Be sure, our Saviour had never bidden his disciples to rejoice
that their names are written in heaven; if there had not been a par-
ticular enunciation of them; or if that record had been alterable.

Ep. Hall's *Balm of Gilead*.

Whether the body be altered, or altered, perception constantly
precedes operation; otherwise all bodies would be alike.

Bacon's *Nat. and Exper. Hist.*

It is not many to stand divers conditionate engagements, both
of favours and judgments, wherein God hath been pleased to vary
from his former intimations: and such alteration doth full well com-
mune with the infinite wisdom, mercy, and justice of the Almighty.

Ep. Hall's *Temptation Repelled*.

Simplex are alterative purgative. Alteratives are, such as correct,
strengthen nature, alter, say may hinder or resist the disease.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

Revolving in his alter'd soul
The various turns of chance below;
And, now and then, a sigh he stole;
And tears began to flow.
Dryden. *Alexander's Feast*.

Yet such we find they are as can control
The servile actions of our swerving soul;
Can fight, can alter, or can chain, the will;
Their wills all built on life, that fundamental ill.
Prior's *Solomon*, book iii.

By our applications we cannot pretend to produce any alteration
in the Deity, but by an alteration in ourselves we may alter the re-
sult or respect lying between him and us.

Wallaston's *Religione of Nature*.

ALTER, or ALTER DE CHAON, an ancient town of
Portugal, in the province of Alentejo, supposed to have
been built by the Romans. It is 84 miles N. E. of
Lisbon. W. lon. 7°, 26'. N. lat. 39°, 8'.

ALTERANTS, in Medicine, medicines which pro-
duce a sensible change in the health and system
of the patient, without any perceptible evacuation of
the body. Alternative medicines is a synonymous
term.

ALTERCATION, *n.* Lat. altercor, from alter, other.
Saying otherwise, different from, in opposition, or
answer to; applied particularly where the debate or
disputation is somewhat acrimonious.

ALTER-
CATION.
—

ALTER-
CATION.
—
ALTER-
NATE.

be parties were so felle altered on ilk side,
 hat nae be sooth couthe telle, whiche pees or werre suld tide,
 Bot God just is of aicht, & may help what he wille.
R. Branne, p. 314.

But att' leste, shortly for to saie,
 (As all day fullst alteration
 Between brothers in disposition)
 Ther fell a strif betwix his brethren twa.

Chaucer. The Northenr Tels, v. l. p. 381.

We have had alteration and clamour enough: if any good might
 have been done by clamour and alteration, we have suffered on
 both parts more than enough.

Sp. Hall's Prince Maker.

When Jacob abruptly left the house of his father-in-law, Laban,
 and was pursued, and overtaken by him, a warm alteration took
 place.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

ALTER'NATE, v.

ALTER'NATE, n.

ALTER'NATE, adj.

ALTER',

ALTER'NALLY,

ALTER'NATELY,

ALTER'NATION,

ALTER'NATIVE, n.

ALTER'NATIVE, adj.

ALTER'NATIVELY,

ALTER'NITY.

Alternatio, from alternus,
 from alter: other.

To follow another, one
 after another, in an uninter-
 rupted succession of the same
 changes, or turns.

That ich of thame by coris alterat
 Sa off gis and tetanis that gait.

Douglas, book vi. p. 167.

But fate does so alternate the design,
 Whilst that in heaven, this light on earth must shine.

J. Jonon. Underwoods. Ode xxviii.

And God made two great lights, great for their use

To man, the greater to have rule by day,

The less by night, alters; and made the stars,

And set them in the firmament of heaven

To illuminate the earth. *Milton's Par. Lost, book vii.*

Mary then, and gentle Anne,

Both to rejoice at once begin;

Alternately they sway'd,

And sometimes Mary was the fair,

And sometimes Anne the crown did wear,

And sometimes both I obey'd. *Cowley's Chronicle.*

While men conceive they [elephants] never lie down, and enjoy
 not the position of rest, ordained unto all pedestrian animals, hereby
 they imagine that an animal of the vastest dimension and longest
 duration, should live in a continual motion, without that alternity
 and vicissitude of rest whereby all others continue.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Good after ill, and after pain delight,

Alternate like the scenes of day and night.

Dryden's Palamon and Arcite.

And, rais'd in pleasure, or repaid in ease,

(Circital alternate of substantial peace),

Pratt's Solomon, book i.

Maria look'd wistfully for some time at me, and then at her
 goat,—and then at me,—and then at her goat again, and so on
 alternately.

Stern's Triumphant Shandy.

There was also a necessity of dividing the sections into verses,
 that they might be a direction both to the reader and the interpreter
 where to make their stop at every alternate reading and inter-
 preting, all they had, verse by verse, gone through the whole
 section.

The bashful look, the rising breast,

Alternate spread alarms:

The lovely stranger stands confest

A maid in all her charms. *Goldsmith's Hermit.*

In viewing this monstrous trag-comic scene, the most opposite
 passions necessarily succeed, and sometimes mix with each other in
 the mind; alternate contempt and indignation; alternate laughter
 and tears; alternate scorn and horror.

Burke, on the French Revolution.

Taken alternately, desolation by famine, and destruction by the
 sword. Of which alternate construction I shall add a remarkable

example or two; where the parallelism arises from the alteration of
 the members of the sentences. *Leuch. Lush. Preliminary Dis.*

ALTERNATE, in Heraldry, a term designating the
 relative situation of certain quarters in the shield, or
 escutcheon. The first and fourth, and the second and
 third quarters (on opposite sides to each other) are
 called alternate quarters.

ALTERNATION, or PERMUTATION, in Arithmetic,
 the various possible changes in the order or position of
 different numbers or things, which may be thus illus-
 trated: two things, or quantities, a and b , may either of
 them be placed first, as $a b$ or $b a$, making $1 \times 2 = 2$
 alternations; a third quantity, or thing c may be placed
 in three different positions relative to $a b$ or $b a$, for it
 may stand either before, between, or after each of these
 combinations, thus making $1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$ alterna-
 tions. By multiplying the series of natural numbers
 into each other continually, down to the last number
 given, the ultimate product will give the required
 number of all alternations. If, therefore, it be asked
 how many alternations (or changes as they are com-
 monly called) may be rung on 6 bells, we must work
 thus $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 = 720$, which number
 will give the required answer.

ALTIEA, in Botany, marsh-mallow, a genus of
 plants of the class Monadelphina, and order Polyandria.
 In medicine it is used as an emollient, or demulcent,
 applied in cases of coughs and catarrhs. The root of
 the altiea was formerly made into many compositions
 in the materia medica, but it is now seldom used,
 except as a syrup.

ALTHEIM, a market town of Wurtemberg, in the
 district of the Danube, with 800 inhabitants; also a
 market town of Austria, in the bailiwick of Brannau; and
 a village of Bavaria, 17 miles from Passau.

ALTHOUGH, conj. All-though. THOUGH, though, thah,
 is the imperative Dap or Dapag of the A. S. verb
 Dapian or Dapigan; to allow, permit, grant, yield,
 assent. (Tooke, v. i. p. 184.)

All be it, or be it all, allowed, permitted, &c.

For many a man so hard is of his harte,

He may not wepe although him sore smarte.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 10.

For good counsell is good to here,

All though a man be wise hym selve,

Yet is the wisdom more of twelwe.

Gower. Con. A. The Prologue.

In perils strange, in labours long and wide;

In which although good fortune me befall,

Yet shall it not by some be testifyd.

"What is that guest," quoth then Sir Artegal,

"That you into such perils presently doth call?"

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book vi. can. i.

Cuo. Although we wish the glory still might last

Of such a night, and for the causes past:

Yet now, great lord of waters, and of isles,

Give Proteus leave to turn unto his wife.

Ben Jonson's Masques. Neptune's Triumph.

Although indeed man was by his fault a great loser, and became
 deprived of high advantages; yet the mercy of God did leave him
 in no very deplorable estate.

Burrows's Sermons.

— — — — — Ev'n the favour'd isles

So lately fond, although the constant sun

Cheer all their scenes with his grateful smile,

Can boast but little wiles. *Copier's Task, book i.*

Moderate joy, in Latin *gaudium*, we may term *placatus*. The
 stoics allowed it, to be not unworthy of a wise man, although, in
 general, they affected to be very indifferently to the passions.

Bentley's Elements of Natural Science.

2 x 2

ALTER-
NATE.
—
AL-
THOUGH.

ALTIMETRY.
—
ALTITUDE.

ALTIMETRY (of *altus*, high, and *metrum*, to measure), in Trigonometry, a term denoting the admeasurement of heights, accessible and inaccessible.

ALTIN, a lake of Asiatic Russia, in the Altain chain of mountains, 84 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. It is the source of the river Beiya, which afterwards uniting with some smaller streams, forms the Obi, running into the gulf of Obi.

ALTINCAR, in Mineralogy, and more particularly amongst working mineralists; a factitious salt much used in the process of fusion, and refining of metals.

ALTINUM, in Ancient Geography, a flourishing city of Italy, near Aquileia, and famous for its wool. *PLIN* v, iii. 18. *MART. Epig.* xxv.

ALTIS, in Ancient Geography, a sacred grove round Jupiter's temple at Olympia, where the statues of the victors at the Olympic games were generally placed. *PAUSAN.* v. 20.

ALTISONANT, *adj.* (*altus*, high, and *sonus*, sound). High sounding.

For it stood greatly with reason, seeing his lord and master changed his estate and vocation, that he should alter likewise his denomination, and get a new one, that were famous and renowned, as because the new order and exercise which he now professed.

Shelton's Treat. Ben Quia. Ed. 1637.

ALTITUDE, *n.* *Altitudo*, height, from *altus*, high. Height, exaltation, elevation.

This word is commonly used by Chaucer in the conclusion of the *Astrolabie*.

But then do'st breath;
That heavy substance, like a'st not, speak'st, set sound,
Ten marks at each, make not the altitude
Which thou hast perpendicularly felt,
Thy life's a syzygie.

Shakespeare's King Lear, act iv. sc. 6.

Whoever has an ambition to be heard in a crowd, must press, and squeeze, and thrust, and climb, with insupportable pains, till he has exalted himself to a certain degree of altitude above them.

Swift's Tale of a Tub.

The altitude and circumference of the Wrekin, I have no doubt, are accurately known in Shropshire.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

ALTITUDE, in Geometry, denotes the perpendicular height of the vertex of any plane or solid body above the line or plane of its base; thus the altitude of a triangle is measured by a perpendicular let fall from any one of its angles upon the base, or upon the base produced; and therefore the same triangle may have different altitudes, accordingly as we assume one side or another for its base. Again, the altitude of a cone or pyramid, whether right or oblique, is measured by a perpendicular let fall from the vertex to the plane of its base; and similar remarks apply to other solids.

In astronomy, altitudes are measured or estimated by the angles subtended between the object and the plane of the horizon; and this altitude may be either *true* or *apparent*. The *apparent* altitude is that which is obtained immediately from observation; and the *true* altitude is that which results by correcting the apparent altitude for parallax, refraction, &c. See our *Treatise on ASTRONOMY*, Div. ii.

The altitude of a terrestrial object is the height of its vertex above some horizontal plane assumed as a base; but in what may be called physical geography, the altitudes of mountains are measured from the general level of the ocean; that is, the altitude of a mountain is the difference between the mean terrestrial

radius and the distance of the vertex of the mountain from the centre of the earth.

There are various ways of ascertaining the altitude of terrestrial objects, viz.

1. By means of lines and angles, or trigonometrically; for which see *MATHEMATICS*, Div. i.

2. By barometrical observations; for which see *PNEUMATICS*, Div. ii.

3. By actually measuring the level between the base and vertex of an object; for which see *LEVELLING*, in our alphabetical arrangement.

4. Besides the above, which are the most general and scientific methods of measuring altitudes, there are also various practical methods that may be applied in cases where the utmost accuracy is not required; viz. by optical reflection, by the lengths of shadows, by movable staves, the geometrical square, &c. &c.; and, generally, by any method in which the calculation depends upon the similarity of plane rectilinear triangles.

Of these methods we propose to give a few examples.

PROBLEM I.

To measure altitudes by means of staves.

Let AB (fig. 1), MISCELLANEOUS, Plate III. represent an object of which the altitude is required. Being provided with two rods or staves, of different lengths, plant the longest of them as CF, at a certain measured distance from the base of the object; then, at a further distance, plant the second or shortest staff ED, in such a manner that the tops of the two, E and F, may be in a line with the top of the tower B.

This being done, measure the distance ID, as also the length ED, and we shall have, by similar triangles, as

$$ID : ED :: IA : AB :$$

that is, by multiplying the second and third terms together, and dividing by the first, we shall have the altitude of the tower AB, or

$$AB = \frac{ED \times IA}{ID}.$$

For example, suppose IA = 100 feet, ID = 8 feet, and ED = 4 feet, then

$$AB = \frac{4 \times 100}{8} = 50 \text{ feet,}$$

the altitude of the tower.

When the base of the object is inaccessible, as in (fig. 2), two such operations as that above become requisite, thus:

Let ID = *a*, ED = *d*, also the unknown distance IA = *x*, and the required altitude of the object = *y*; then in the second operation, in which both the staves must be replanted, make the second distance ID = *a'*, and the second unknown distance IA = *x* ± *c*, *c* being the distance between the two stations of the shorter staff ED, ED'; the lengths of the staves still remaining the same. Now, from the preceding proportion we shall have (by substituting for ID, ED, IA, and AB, the above letters),

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ operation, } a : d :: x : y;$$

$$2^{\text{d}} \text{ operation, } a' : d :: x \pm c : y;$$

whence, by subtraction,

$$(a' \oslash a) : d :: c : y;$$

consequently,

$$y = AB = \frac{dc}{a' \oslash a}.$$

ALTITUDE.

ALTITUDE.

PROBLEM II.

To measure altitudes of objects by means of their shadows.

This is one of the most ancient methods of measuring altitudes of which we have any record. It is said to have been first employed by Thales in measuring the heights of the pyramids of Egypt: with this view he erected a staff, and at a certain time measured the length of its shadow; at the same time the length of the shadow of the pyramid was also ascertained: then knowing the length of the staff, he made the height of the pyramid to bear the same proportion to the length of the staff, as the shadow of the former to the shadow of the latter. This method may be more explicitly illustrated as follows: At any time when the sun shines, erect a staff ab (fig. 3) perpendicularly at a , and measure the length of its shadow; at the same time cause the length of the shadow of the proposed object AB (fig. 4) to be also taken. Then, by similar triangles, as

$$ca : ab :: CA : \frac{ab \times CA}{ca} = AB,$$

the altitude required.

If the altitude be inaccessible, as in (fig. 4), but still such that the difference of the lengths of its shadow, taken at two different times, can be ascertained, the altitude may be found nearly the same as in the last example.

Make $ab = a$, $ac = b$ (fig. 3), and the unknown length of the shadow of AB , viz. $AC = x$; let the second shadow of the rod, $a'c' = b'$, the second shadow of the object, $AC' = x \pm d$, and the height AB of the object $= y$; then, by the preceding proportion,

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ operation, } b : a :: x : y;$$

$$2^{\text{d}} \text{ operation, } b' : a' :: x \pm d : y;$$

whence, by subtraction,

$$b \oslash a, b' : a :: d : y;$$

that is,

$$AB = y = \frac{ad}{b \oslash a},$$

the altitude required.

PROBLEM III.

To measure the altitude of objects by means of optical reflection.

Place a mirror, or other reflecting surface, horizontally in the plane of the figure's base, as at C (fig. 5), in which case we suppose the object to be accessible, and measure the distance CA . Now, retire back in the direction AC to D , till the eye observes the top of the object exactly in the centre of the mirror, which, for the greater degree of accuracy, may be marked by a line across it. Then, having measured the distance DC , and ascertained the height of the eye of the observer, it will be from the known laws of reflection, viz. the equality of the angles of incidence and reflection, as

$$DC : DE :: CA : \frac{DE \times CA}{DC} = AB,$$

the altitude of the object required.

When the object is inaccessible, that is, when the distance CA cannot be measured, as in (fig. 6), two such operations as that above must be employed. Thus, let $ED = a$, $DC = d$, and the unknown distance $CA = x$; also, let a' denote the analogous distance

$D'C'$ in the second operation, and $a \pm c$ the second distance $C'A$, or c the distance between the two stations of the mirror; and let the required height of the object $= y$; then, substituting the above letters in the preceding proportion, we shall have,

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ operation, } d : a :: x : y;$$

$$2^{\text{d}} \text{ operation, } d' : a' :: x \pm c : y;$$

whence, by subtraction,

$$d \oslash d' : a : c : y;$$

and, consequently,

$$y = AB = \frac{ac}{d \oslash d'},$$

the altitude sought.

PROBLEM IV.

To measure an altitude by means of a geometrical square.

The geometrical square is nothing more than a square board or frame, having one of its sides divided into equal parts; a plumb-line being then suspended at one of its angles, falls perpendicularly, and marks off a certain number of those divisions, from which the height of the object may be determined as follows (see fig. 7). Having fixed the instrument at any place C (fig. 8), turn the square about the centre of motion if it be mounted on a stand, or otherwise adjust it by holding it in your hands, till the top of the object B is perceived in the direction of the sights, or of the side of the square, and note the number of divisions Ff cut off by the plumb-line; then, having measured the distance CA , we have, by similar triangles,

$$EF : Ff :: CA : BH,$$

$$\frac{CA \times Ff}{EF},$$

that

$$BH = \frac{CA \times Ff}{EF},$$

and, consequently,

$$AB = \frac{CA \times Ff}{EF} + DC.$$

the altitude sought.

In the case of an inaccessible object, two observations must be made similar to that above; in which the only variable lines will be Ff , CA . Let, therefore, the side of the square $= s$, and the variable part $Ff = a$, in the first observation, and a' in the second; also put the unknown distance $= x$, in the first case, and $x \pm c$ in the second; so that c will be the distance of the observer's two stations, and make the required height of the object $= y$. Then, on the same principles as those above,

$$1^{\text{st}} \text{ operation, } s : a :: x : y;$$

$$2^{\text{d}} \text{ operation, } s : a' :: x \pm c : y;$$

whence by equality,

$$a : a' :: x \pm c : x;$$

$$a \oslash a' : c : x;$$

and

$$x = \frac{a'c}{a \oslash a'};$$

therefore,

$$x = \frac{a'c}{a \oslash a'};$$

and, by the first equation,

$$y = \frac{ax}{s} \text{ or } y = \frac{aa'c}{s(a \oslash a')},$$

the altitude required.

It is obvious that the method made use of in all these problems for inaccessible objects, will give the distance of the objects as well as their altitudes; thus,

$$\text{Prob. 1. The distance } EG = x = \frac{av}{d} = \frac{adc}{d(a \oslash a')}.$$

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Prob. 2. The distance $CA = x = \frac{by}{a} = \frac{bad}{a(b \times b)}$.

Prob. 3. The distance $CA = x = \frac{dy}{a} = \frac{acd}{a(a \times d)}$.

Prob. 4. The distance $CA = x = \frac{d'e}{(a \times d')}$.

Other methods for the mensuration of accessible objects, independent of trigonometrical operations, may be seen in Dr. HUTTON'S *Mensuration*.

ALTKIRCH, a town of France, in the department of the Upper Rhine, six miles from Muhlhausen. It is the head of an arrondissement, and contains 1,625 inhabitants.

ALTMARK, a division of the mark of Brandenburg, containing numerous small towns and villages: also a town of Prussian Pomerania.

ALTMUHL, a river of Franconia, which empties itself into the Danube, at Kelheim, in Bavaria.

ALTOGETHER, *adv.* All, to, together. See GATHER. All gathered, collected, united, conjoined; and consequently—wholly, entirely, completely.

At once these men might see
A world of ladies fall on knees
Before my lady, that therewith
Was left none standing in the rout
But altogether they went at once
To kneele.

Chaucer's *Dromes*, fo. 338.

And you tyme it happeneth, that when he no fer go; and
that it like him to have the emperour with his children with him;
then that you alle to gyde.

St. John Mandeville, p. 274.

And yet all such suspicious babbling not worth a feather
altogether when it were well considered.

St. Thomas More's *Works*, f. 914. c. 2.

Nether did all heretics condempne marriage in one sort.
For some of them condempned it generally, and thoreonly, and
altogether.

Jevel's *Diſſence of the Apologie*.

Qu. Of neyther, girl,

For if of joy, being altogether wanting,

It doth remember me the more of sorrow:

Or if of grief, being altogether bad,

It adds more sorrow to my want of joy.

Shakespeare's *Rich. II.* act iii. sc. 4.

A golden apple sets altogether by the ear, as if a narrow house or
hony comb were hung amongst bees.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

The greatest oracle may be sometimes silenced by a greater difficulty:
but an oracle altogether dumb is certainly a very lamentable
contradiction.

Rp. *Rail's Sermons*.

Embarked in death, thy passage will be dark; and the shore, on
which it will land thee, altogether strange and unknown.

Mason. On *Self-Knowledge*.

ALTMUNSTER, a market town of Bavaria, 20 miles N. W. of Munich.

ALTO, in Music, high; of the same general signification as ALT.

ALTO ET BASSO, in Law, an absolute submission of all differences, high and low, great and small, to arbitration. *Potere se in arbitrio in alto et basso.*

ALTO-RELIEVO, in Sculpture, figures which project more than half their size from their back-ground, but are not wholly detached from it. It is opposed to basso-relievo, in the greater degree of its projection.

ALTON, a market town of the county of Southampton, seated on the river Wye, 18 miles from Winchester, and 47 from London. It has a population of 2,316 inhabitants. The chief trade of the town is in woollens,

silk, and worsted stuffs; spinning, and weaving of calicoes; which latter branch is principally carried on in the house of industry, established here in the year 1793. Under Charles I. a party of royalists took refuge in the church, where their commanding officer was killed on the spot.

ALTONA, a considerable city of Germany, on the northern bank of the Elbe, opposite Hamburg. It was first ranked as a city in 1664, shortly after it had been united, with the rest of the lordship of Pinneberg, to the crown of Denmark, to which it still belongs, and is the seat of the Danish East India company. Upwards of one hundred vessels, of various sizes, trade from this port to the northern seas, and in the whale, cod, and herring fisheries. Altona was nearly reduced to ashes in 1713, by Steinbock, a Swedish general; but under the peculiar favour of the Danish sovereigns, has risen to be the third city in that kingdom, and contains at this time a population of 30,000 souls. Manufactories of silk stuffs, velvet, calico, stockings, gloves, tobacco, starch, wax, and vinegar, with some few tanneries, sugar-refineries, and distilleries, flourish here. It has an academy, founded by Christian VII.; a public library, and an orphan-house. The inhabitants are a mixture of Catholics, Lutherans, Calvinists, and Jews: the latter of whom are said to pay a considerable sum annually for the toleration they enjoy.

ALTORF, or ALTDORF, a town of Switzerland, the capital of the canton of Uri, situated in a beautiful country, near the river Reuss. It was in this town that the celebrated William Tell laid the foundation of Swiss liberty and independence, by resisting the tyrannical measures of Gesler, the Austrian governor. There still remains a chapel upon the spot where he was born. It lies 20 miles S. E. of Lucerne. E. lon. 8°, 27'. N. lat. 46°, 50'. Population about 4,000.

ALTORF, in the circle of Rhenat, a town of Bavaria: the capital of a district of the same name, containing about 2,000 inhabitants. There formerly existed an university here, the students of which, in 1803, amounted to 220 persons, but it is now suppressed. Hops are cultivated in the vicinity, which has rendered the place celebrated for the brewing of malt liquors. It is distant 12 miles S. E. of Nuremberg. E. lon. 11°, 20'. N. lat. 49°, 25'.

ALTORF, a market town and bailiwick of Smbia, in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and district of the lake of Constance. They contain together about 7,000 inhabitants.

ALTRINGHAM, a neat and populous town of Cheshire, about seven miles from Knutsford, and 180 from London. It is situated on the borders of Lancashire, being only about eight miles from Manchester, near the duke of Bridgewater's canal, from Runcorn to Worsley mills. For many ages, Altringham has been under the government of a mayor; and has "a guild mercantory, for free trade. There is no place of worship here for members of the established church; but the methodists and dissenters are very numerous. The population amounts to upwards of 2,000 persons; and there are several manufactories of cotton, yarn, and worsted. It has two annual fairs, and a market on Tuesdays.

ALTSOHL, a mining town of Hungary (once the residence of its kings), situated on the river Gran, in the lower circle of Sohl. Its inhabitants are computed

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to amount to near 2,000. There are two chalybeate springs in its vicinity. It is 88 miles N. E. of Presburg. **ALTSDADT**, a town of Saxony, in Misnia, near Stolpen; a town of Wirttemberg, near Rutweil, in Swabia, containing 1,600 inhabitants; another in Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz, with a population of 1,200 persons; and a town of Bohemia, in the circle of Belsin, seven miles S. E. of Feistritz.

ALTUN KUPRI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the pachalic of Bagdad, situated on the north bank of the little Zab, over which it has numerous bridges, which are very lofty. A Turkish garrison is always kept in this place. Its inhabitants are about 2,000. The distance from this town to Bagdad is about 200 miles. E. lon. 43° 20'. N. lat. 35° 45'.

ALTUN-SU, a river which joins the Tigris, about ten miles from Tectrit, in the province of Kurdistan, in Asia.

ALTZEY, anciently **ALTIA**, or **ALCEIA**, a town and upper bailiwick in the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, on the rivulet Selsach. It is the chief place of a canton, and contains about 3,000 inhabitants. It stands about 25 miles N. W. of Worms.

ALVA DE TORMES, a considerable town of Spain, in the neighbourhood of Salamanca, in the province of Leon. It stands upon the northern bank of the river Tormes, about 15 miles S. E. of Salamanca, and contains an ancient palace of the sanguinary zealot, the duke of Alva, who took his title from this town.

ALVARADO, a river of New Spain, rising in the lofty mountains of the Zapoticas, about 40 miles S. W. of Guaxaca, and emptying itself, after being increased by various smaller streams, into the gulf of Mexico, about 30 miles from Vera Cruz.

ALVARADO, a town of South America, at the mouth of the above river, in the province of Guaxaca, 30 miles S. E. of Vera Cruz. W. lon. 96°, 36'. N. lat. 18° 40'.

ALVAREZ, a town of the province of Extremadura, in Portugal, containing about 1,500 inhabitants.

ALUDEL, in Chemistry, an earthen pot, or cucurbit, formerly used for containing substances for distillations. It was open at both ends, that a series might be readily joined together.

ALVEARIUM, in Anatomy, the lower part of the cavity made by the concha, or auricle of the outer ear, whence that bitter, yellowish excrement exudes, commonly called ear-wax.

ALVECHURCH, a town and parish of Worcestershire, containing a population of 1,344 persons. It is distant from Bromsgrove five miles, and 117 from London. It was formerly a place of some note, though now in decay. The bishop of Worcester had a palace here; and there are some almshouses, founded in the year 1580.

ALVEOLI, in Anatomy, the sockets in which the teeth are fixed in the jaws.

ALVEOLUS, **NAUTILUS ORTHOCERA**, in Natural History, a marine body, both recent and fossil; when recent, it is found adhering to the cavity of the shell of that species of Nautilus, called *Belemnites*; when in its fossil state, it is detached from any other substance, and frequently so large, that it is difficult to imagine any *Belemnite* could contain it.

ALVERE, St. a town in the province of Perigord, in France, containing above 1,800 inhabitants. It is

the chief town of a canton, in the department of the Dordogne, and srooddissement of Bergerac, about 16 miles from Perigueux.

ALVERTHORP, a market town in the west riding of Yorkshire; about two miles from Wakefield. It contains nearly 4,000 inhabitants.

ALVETON, a town of Staffordshire, three miles from Cheddle, containing 934 inhabitants. It is only remarkable for the neighbouring fortification called Bunbury, encompassed by a double ditch, and which is supposed to have been erected as early as the eighth century.

ALUM, in Mineralogy, an ore of neutral salt, of much importance in medicine, and in various arts. It is divided into three distinct families, or kinds; first, the saline; second, the earthy saline; and third, the earthy. The first species is almost wholly soluble in water; the second contains a much larger portion of earth than of soluble matter; and the third is quite insoluble, and wants that sweetish, stringent taste, which is characteristic of the other sorts. See **CHEMISTRY** and **MINERALOGY**, Div. ii.

ALUNTUM, in Ancient Geography, a town in Sicily. *PLIN. iii. 8.; Cic. in Ferr. iv.*

ALVUS, in Anatomy, the lower belly or venter. It is also sometimes applied to denote the state of the bowels, as *alvus liquida*, *alvus adstricta*, &c.

ALWAYS, *adv.* All ways. Through all ways; i. e. through the whole course of life. Skinner. And thus, At all times; under all circumstances or conditions.

Known may it not be now of these thynges tofore declared, that now both not cleary thilk rightfales, which by duty of right evermore hausen her should.

Chaucer. *Tent of Love*, book iii. fol. 513. c. 4.

Thy holye word of eterne excellence,
Thy mercy in promise, that is all-ware iuste
Hase ben my staye, my pilier, and defence.
A leagur from Epidemias had we mild,
Before the alwaies winde-cheryng deepe
Gase any tragike instance of our hure.

Wyll.

Shakespeare's *Com. of Errors*, act I.

At least the memory of that more than man,
From whose vast mind thy glories first began,
Shall ev'n my weak and worthless verse commend,
For wonders always did his name extend.

Olney's *Windsor Castle*.

The root is always supposed to have the branches joined with it; and where a tree is mentioned, 'tis always understood to be a tree bearing its proper fruit. *Clarke's Sermons*.

Earthly parents may sometimes punish their children through passion, or for their pleasure; but our heavenly father always corrects his for their profit. *Memo. On Self-Knowledge*.

ALWEN, a river of North Wales, which runs into the Dee, seven miles N. E. of Bala, in Merionethshire.

ALYSSUM, in Botany, madwort, a genus of plants belonging to the class Tetradynamia, and order Siliculae, **ALYSSUS**, in Ancient Geography, a fountain of Arcadia, whose waters were feigned to cure the bite of a mad dog. *PAUS. viii. 19.*

ALYTARCHIA, in Antiquity, a priest of Antioch, in Syria, a servant of the public games, whose office it was to keep the crowd in good order, and to encourage the combatants. The officer who presided at the Olympic games was sometimes called by this name; which Faber and Prideaux maintain to be the same with that of the *Hellenodicus*.

ALYTH, a town of Perthshire, in Scotland, 12 miles from Forfar. Notwithstanding this town was consu-

ALVERE.

ALVUL.

AMADIA.
—
AMALEL

AMADIA, a considerable town of Asia, in the province of Kurdistan, 65 miles N. of Mosul. It stands upon a lofty mountain, and is accessible only by a narrow defile cut out of the solid rock. It is subject to a Turkish bey, who holds the first rank amongst those of his own title in Kurdistan, as he is descended from the caliphs of Bagdad. There are several small towns in the neighbourhood dependent upon the government of Amadia. The country around is fertile.

AMAGUANA, a town in the province of Quito, in South America, and about ten miles from that city. Also a river in the same province, which derives its source from the western side of the Andes, and runs north, collecting all the waters of the neighbouring heights; it afterwards joins the Esmeraldas, near the village of St. Antonio, and discharges itself into the Southern Pacific.

AMAIN, adv. A. S. *Oægan, to lere, posse*, the past participle *Oægan*; might.

With all might, power, strength.

When stars do counsel rest

Intouching cares prove my griefs as frute,

And thus desired night in wo I waste:

And to expresse the harts excessive paine,

Mine eyes their dewie teares distill amaine.

Turberville.

— And strait outdure

Against Fortune his sword. Then verily indeede dismayde

Did Nyssa heully shrink, nor more to lurke in darkness stayde;

but: torments then him took, he cryed amaine with sverer afayde,

Arctida, book 12. by Thos. Plater.

Great lords, from Ireland am I come amaine,

To signify, that rebels there are vp,

And put the Englishmen into the ward.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. 4th part, act III. sc. 1.

RAMPH. Then Palmerin and Trincus snatching their lances from their dwarfs, and clashing their helmets, gillous *amain* after the giant; and Palmerin having gotten a sight of him, came posting *amain*, saying, Stay traitor! that, for thou maist not so curvy away her, that is worth the greatest lord in the world.

Bern. and Flerch. Rom. of the Barn. Poetle.

She said: her brim full eyes, that ready stood,

And only wanted will to weep a flood,

Tell'd us their watry store, and pour'd amaine,

Like clouds, low hung, a soley show'r of rain.

Dryden's Sign. and Gull. 2^d edit. 1701.

AMAIN, or **AMAYN**, in Marine Affairs, literally at once, suddenly; as let go a-main, i. e. let it run at once; a phrase generally applied to something that is hoisted or lowered by tackle. It has been sometimes applied to the summoning an enemy to strike his colours, or to yield. "To strike amain," is to lower the top-sails. "To wave amain," is to make a signal by waving a sword or other instrument, as a demand for striking top-sails, colours, &c.

AMAISTRÉ, v. To master. See **MASTER**.

Is not rich that hath puissance, and hath y^e power that no man may amastrise? *Chaucer. Test of Love, f. 305. c. 2.*

Pisto had a cause his servants to scourge, and yet clasp'd he in his neighbour, to performe the doing, himselfe would not, least wrath turne him amastrise, & he might be laid on to mouch.

Id. Ib. f. 300. c. 4.

AMAK. See **AMACK**.

AMALEK, in Scripture Geography, a mountain, on which the town of Pirathon stood, in the land of Ephraim; and where Abdon, the son of Hillel, the Pirathonite, a judge of Israel, was buried.

AMALFI, or **AMALPHI**, an ancient town in the kingdom of Naples, and principality of Salerno, 10 miles S. W. of Salerno. Its origin has been dated from the emigration of a few Roman families, who embarked in the fourth century for Constantinople, and

VOL. XVII.

were thrown by adverse winds on this coast, where they founded a flourishing republic. In 825 it appears in considerable rank as to wealth and commercial importance, under the protection of the eastern emperors; but it was attacked and taken about this time by surprise, by Sico, prince of Salerno, who carried away a number of its inhabitants to repopulate his own city, which had been visited by a severe epidemic. The captive Amalfitans, however, regained their liberty by rising on their masters, in an expedition against the Beneventans; and, after plundering Salerno, returned in triumph to their own city. Here they now established themselves in additional strength; the advantages of their natural situation, both for the purposes of defence and of extensive commerce, were fully improved; their political institutions appear to have been carefully and solidly constructed, and they long ranked as a respectable sovereign state. A population of 50,000 souls is said to have been contained within the walls of the town, and they had many independent settlements.

To Pope Leo IV. the Amalfitans proved servicable allies in his wars against the infidels; and that pontiff anticipated the honours of our Henry VIII. in an equally worthy cause, by conferring on the republic the title of Defender of the Faith. The eastern emperor established a maritime court at Amalfi, to which all naval disputes in these seas were referred, and whose decisions were universally respected. The use of the magnet is said to have been discovered by Flavius Gioia, one of its citizens. At Amalfi was first instituted the order of knighthood of St. John of Jerusalem, the members of which were afterwards called knights of Rhodes, and first formed the celebrated body of knights of Malta. In the time of their prosperity, the citizens built at Jerusalem, by leave of the caliph, a chapel and two small hospitals for the use of the pilgrims to the Holy Land from the west of Europe, and took an active part in their accommodation by the way. But, in 1100, Duke Roger of Normandy succeeded in subjugating this republic to his arms; with their independence fell the spirit of enterprize in its citizens; and successive depredators availed themselves of its resources. The pillage of the city by the Pisans, amongst others, was remarkable, from their taking away the celebrated Pandecta, a copy of the Justinian code of laws. Its ruin was completed by its becoming a feudal estate in the Colonna family, from whom it descended through the Sanseverini and Orsini to the Piccolomini, to whom it gives a ducal title.

Amalfi now scarcely retains a relic of its former importance, except the cathedral dedicated to St. Andrew, in the choir of which Cardinal Capuano, in 1208, is said to have deposited the body of that saint, which he brought from Constantinople. It is, however, still an archbishopric and a duchy; and the inhabitants, about 4,000 in number, carry on an active trade in the Levant. E. lon. 15°. 20'. N. lat. 40°. 35'.

AMALGAME, v. } Fr. *Amalgamer*. To mix or
AMALGAM, n. } incorporate, &c. Cotgrave.
AMALGAMATE, } Perhaps from *am*, together;
AMALGAMATION, } and *gama*, to unite, from its application to the apical union.

— And of the ease and wo,

That we had in our matters subliming,

And in amalgamating, and calcining

Of quicksilver, selected mercuric crude!

Chaucer. The Chaucerian Yeman's Tale.

3 A

AMALITL.
—
AMAL-GAME

AMAL-
GAME.
—
AMAND.

I conceive, since all inflammation and excretion are entirely prevented, and the body still turned back upon itself, that either the wood will be converted into a kind of amalgam, or that the fluid part will be turned into air.

Bacon's Nat. and Exper. History.

Under amalgamation, enquire, 1. What metals endure it; 2. What are the means of effecting it; and, 3. What manner of body it makes.

Id.

Therefore, amalgamating mercury with a convenient proportion of pure tin, or, as the tradesmen call, block-tin, that the mixture might not be too thick to be readily poured out into a glass-tube, and to rub into it, we filled with this amalgam a cylindrical pipe, sealed at one end.

Bacon's Nat. and Exper. History.

The metaphysical and antihistorical legislators, have attempted to confound all sorts of cities, as well as they could, into one homogeneous mass; and then they divided this, their amalgam, into a number of incoherent republics.

Bacon's Nat. and Exper. History.

AMALGAM, in Chemistry, a term that has been used to signify any metallic alloy whereof mercury made a part; in modern chemistry it denotes any combination of mercury with another metal; or any metal when dissolved in mercury. See CHEMISTRY, Div. ii. and MERCURY.

AMALTHEA, in the Ancient Mythology, was daughter of Melissus, king of Crete, and fed Jupiter with goat's milk; in reward for which he placed her in the heavens as the constellation of the Goat, and gave one of her horns to the nymphs who had watched over his infant years. Others represent it as the name of a goat thus honoured. This horn was the cornucopia, or horn of plenty, and yielded to the nymphs every thing they desired. OVID. *Fast.* v. 113; STRABO, x.

AMAN, a district about the centre of the island of Sumatra.

AMANA, in Scripture Geography, a mountain mentioned in the Song of Solomon, iv. 8. Some take this mountain to be situated beyond Jordan, in Palestine; but others think it to be the Amanus, which separates Syria from Cilicia.

AMANA, a river of Cumana, in South America, which runs easterly into the Guarapiche, from the interior. On its banks there is a colony that bears this name.

AMANCE, a town of France, upon a river of the same name, in the department of the Meurthe, six miles E. from Nancy, and 74 from Paris. Also a town of Franche Comte, 16 miles N. of Vesoul.

AMAND, ST. a town of French Flanders, on the river Scherpe; the head of a canton in the department of the North, arrondissement of Douay. The abbey church has been much admired, and before the Revolution its ecclesiastical establishments were extensive. It is celebrated for its chalybeate waters, and is about 15 miles N. of Valenciennes, and the same distance N. E. of Douay. Population from 7,000 to 8,000. E. lon. 2°. 35'. N. lat. 50°. 27'.

AMAND, ST. or ST. AMAND MONTEBOND, a town of the Bourbonnois, on the Cher, the chief place of a prefect, and the seat of a tribunal of the first instance. It was built in 1410, and contains 5,080 inhabitants, a cannon foundry and iron works; and carries on an active trade in corn, wine, cattle and wool. It is 24 miles S. of Bourges, and 198 S. of Paris.

AMAND, ST. a small town of Auvergne, nine miles S. of Clermont, and 15 N. of Issoire.

AMAND, ST. of ST. AMAND DE VALTORET, or VILLEMAIGNE, a town of France, on the river Tara, 12 miles E. of Castres; also a small town of Gatinos, 27 miles from Gien.

AMANDEA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Ethiopia, placed by Suidas in the dominions of King Cepheus.

AMAR.
DEA.

AMANGUCHI, a wealthy town of Japan, the capital of the Nangaro kingdom. E. lon. 120°. 34'. N. lat. 34°.

AMAR-
RANTII.

AMANIBO, a town of South America, situated between Paramaribo and Cayenne; also a river of the same name, and in the neighbourhood, which runs through Dutch Guiana, and discharges itself into the Atlantic, near the Iracoubo lake.

AMANTEA, a town of Naples, on the coast of Calabria Citra, on the Oliva. It is a bishop's see, and has a strong castle. Population, 2,700. E. lon. 16°, 17'. N. lat. 39°.

AMAUENSIS, n. From *maurus*, the hand. One whose hand only, and not his head, is used by another in writing.

I have no such authority, so such benefactors, that noble Amantius was to Origen, allowing him six or seven thousand to write out his dictates; I must for that cause, do my business my self.

Bacon's Nat. and Exper. History.

The mirth of the comments grew so very outrageous, that it found out work for our friend of the quorum, who, by the help of his amanuensis, took down all their names and their crimes, with a design to produce his manuscript at the next quarter-sessions, &c. &c. &c.

Spectator, No. 617.

Pray let your amanuensis, whenever he may be, write an account regularly, once a week, either to Greenup or my self, for that is the same thing, of the state of your health.

Chesneyfield. Letter ecclesiastical.

AMANUS, in Ancient Geography, a part of Mount Taurus, in Cilicia. A defile over it, through which Darius entered Cilicia, was named Amanicus Pylæ. Cte. ad *Pom.* i. ep. 10.; ARRIAN, ii.; PLUT. in *Alex.* It is now called Al Luean.

AMANUS, ANANATHIS, ANAISTIS, in Ancient Mythology, certain deities of Armenia and Cappadocia, supposed to be names of the sun, as an object of worship. STRABO, xi.

AMAPALLA, a sea-port town of South America, in the kingdom of Nicaragua, and province of Guatemala, about 200 miles S. E. of the town of that name. It is also the name of an extensive bay or gulph (sometimes called the gulph of Fonseca) between the provinces of Guatemala and Nicaragua, which contains two small islands. The town lies in W. lon. 87°, 50'. N. lat. 13°, 10'.

AMARANTE, a town of Portugal, on the river Amego, or Tamega, in the province Entre Minho e Douro. It contains nearly 4,000 inhabitants, and stands in a beautiful country, 30 miles N. N. E. of Oporto. W. lon. 7°, 41'. N. lat. 41°, 19'.

AMARANTH, n. } A, not, and *marantus*, mar-
AMARANTHINE, } *escer*, to wither. Its nature, says Pliny, is expressed by its name, quoniam non marcescat. N. Hist. l. xxi. c. 8.

Lozely reverent

Towards either throne they bow, and to the ground
With solemn adoration dance they round
Their crowns inwove with amaranth and gold;
Immortal amaranth, a flower which once
In Paradise, lost by the tree of life,
Begins to bloom.

Milton's Par. Lost. book iii.

Some roots are yellow, as carrots; and some plants blood-red, stall and leaf, as the amaranthus.

Bacon's Nat. and Exper. History.

AMARANTH.

AMASTA.

The angelic host
Fill'd all the regions: from their blissful bowers
Of amaranth shade; fountain or spring,
By the waters of life, where'er they sat
In fellowship of joy, the sons of light
Hasted. Milton's *Par. Lost*. book xi.

The only amaranthine flower on earth
Is virtue; th' only lasting treasure, truth.

Cooper's *Task*, book iii.

AMARANTH, a Swedish order of knighthood, established by Queen Christina, in 1653, on the celebration of an annual feast in that country, called *Wirtschaft*, which was henceforth to be called the feast of the gods. The young nobility, on that occasion, waited on the assumed deities, the queen herself bearing the title of *Amarante*, or the *unfading*. The order was a military one, and their device a cypher, composed of two interwoven A's, one erect, and the other inverted, enclosed by a laurel crown, surmounted with the motto, "Dolce nella memoria." The jewel of the order was worn sometimes on a gold chain, and sometimes on a crimson or blue ribbon. The ambassador of the English Commonwealth was made one of the first knights.

AMARANTH, a colour deriving its name from that of the flower so called, which is somewhat between a crimson and a purple.

AMARANTHUS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Monoclea, and order Pentandria.

AMARGURA, or GARDENER'S ISLAND, an island in the Southern Pacific, first discovered by Morello, a Spanish navigator, in 1781; and named *Amargura*, or Bitterness, on account of its barren and inaccessible appearance. A landing-place, however, being discovered on the N. W. by Captain Edwards, in the *Pandora*, in 1791, he called it *Gardener's island*. He observed smoke to issue from one of its mountains; and the whole island has a volcanic appearance. W. lon. 175°, 17'. S. lat. 17°, 57'.

AMARIN D'AMARIN, or ENMERIN, St. a town of Upper Abass, in France, on the river Thur, containing 1,400 inhabitants. It is in the department of the Upper Rhine, arrondissement of Befort, and the head of a canton. The valley of the same name is rich in iron; and the Moselle takes its rise not far from the town.

AMARITUDE, n. Lat. *amaritudo*, *amarus*, bitter. Bitterness.

What *amaritudo* or *serenity* is deprehen'd in choir, it acquires from a constitution of melancholy, or external malign bodies.

Horace, on *Consuetudine*.

AMARUCO, a small river of South America, which falls into the mouth of the Orinoco, after running eastward through a great part of Guiana.

AMARUMAJU, a river of Guiana, in Peru, which takes its source in the Cordelier mountains, and runs 400 leagues through the country before it joins the Amazon river, in about 8°. S. lat. It assumes many local names in its course.

AMARYLLIS, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

AMARYNTIUS, in Ancient Geography, a village of Euboea, in which festivals in honour of Diana were solemnized; whence that goddess is sometimes called *Amarnys*, and Euboea itself *Amarynthus*.

AMASIA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Pontus, the birth-place of Mithridates the Great, and the

geographer Strabo, STRAB. xii.; PLINY, vi. 3. Also an ancient name for the Ems, a river of Germany. TACIT. *Ann.* l. 60, 63. PLIN. iv. 14.

AMASIA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the province of Natolia, giving name to a small, fertile district, and supposed to stand on the site of the ancient *Amasia*. It is accessible only by two narrow defiles, one on the north and the other on the south; and is commanded by a strong fort. It was formerly the seat of the kings of Cappadocia, and in more modern times it became the see of an archbishop; but is at present, though populous and extensive, a mean-looking town. The inhabitants are said to amount to 60,000 or 70,000 persons, and are noted for their urbanity to strangers: they are chiefly of the Greek church; but there is a very fine mosque here, built of hewn stone, and adorned with lofty minarets. Here are also numerous and well-constructed baths and reservoirs for water, with which the city is well supplied, and a superior wine is made in the neighbourhood. The river *Kizilirmak* runs through the town. E. lon. 38°, 12'. N. lat. 40°, 40'.

AMASONIA, or AMAZONS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Didynamia, and order Angiosperma.

AMASS', v. } Fr. *amasser*. Lat. *massa*: from
AMASS', n. } the Greek *μαζω*, to knead into a
AMASSMENT } lump.
To form into one body, heap, or collection. To heap, collect, or accumulate.

For measure spent in lyel, the bodye doth restenye;
The beire shall waste the boorded gold, amass'd with muche payne.
Barnes.

The last is the compounded one: His name being a brief of his nature. For this pillar is nothing in effect, but a medley, or an amass of all the precedent ornaments. Reliquie *Wottoniana*.

Various are the means whereby the subtle diad add's prodigious sums to his vast revenues, such as, for example, the obliging every one of the bashaws and governors of his dominions, every new year's day to send him presents, commonly in ready money, which does amount to a very large and almost incredible amount.

Porter's *Pr. State of the Turkish Empire*.

He who perceives not the treasure that is, quickly amass'd, and consumes it at his pleasure, most certainly would reduce it nothing, if he were as rich as Ptoleus. Sir William Jones's *Hippodamia*.

Have you been more anxious to instruct them in the means of securing an inheritance there, than in the arts of amassing wealth, and acquiring distinction here.

Porter's *Letter to the Inhabitants of Manchester*.

AMASTRATUS, in Ancient Geography, a town in the north-west of Sicily, on the river *Alaus*, which falls into the Tyrrhene sea. Cic. *Ferr.* iii. 39.

AMASTRIS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Paphlagonia, on the Euxine, formerly called *Scamnum*, and at present *Amastreh*. PLINY, ii. 2.; OYRI, &c.

AMATE' Skinner thinks from the German *mat*, wearied, weak; and *mat*, Wachter says, is perhaps from *missen*, to want, to be deprived of. But the A.S. *Qæran*, *sonniare*, to mete, to dream, presents a more satisfactory etymology.

To *amote*, is to dream, to be a dreamer; to be or make stupid, as a dreamer; senseless, as a mad-man. (A.S. *Mut*.)

But thought and sickness were occasion
That he then lay in insensibility
Grossed on the ground, in place desolate
Sole by himself, unshaped and amate.
Chaucer. *Complaint of the Black Knight*, l. 271, v. c.

AMASIA.

AMATE.

AMATE
AMATTO
FOA.

Then wretched man, of death last greatest need,
(If true ballance thou wilt weigh thy state;
For never knight, that dared warlike deed,
Shew luckless adventures did amate.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. canto ix.

His [King John's] audacity coming, with unexpected attendance, to the siege of Rochester castle, so amazed both the captain thereof, and all the barons (who had sworn to assist him against any siege), that the use not daring to approach to his rescue, the other was enabled to yield up his charge.
Speed's Hist. of Gr. Britain.

AMATEUR, in the Fine Arts, a French term, more frequently applied in this country to signify a person much attached to any particular art, but who does not practise it; thus we say, an amateur in painting, in music, in sculpture, &c. The French phrase expresses it well—"Il ne sait pas peindre, mais il est amateur."

AMATHANTE, at present an unimportant village of Cyprus, a little distant from the south shore of that island; but interesting to the antiquarian, as occupying part of the site of the ancient city of Amathus. The ruins of the walls are close to the sea, and mutilated columns, broken arches, and decayed catacombs are stretched along the shore: these serve as the retreat of myriads of bats, who are said successfully to defend and obscure the ruins from the inspection of the traveller by flitting against the torches of such as intrude upon them. On the apex of a hill, two large and highly sculptured vases are to be seen, cut out of the solid rock: on each of their sides are the figures of four bulls, finely executed, looking to the four cardinal points of the compass. What allusion this may bear to the fable of Venus having changed the inhabitants of the island into bulls, on account of some irregularities in her worship, it is difficult to determine: that she had a celebrated temple here is well known. Ovid says that courtesans first made their appearance in public at this place. The present village is about three miles from Limasol, and the river Amathante runs near it: also a town of the Peloponnese, in Laconia, according to Strabo; and a river of the Peloponnese.

AMATHUS, in Scripture Geography, a town of the Gadites, beyond Jordan, where some have conjectured that Gubinius, the procurator of Syria, fixed one of the five seats of justice. Roland conjectures it to have been the same with Ramoth-gilead.

AMATHUSIA, in Ancient Geography, an epithet sometimes applied to the island of Cyprus, in allusion to the town of Amathus.

AMATQUES, a sea-port of South America, at the mouth of the Guzman river, which empties itself into the Amatique gulf, or gulf of Honduras, in the province of Vera Paz, Mexico. The chief trade of the place is in logwood; and on the south side of the gulf is a tract of land called Amatique land. W. lon. 89°. N. lat. 15°. 23'.

AMATO, a river of Calabria Ultra, in the kingdom of Naples, which rises in the Appennines, and discharges itself into the gulf of St. Euphemia, on the west coast of Calabria.

AMATO, a small town of Naples, upon the above-named river, seven miles S.E. of Nicastro.

AMATORII MUSCULI, in Anatomy, those muscles of the eye, which, by bringing the abductor and humilis to act together, draw that organ in an oblique direction, and give it the appearance of what is vulgarly called cying.

AMATTO FOA, or TOOTOA ANA, or KAMA ISLAND,

an island discovered by Captain Cook, in 1774, in the South Pacific ocean, about 12 leagues N. N.W. from Amamooka. It is fifteen miles in circumference, and contains a volcano.

AMATORIAL, *adj.* } Lat. amo, amator: to
AMATORIOUS, } love, a lover.
AMATORIAN, } Of, or concerning love.
AMATORY.

A prayer stolen word for word from the mouth of an homely woman, praying to a heathen god; and that in no serious book, but in the vain amatory poem of Sir Philip Sydney's *Arcadia*.
Milton's Answer to Milton's Basilide.

Leland mentions eight books of his [Henry Earl of Huntingdon] epigrams, amatorial verses, and poems on philosophical subjects.
Warton's Hist. of Eng. Poetry.

His friend Mr. Phillips's Ode to Mr. St. John (late Lord Bellingham), after the manner of Horace's *Lanuvii*, or *Amatorum Odes*, is certainly a master-piece; but Mr. Smith's *Pompeii* is of the sublimer kind; though, like Waller's writings upon Oliver Cromwell, it wants not the most delicate and surprising turns peculiar to the person praised.
Johnson's Life of Smith.

AMAUROSIS, in Surgery, a disease of the eye, commonly called gutta serena, wherein there is a partial, or (when the morbid affection is complete) a total loss of sight, although the organ itself to all external appearance remains complete and unaffected. It is generally seated in the optic nerve.

AMAXIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of the Troas; and a town of Cilicia, abounding with wood for ship-building.

AMAZE, *v.* } From *maze*, a labyrinth; and
AMAZE, *n.* } this from the Dutch, *missen*; er-
AMAZEDLY, } rare, to miss, to err, to wander.
AMAZED, } Skinner.

AMAZEDNESS, } To *maze*, or *maze*, is of frequent
AMAZEMENT, } occurrence in our old English
AMAZING, } writers.

AMAZINOLY, } To put out of the right way; to
confuse, to perplex, to astonish, to confound; to stupify.

I am right sicer, that the pot was erased.

Be as he may, be ye no thing amazed.

As usage is, let us wipe the dore as wither.

Flucke up your heries and be glad and blithe.

Chaucer. *The Chaunces Yemanys Tale.*

For as a man that suddenly

A goat beholdeth, so fast I:

So that for feare I can nought gette

My wit: but I myself forgette,

That I wrote newe, what I am;

Ne whether I shall, ne when I eam:

But muse, as be that were amazed.

Greene. *Coe. A. book ix.*

Hence O Israel, ye are come into battell, against your enemies
yet not your hartes layne, neither have, nor be amazed nor adread
of them. *Bible*, 1839. *Deuteronomy*, ch. xx.

For, so within that temple while on every thing he gazed,
And waited when the quene should come, and stood as one amazed
To see the work.

He seeth among them, all the jests of Troy, and stories all.

Arncliffe, by *Thos. Phear*, book i.

— He would drowne the stage with tears,

And chide the general care with horrid speech:

Make mad the guilty, and amaze the free;

Confound the ignorant, and amaze indeed,

The very faculty of eyes and eares.

Shakespeare's Hamlet.

It is confessed, immediately after the Reformation, Protestant religion stood awhile in amaze, and was but barren in good works.
Fauler's General Worthies.

— But why

Stands Macbeth thus amazedly?

Come down, come down, up his eyesight,

And show the host of our deliquit.

Shakespeare's Macbeth, act iv.

AMATTO
FOA.
AMAZE.

AMAZE.

—

AMAZON.

— Upon a maiden,
As Falstaff, she, and I, are acolytes,
Let them from forth a saw-pit rush at once
With some diffused song: Upon their sight
We two, in great amazement will fly:
Then let them all exult him about,
And fairly-like to pluck the valiant knight.

Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor.

See if thou canst, without wonder and a kind of ecstatic amazement, behold the infinite goodness of thy God, that hath exalted thy wretchedness to no less than a blessed and indivisible union with the Lord of Glory.

St. Basil's Treatise of Christian Mysticism.

It seems one to consider what progress, in the most difficult arts may be made, when our faculties of mind and body are properly directed in the beginning of life.

Breake's Elements of Moral Science.

Do not the French refinement, and the English amonishment and amonishment, point out an clearly the kindred emotions which attend fear and wonder? *Burke, on the Sublime and Beautiful.*

Spain has long fallen from smiling Europe with her wit, to amuse them with the greatness of her catholic credulity.

Goldsmith, on Poetic Learning.

The Arabians cultivated the study of philosophy, particularly astronomy, with amazing ardour.

T. Warton's Hist. of the English Poetry, Dis. I.

AM'AZON, a.

AMAZONIAN.

A, without, *μαζον*, the breast.

Like as of Truce the wenchish Amazon
Dyrnays the fluids Thymus for the sonis,
As in there paintis arseous do they fecht,
Outhr about Hippolyta the wight,
Or by the wenchish made Penthesile,
Roland her cur of were to the melis:
The women routis helidly to sangy,
Wyth fresson brate, grete crenely, and dery,
Wyth haldis sayns on the fields sone,
Wyth crukis scheldis schapin lyke the none.

Douglas, book ii.

So march'd the Thracian Amazons of old,
When Thermodon with bloody billows rosd:
Such troops as these in shining arms were seen;
When Theseus met in fight their maiden queen.
Such to the field Penthesilea led,
From the fierce virgin when the Grecians fled:
With such, return'd utrophus from the war;
Her maids with cries attend the lofty car:
They clash with manly force their mossy shields;
With female shouts resound the Phrygian fields.

Dryden.

So sound their queen, Hippolyte the fair,
Or bold Penthesile's resurgent car,
Move the triumphant Amazon train,
In bright array, exulting to the plain.
Proudly they march, and clash their painted arms,
And all Thermodon rings with proud alarms;
With female shouts they shake the sounding field;
And force they pierce the spear, and grasp the mossy shield.

Wat.

AMAZON. The Amazons, in Ancient History, were a celebrated tribe of warlike women, who are said to have first established themselves in Asia Minor, near the river Thermodon, in Cappadocia, and afterwards to have extended their settlements along the Euxine, as far as the Caspian sea. Diodorus Siculus mentions a still more ancient tribe, of Lybia, in Africa, who flourished before the Trojan war, and whose actions, he says, were sometimes transferred to those of Asia. The Amazons formed a nation, according to some historians, who originally murdered their husbands, and in which the male sex had no permanent settlement, being only admitted occasionally for the purpose of continuing the race. Some writers state that they were in the habit of visiting neighbouring countries on this errand; and Plutarch alleges that they lived two months annually with an adjacent nation,

and afterwards retired to their own habitations for AMAZON.

the rest of the year. Authors vary in their statements respecting their treatment of the children thus obtained; but all agree that the female infants only were reared by them for the service of the state. Diodorus Siculus says, that they crippled and distorted the limbs of their male offspring by luxations of the joints and other methods; Justin that they strangled them soon after their birth; while Quintus Curtius and Philostratus affirm that they sent them to their fathers. The Amazonian females were carefully educated, and were trained up for war by the labours of the field, and by the sedulous practice of the manly exercises. Their right breasts were cut or burnt off in order to enable them to command their bow with more expertness, and wield their battle-axe with vigour; and from this circumstance they are said to have derived their name. The arms of this people were the javelin, the bow, the battle-axe, and the shield; the form of the latter resembling that of a half-moon. Virgil thus describes an Amazonian queen:

*Ducit Amazonidem iuncta agmina pelis,
Penthesilea farra, mediisque in silibus orlet,
Aurea subnectens exacte cingula mamma.*

Æneid, l. 490.

He again speaks of this extraordinary people, *Æneid, xi. 559.* See the foregoing extracts.

The chief seat of the Amazons was undoubtedly in Cappadocia, but they also considerably extended their empire. The first account that we have of their exploits is in the attack which Hercules made upon them; and in which, after a gallant resistance, they were overcome by the hero whom the gods had made invincible. In order to revenge this insult, the Amazons are stated to have invaded Greece, and, after many inferior adventures, to have fallen furiously upon the Athenian army under the very gates of Athens. According to Plutarch, Theseus was at this time king; and notwithstanding all his efforts to cover the city, the Athenians would have been entirely routed, but for the arrival of unexpected succours. This expedition proved so calamitous to the Amazons, that we are told by an Athenian orator that their very name became extinct: *Τῶν αἰώνων παρὰ τὰς τῶν εὐρυπύλων ἀνερρώπων τριτάτων.* Lysias. Homer, in his *Iliad*, however, twice introduces this people:

Ὅς δὲ τὰς Ἀμαζόνων στρατῶν.

Il. b. iii. 169.

And again in the sixth book,

Καταρῆσθαι Ἀμαζόνων στρατῶν.

Il. vi. 184.

We hear nothing more of the Amazons, with the exception of Virgil's allusion to the exploits of Penthesilea in defence of Troy, until the time of Alexander the Great. Quintus Curtius, the historian of this prince, gives us a detailed account of an interview between Alexander and an Amazonian princess, named Thalestris, which was avowedly for the object of obtaining children by him. She appeared at the head of three hundred of her warriors, and having sent forward messengers to announce her approach, leaped from her horse into the presence of the king, with two javelins in her right hand. Their costume, according to Curtius, reached only to the left breast, and just below the knee, covering the defect of the right side. Thalestris made no secret of her errand; she urged her claims to the honour of giving an heir to the Macedonian throne, and promised to leave any male child of her union with the king to his own disposal, though she is said to have

AMAZON.

exhibited some tokens of disappointment at his diminutive appearance. She was coolly received by Alexander for thirteen days, though he ultimately complied with her request. The historian adduces this conduct of that monarch as a proof of his continuance and insensibility to female charms.

The last time we meet in history with these warriors is in Plutarch's life of Pompey, where he says it was stated that the Amazons came to the support of the Albanians against the Romans, and that they fought desperately in an engagement between the two nations. The biographer, however, gives no proof of the truth of this assertion, and confesses that the Romans only supposed the Amazons to be present at the fight, from the circumstance of some buskins and painted shields being discovered upon the field of battle. What, however, is decisive against the validity of this statement, is the circumstance of not one female prisoner being made by the Romans, and that not the body of a single woman was found amongst the killed or wounded.

The chief supporters amongst the ancient writers of the existence of the Amazons, are Herodotus, Diodorus Siculus, Justin, and Quintus Curtius. Plutarch, in his life of Theseus, is under the necessity of giving up most of their marvellous achievements, of which he says, *τις αὐτῶν τοῦ μύθου καὶ πλάσματος*. "They clearly resemble fable and fiction." But the geographer Strabo has most strenuously opposed the opinion of their existence, which he adduces as a proof of the absurd credulity of mankind. He was himself a native of Cappadocia, the alleged seat of their empire, and must have been acquainted with any vestiges of their history, or any traces of popular tradition respecting them, had they remained there. His principal argument against the authenticity of their history, is, that many stories have some mixture of truth, and most accounts admit of some variation; but that the history of the Amazons had been uniformly the same, a monstrous and absurd detail, as much without variety as probability. "For who," says he, "can be persuaded, that a community of women, either as an army, a city, or a state, could subsist without men? And not only subsist, but make expeditions into other countries, and gain a sovereignty over other kingdoms; not merely over the Ionians, and those who were in their neighbourhood, but also to cross the seas, and carry their arms into Europe? To believe all this, we must suppose that nature varied from her fixed principles, and that in those days women were men, and men women."

Amongst the moderns, the existence of the Amazons has found advocates in the celebrated names of Petrus and Dr. Johnson; the former of whom published a learned dissertation on this subject at Paris, 1665. This treatise was attacked by our learned countryman Bryant, in his *Mythology*, vol. i. 52.; vol. v. 110.; and to this work we refer our readers for further information upon their fabulous attributes. The historian of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" asserts his scepticism upon this point with more than usual success.

Some successful efforts have been made to account for the alleged existence of these heroines etymologically. It has been remarked that Herodotus, in his *Melpomene*, informs us that the Amazons were called by the Scythians, *Oiorpata*; and then goes on to say that this expression is compounded of two words—

oior, a man; and *pata*, to kill; and consequently the term *Oiorpata* is equivalent to *εὐρυπτερος*, a man-slayer. Thus, therefore, may probably be the origin of the fiction of the Amazons murdering their husbands and male children; and be itself originally derived from the abominable custom of sacrificing strangers to their gods; which it is well known to our classical readers obtained amongst the people of Tauris, in the Thracian Chersonesus. Another etymological mistake may account (according to Bryant) for the notion of their being women, and of cutting off their breasts. The Greeks, who never stepped beyond the circle of their own language, imagined that the word *Amazon* was compounded of a privative, and *μαζα*, a breast; and their enthusiastic and fertile genius found in this derivation of the word a fund of materials to work upon, and gradually painted the Amazons as women without bosoms, as murderers of their husbands, and delighting in war and carnage. Nor is it improbable that the metaphorical use of the word *breast*, and being without breasts, as expressive of a want of natural affection, may have contributed to the assigning of this strange distinction, literally, to some barbarous and cruel tribes. However this may be, those who are acquainted with the structure of Grecian fables, and the general nature of the fictions of the ancient mythology, must be well aware that many of them were founded upon circumstances not at all more substantial.

AMAZONIA, an extensive district of South America, so named by the celebrated Francisco Orellana; who, about the year 1541, discovered this country. He was, by accident, involved amidst the streams of the Amazon, or Marañon river; and, in a bark manned only with fifty soldiers, he pursued its course, and landed occasionally, to procure provisions, sometimes on one bank and sometimes on the other. Amongst the other fictions in which these early navigators thought themselves licensed to indulge, Orellana declared that on one of its banks he had found a republic of warlike women, resembling the Amazons of old; and hence arose its name of Amazonia. So many difficulties have attended the various attempts at colonization here, that the country is still little known, and its boundaries not precisely ascertained. It appears, however, from 1,300 to 1,400 miles in length, by about 900 miles broad: bounded on the south by La Plata, on the west by Peru, on the north by the province of Terra Firma, and on the east by Brazil. There are some colonies of Spaniards in this country, which is found to be very fertile in corn, and other vegetable productions, and tropical fruits: it is rich also in large timber, and in dying woods; in cocoa, tobacco, sugar-canes, cotton, yams, potatoes, raisins, and some rich balsamic gums. The country is overflowed by the river during one half the year, which renders the air nearly as cool as in any part of the temperate zone. The natives are brave, but savage and idolatrous, worshipping the images of their ancient heroes.

AMAZONS, a river of South America, one of the largest in the world, at first called Marañon. It rises in Peru in the lake Lauricocha, near Guanuco city, about thirty leagues from Lima; and after flowing through 1,000 or 1,100 leagues of country, at first nearly from south to north, and afterwards from west to east, it empties itself into the Atlantic, nearly under the equator, by a channel of one hundred and fifty

AMAZON.

AMAZON. miles in breadth. It intersects the widest part of South America; it is joined in its course by about two hundred other rivers, many of which are not inferior in size to the largest of the old continent; and at the distance of 1,500 miles from its mouth, it is forty or fifty fathoms in depth. The name of Maragnon was first given to it by the navigator Orellana; and afterwards that of Amazona, on account of the country, Amazonia, through which it flows. The turtle and tortoise are found on its banks; and the crocodile, alligator, and water-serpents, are in great numbers in its course.

AMAZONIUM, a place in Attica, near Athens, where Theseus is said to have completely defeated the Amazons.

AMBAGES, *n.* Ambages (says Vossius); *ambé*, from *ambi*, around, and *ago*, to drive. See AMBIGUITY.

Ambiguities of speech, subterfuges, evasions.

And but if Calves lede as with ambages,
That is to saie, with double words she
Such as men clepe a word with two vinges
Ye shal wel knowen that I nat se lie.

Chaucer. Trilogus and Cressida, book v. f. 109. c. 3.

Evident will those secret mysteries be unto him, which are
privily hidde unto other under dark ambages and parables.

Bate. Image. Pref. b. ii.

I may now freely proceed to treat of my intended subject, to most men's capacity; and, after many ambages, perspicuously define what this melancholy is, shew his name, and differences.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

AMBARIVOULES, a people who inhabit the interior of Madagascar, and are considered as rude and savage by the occupiers of the coast; they are chiefly employed in agricultural pursuits, and bring provisions to the shore.

AMBARVALIA (*ambiculus ortis*, Lat.), in Ancient Customs, annual processions round the ploughed fields in honour of Ceres, the goddess of agriculture, and performed by the Romans in April and July. A sow, a sheep, and a bull, were considered as the sacrifices of the Ambarvalia, hence it has been sometimes called *Suovetaurilia*, from the words *sus*, *ovis*, and *taurus*. The inhabitants of the district generally went thrice round the field, crowned with oak leaves, invoking the care, as they celebrated the praises of the goddess.

VIRG. Georg. i. 339, 345.; MACROB. iii. 6.

AMBASSY, *n.*

AMBASSADE,

AMBASADOUR,

AMBASADRES,

AMBASSAGE,

AMBASATRIE,

AMBASAT.

ambascia; and thence *ambasciator*; by which word, says Wachter, *apud Latino-barbaros*, any messenger of king, monastery, or state, is designated.

I say, be tellie and ambascetrie,
And by the popes mediation,
And all the church, and all the chevalrie,
That in destruction of Manerrie,
And in exerce of Crises lawe dere,
They ben accorded so as ye may here.

Chaucer, vol. l. p. 186.

There, (housely recede,
And) welcome by the king,
He shewde the cause, which thither then
Did his ambascide bring.

Gower.

Wherefore the king of England [Edouard the Third] sent his

ambascide to the kinge of Scottes, desyryng him to make deliuerance
of the towne of Barwicke, for it perseyed to his heritage.

Greflon, vol. l. p. 335.

AM.

BASSY.

With Grekes, what fortune ever befall
And finally among his lords all
There was not one of high or low estate
That would goe on this ambascit
Out of the towne, so far bet we were.

The Story of Thelch, by John Lydgate, part iii. f. 509. c. 2.

Go ye therefore as trustie ambascadours, and slycke up to me
your honour; teache fyrst the Jewes, that the next synagogaes vnto
them, afterwards all the nation of the whole world.

Udal. Math. cap. xxviii.

We therefore in Christes behalfe executing the ambascade com-
mitted by him unto vs, euen as God exhorted you by vs, beseeche
you in Christes name, to loose your olde vires, and to be reconcyled
to God.

Id. S. Pauli to the Corinthus, c. v.

The earl of Leicester is to go to the king of Denmark, and other
princes of Germany; the said of the ambascie is to conclude the late
death of the lady Sophie, queen dowager of Denmark, our king's
grandmother.

Henric's Letters.

WARW. When you disgraced me in my ambascide,

Then I degraded from being king,

And came now to create you duke of York.

Shakespeare's K. Hen. VI. 3d pt.

SCRE. A noble troupe of strangers,

For so they seem; y^e have left their baggage and landed,

And hither make, as great ambascadors

From foreigne princes.

Id. K. Hen. VIII. act i. sc. 4.

But he that serves the Lord of Hosts Most High,

And that in highest place I approach him nigh,

And all the peoples prayers to present

Before his throne, as our ambascador sent

Both to and fro, should ne deserve to weene

A garment better, than of wooll or heave.

Spenser's Mather Hubbard's Tale.

To make the Babylonians put a greater value upon his alliance,
seems to be the reason, that Heraklith showed those ambascadors from
him, all the riches of his house, his treasure, his armoury, and
all his stores and strength for war.

Frederick's Conquests.

LOVE. Well, my ambascadors, what must we treat of?

Come you to menace war and brave defiance?

Or does the peaceful olive grace your message?

Henric's Fair Present, act I.

The commerce of the Turkey company first occasioned the estab-
lishment of an ordinary ambascador at Constantinople. The first
English ambascador to Russia arose altogether from commercial in-
terests.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

The Roman name was revived among the most remote nations of
the earth, and we are informed by a contemporary historian, that he
had seen ambascadors who were refused the honour which they
came to solicit, of being admitted into the rank of subjects.

Goldens's Roman Empire.

AMBASSADOR, or ENBASSOR, the personal repre-
sentative of one sovereign power to another, to which
he is sent properly accredited. Ambassadors ordinary,
are those stationed at a foreign court to preserve a
good understanding between the court of the sovereign
sending them and that by which they are received.

The signing and countersigning of passports, the general
protection of the trade of their own countrymen, and
the transmission of all intelligence that can interest
their respective courts, are the chief duties of their
important trust. Ambassadors extraordinary are those
deputed on some occasion of particular importance,
and are generally surrounded with superior pomp and
splendour. The privileges of ambassadors are high
and various. By the public law of Europe, and of most
civilized nations, not only the person of the ambas-
sador himself is inviolate, but his whole train are ordi-
narily exempt from the municipal law of the country
where he resides. Nature and reason have been suffered,

AM.
PASSY.

to mitigate the bitterness of rising hostility, and even of actual warfare, in their ease; on the breaking out of a war, the ambassador is permitted quietly, and with all his attendants and property, to retire home. Notice may be given that an ambassador will not be received; and if this caution be neglected, they may be taken for enemies; but if once admitted, even by enemies in arms, they are entitled to the protection of the law of nations; and the ordinary respect paid to a flag of truce proceeds upon this principle. The Turks have sometimes thrown ambassadors into the castle of the Seven Towers, at Constantinople, on the commencement of hostilities, and even mutilated their persons; but the Porte latterly has seemed inclined to follow the more humane usages of other courts. By statute 7 Anne, cap. 12, an ambassador and suite in this country protected from the consequences of arrest by the king's writs for debt; if they are arrested the process shall be void, and the persons suing out and executing the writ shall suffer such penalties and corporal punishment as the lord chancellor, or either of the chief justices, shall think proper to inflict. This act originated in the following singular circumstance: The count de Maturco, ambassador of Peter the First of Russia to the court of Queen Anne, was publicly arrested by a laceman of London, and maltreated by the bailiffs, who dragged him from his coach to prison, where he continued until bailed by the earl of Feversham; and neither the count nor the czar were readily to be appeased. Most of the foreign ambassadors in London joined in a protest against the insult, and Maturco retired to Holland. Anne and her ministers are said to have been much perplexed respecting the proper course to be pursued; the parties concerned in the arrest were apprehended; but the secretary of state reluctantly acknowledged that the law of England provided no equal punishment for them; for Peter demanded, without hesitation, that the sheriff and all concerned should suffer death. Nor was it until an extraordinary embassy was sent, with the new act now carried through parliament, and the offer to pay all the expenses of the court, that this awkward affair was amicably settled. To this day there are shown in Westminster-abbey the unhurt coffins of two foreign ambassadors, whose bodies were arrested after death.

There has been some dispute respecting what violations of the criminal code of a country ought to be punished in an ambassador. The modern usage is to consider him amenable to his own sovereign only, in all cases, excepting that of treason against the state where he resides, which is held to be in itself a violation of the law of nations. Instances, however, have occurred, in former times, of the conviction of persons closely attached to an embassy in this country; as in 1664, when the brother of the Portuguese ambassador, who is said to have been jointly accredited with him to the English court, was tried, condemned, and beheaded for murder; the only difference made between his punishment and that of some of his servants, who were also implicated, being that they were executed the common way. But when the duke de Sully resided at this court as ambassador of Henry IV. of France, and being informed that one of his gentlemen had murdered a man at a bagnio, sent a message to the magistrates of the city, that they might take the offender and proceed with him according to law, though he was

tried and condemned, the British monarch thought proper to grant him a pardon and his liberty.

The ceremonies, on the reception of ambassadors, vary according to the customs of different courts. At some, an ambassador is expected not to quit his house until he has been received with all due pomp at the court to which he is sent. In China the ceremony of prostration is required, on the admission of an ambassador to the presence of the emperor; and in the recent British embassy a ninefold humiliation of this kind was exacted. This has been hitherto refused by British ambassadors, sometimes at the expense of the total failure of the object concerning which they had been sent. So important is the ceremony of a due reception, that, according to the general usage of European states, no ambassador is entitled to any privilege of his office, nor can he publicly assume any of its functions, until he have been thus properly acknowledged and accredited.

AMBATO, ASSIENTO DE, an extensive town of South America, the capital of a district of the same name. It is 18 leagues from Quito, and four from Tarunga. An eruption of the Cotopaxi volcano entirely destroyed the town in the year 1698; this calamity was accelerated by a deluge of mud and lava from the neighbouring desert of Carguarium, generally called the Snowy mountain. The town, however, has long revived from this awful visit; and there are at present a parish church, two chapels of ease, and a convent of Franciscans here. E. lon. 76°, 25'. N. lat. 1°, 14'.

AMBAZAC, a small town of France, in the department of Upper Vienne, arrondissement of Limoges, from which place it stands about four leagues N. N. E.

AMBE, or AMMI, in Surgery, an instrument formerly used for setting a dislocated shoulder. Although there have been many improvements in this instrument since its first invention, other means much readier and more effectual are now used to accomplish the object in view. See SURGERY, Div. ii.

AMBEER, a town of India in the district of Jypore, or Jyenaghur, of which place it was the ancient capital, when its Rajahs were of great weight and importance in the court of the Great Mogul. E. lon. 76°, 53'. N. lat. 26°, 48'.

AMBELACHIA, AMBELARIA, or AMPHILOCHIA, a Grecian village in the ancient Thessaly, situated on the declivity of mount Ossa, between Larissa and the Ægean sea, and on the right bank of the river Peneus. It is of some importance for its dye-houses, as well as for the character of its inhabitants. The dye-houses are about twenty-four in number, and they export annually about 2,500 bales of red Turkish yarn to Germany. The inhabitants are wholly Greek, and admitting no Turks into their society, have hitherto resisted all attempts to involve them in that direful slavery to which the rest of their nation are exposed.

AMBER, ν } Skinner and Wachter decide for
AMBER, n . } a German, in preference to an
AMBER, adj . } Arabic, origin. Amberea, anber-
nen, sive anberren, to burn, to kindle. Embers, when applied to ashes; in Dutch, amer, amber; Saxon, ember; English, ember (q. s. ustum), is derived by Wachter from the same source.

The king of that yle is full of riches and full of myght, & righte devout after his lawe; and he bathe abouten his necke 300 perles oryent, gode and grete, and liohted, as patet southen here of amber.

Sir John Mandeville, p. 337.

AMBER.

AMBER.
—
AMBER-
GRIS.

Yet never eye to Cupid's service vow'd
Belied a face of such a lovely pride,
A thimble while her amber lock'd did shroud,
That strove to cover what it could not hide.

Frederick's Tumb, book ii.

Thy belt of straw and ivy buds,
Thy coral clasps and amber studs;
All these in me no dreams can see
To come to thee and be my love.

Sir Walter Raleigh, in Ellis, v. li. p. 227.

Scout every place; where have you plac'd the monarch?
See. Here they stand ready, Sir.

Sir. The wine be lusty, high, and full of spelt,
And amber'd all.

Rosin, and Fleitch, Cant. of the Country, act iii.

His lofty brows in folds of glory drest;
And in their smoothness unity and life.
About them hangs a knot of amber hair,
Wrapped in curls, as Greece Achilles' was.

Milnes's Tumbardine the Great, 1st pt.

Fresh roses bring
To strew my bed; till the imperious'd spring
Confess her want; around my amorous head
His drooping myrtle and liquid amber shed,
Till Amb has no more.

Prior's Solomon, book ii.

Say, will no white-maid's son of light,
Swift-darting from his beav'nly height,
Here down to take his hallow'd stand;
Here wave his amber locks; unfold
His plumes cloth'd with downy gold;
Here shining stretch his tutelary wand?

Mason's Elfrida.

AMBER, in Natural History, a sort of resinous, yellow-coloured, inflammable substance, of which there are two kinds, the white and the yellow; these are distinguished by their difference of surface, the manner of their fracture, and their different degrees of lustre and transparency. Various conjectures are made with regard to the nature and origin of this substance, some holding it to be of a vegetable, and others of a mineral nature. For the various theories respecting it and its numerous properties, see MINERALOGY, Div. ii.

AMBER-TREE, in Botany. See ANTROSPERUM and ORYCTOGONIA.

AMBERG, a city of Germany, the capital of the Upper Palatinate of Bavaria, with a strong castle, ramparts, and deep ditches. It is situated on the river Vils, which divides it into two parts, near the confines of Franconia. The electoral castle, mint, arsenal, and colleges of justice and finance, are noble buildings. Its trade and manufactures are in iron, earthen-ware, fire-arms, and tobacco. Population 9,000. E. lon. 12°. N. lat. 49°. 25'.

AMBERGREASE KEY, an island in the bay of Honduras, situated on the east side of the peninsula Yucatan. It stretches along the mouth of the bay, and is about seventy miles in length, but extremely narrow. Its chief produce is logwood and other woods for dyeing, and several sorts of game. W. lon. 88°. 48'. N. lat. 18°. 50'.

AMBERGRIS, or AMBERGREASE, in Natural History, from amber and gris, grey; an unctuous, light, fusible, and variegated substance; fragrant when heated; and used both as a perfume, and as a cordial in medicine. It is soluble, but very partially so, in alcohol, though assisted by a boiling heat; almost entirely soluble by the essential oil of turpentine; and perfectly soluble in ether, oil of vitriol, or by the caustic fixed alkalis. There are various suppositions and theories as to the nature of this substance, whether it belong to

the vegetable, mineral (for it is found adhering to rocks washed by the sea, or to the animal kingdom. Dr. Swediaur, however, appears usually to have terminated the controversy, in *Paid. Trans.* lxxiii. art. 15, and to have ascertained it to be an animal production, as it is frequently found in the intestines of a fish of the cetaceous kind, and particularly in the spermætic whale, in which it produces a disease. It is sometimes also found floating on the sea, and in this case it is conjectured by the learned doctor, that the belly of the spermætic whale having burst by an abscess, or the quantity of this substance having been fatal to that fish, it is then naturally found floating on the surface of the sea; this supposition seems supported by the fact, that wherever ambergris is taken in quantity, fishermen conclude that the spermætic whale is, or has been frequenting the same parts.

AMBERIEUX, a town of France, in the department of Ain, and chief place of a canton, in the arrondissement of Bellay, about eight leagues N. E. of Lyons: population about 3,000. E. lon. 5°. 26'. N. lat. 45°. 16'.

AMBERT, a town of France, on the Dore, in the department of Puy de Dome, and chief place of an arrondissement; about 10 leagues S. E. of Clermont. It has a manufacture of emblems and woollen stuffs, and also of cards and paper. The town contains about 5,500 inhabitants. E. lon. 3°. 48'. N. lat. 45°. 33'.

AMBIANUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of Belgium, at present Amiens; its inhabitants were called Ambiani, and conspired against Caesar. *Cæs. Bell. Gall.* AMBIDENTER, n. } Lat. *ambo, dexter, oppositior;*
AMBIDENTEROS. } both hands right.

One who uses the left hand equally with the right.
One who will act with readiness on both hands, or with either party.

Brown uses *ambidexterous*, as opposed to *ambidexter*.
Lame are we in *Plato's* censure, if we be not *ambidexters*, using both hands alike. *A World of Words, by Florio. Dedication.*

This perverse man civil. So it will ever be, some of all sorts, good, bad, indifferent, true, false, aculeous, ambidexters, neutralists, lukewarm libertines, abolitionists, &c. They will see these religious sectaries agree amongst themselves, be reconciled all, before they will participate with, or believe any. *Burns's Anal. of Mel.*

Now in these men [*ambidexters*], the right hand is on both sides, and that is not the left which is opposite unto the right, according to common acceptance.

Again, some are *Amphiprosopæ*, as Galen hath expressed; that is, ambidexter, or left-handed on both sides; such as with acility and vigour have not the use of either; who are gymnastically composed, nor actively use those parts. *Brown's Larger Errors.*

Cælius Rodolgius undertaking to give a reason of *ambidexters*, and left-handed men, delivereth a third opinion: men, with her, are *ambidexters*, and use both hands alike, when the heat of the heart doth plentifully disperse into the left side, and that of the liver into the right, and the spleen be also much distended. *Id.*

Some are *ambidexterous* or right-handed on both sides; which happens only unto strong and substantial bodies, whose heat and spirits are able to afford an ability unto both. *Id.*

AMBIDENTER, in Law, one that acts on both sides; a juror, a solicitor, or an embracer, taking money from both parties, under a promise to aid the cause of each. The penalty upon this offence is to forfeit, *decies tantum*, as much ten times as is thus illegally received; to which sometimes imprisonment is added.

AMBIGUË OVENS, were sheep offered up to the goddess Juvo, accompanied with their twin lambs. Ambiguus was a name generally given to a victim which was accompanied with any lesser sacrifices.

AMBIENT
—
AMBITU-
ITY.

AMBIENT, *adj.* } Lat. *ambio, ambiens* (from *am*,
ANBIT. } *ambire*, around, and *ire*,
to go). } Surrounding or encircling.

Plant, fruit, flower ambrosial, gnat, and gold:

— they grow

Deep under ground, materials dark and crude,

Of spirits and fiery spume, till touch'd

With heaven's ray, and tempered they shoot forth

So beauteous, opening to the æthereal light

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vi.

And of those stars, which our imperfect eye

Has deem'd and faid to one eternal sky,

Each, by a native stock of honour great,

May dart strong influence, and diffuse kind heat,

Around the circles of their ambient skies

New atoms may grow or waste, may set or rise.

Poet's Solomon, book i.

The task of a wild bare winds about almost into a perfect ring, or hoop; only it is a little written. In measuring by the amb it is long or round about a foot and two inches; its basis an inch over.

Greene's Manuscript.

Though the cohesion of the solid particles of the body be not sufficiently accounted for by the pressure of the air, or of any ambient fluid, . . . yet we have a very clear idea of cohesion in its effects.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

AMBIGENAL HYPERBOLA, in Conics, a name in the "Enumeratio Linearum tertii Ordinis" of Sir Isaac Newton, by which is designated one of the triple hyperbolas of the second order, with one of its legs infinite, and falling within an angle formed by the asymptotes; the other leg falling without that angle.

AMBIGUITY, *n.* } Lat. *ambigo* (from *am*, the
AMBIGUOUS, } *Gr. ambi*, around, and *ago*, to
AMBIGUOUSLY, } drive).

Applied when the mind is driven or forced around or about from thought to thought, and left in suspense and uncertainty.

Doubtfulness; indistinctness.

They drink, and then Geoffrey said, "Sir Beryon.

Ye've not declare your matters to myne intelligence,

That I may the bet preserve all inconvenience,

Deat, pro, contra, and ambiguitie,

Through your declarations, and enformyd be.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Second Tale.

Thinking that in as trobelous season, he [the duke of Burgoyne] had vikint the host of all ambiguities and doubts perceiving all thynges to have better succeeded for his purpose than he before inquaired, dissuaded Thierclemens into their country going to them harty thanks and great rewardes.

Hall. Henry IV. l. 50.

Although that many wordes thereupon hadde bene spokene, like as yt is to be believed to be, among people that be ambiguitous or doubtfulle and that percyus theyme selfe assigned and oppressede more and more.

Thucydides, book vi. f. 175.

PEIR. Seals up the mouth of outrage for a while,

Till we can clear these ambiguities,

And know their spring, their head, their true descent,

And then I will be general of your woes,

And lead you eyes to death.

Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet.

He [the false archangel]

Tells the suggested cause, and casts between

Ambiguous words and jealousies, to sound

Or taint integrity; but all day'd

The wanted signal, and superfluous voice

Of their great potentate. *Milton's Paradise Lost, book v.*

POPE. What can this mean? Declare, ambiguitous Phœnix;

Say, whence these shifting spots of clashing rage?

Why are thy doubtful speeches dark and troubled,

As Cressida sees when vex'd by warring winds?

Smith's Homer and Hippolytus.

His [Spinoza's] true meaning, therefore, however distantly and ambiguously he sometimes speaks, must be this.

Clarke, on the Attributes.

Ambiguous, or equivocal words, are such as are sometimes taken in a large and general sense, and sometimes in a sense more strict and limited, and have different ideas annexed to them accordingly.

Waru's Logic.

I apprehend, that we [the teachers of the gospel] mistake our proper duty, when we avoid the public discussion of difficult or ambiguous texts.

Hesley's Sermons.

AMBIT, one of the smaller Philippine islands, near Luban, having a volcanic mountain, and producing an inferior kind of hemp.

AMBIT, in Geometry, the sum of all the lines by which a figure is bounded. It is synonymous with the perimeter of a figure.

AMBITIOUS, *n.* } *Ambio*, to go round (*am*,
AMBITIOUS, } and *eo*).
AMBITIOUSLY, } Going round; to solicit places
AMBITIOUSNESS, } of honour; and, consequently,
a desire to obtain honour, popular applause, power.

And ground & cause, why that men so strive

In coartise, and false ambition

That earthly would, have dominion

Over others, and tread him vnder foot

Which of all sorrow, giueth in the neck.

Song of Thebes, by John Lydgate, f. 394. c. 1.

But Jesus to pluck this effluvia vnder foot of their minds, he called vnto hym a certayne childe, and set hym in the midst of his disciples, a little one, and yet far from all affectuons of ambition and enuy, simple, pure, and liuing after the orderly course of nature.

Udal. Math. ch. xviii.

Th' ambitious prince doth hope to conquer all,

The duke, earle, iarch, and kaidge hope to be kings,

The prelates hope to pabe for popish pal,

The lawyers hope to purchase wondrous things.

Gacaigne.

Whether shee thinks night, or say, or doe, nothing shall be outrageous, neither in passions of mind, nor words, nor dewies, nor presumptions, nor vice, nor wanton, pier nor boasting, nor ambition. The Instruction of a Christian Woman, by Fines.

Why dost thou then permitte these roud homicides and upright murderers to defile them with their errors, and blasphemies them with their lye: Killing vp thy servants without pittie, for holdynge with them, and reigning heere as gods vpon earth in ambicionne, veyne glory, pompe, glouy, and lecherie, with other abominable vices.

Ru's Image of book Churches.

Ambition is the choler, which is an humour that maketh men active, earnest, full of slacity, and stirring. If it be not stopped. But if it is stopped, and cannot heve its way, it becometh adust, and thereby malign and venomous. So ambitious men, if they find the way open for their rising, and still get forward, they are rather busy than dangerous; but if they be checked in their desires, they become secretly discontent, and look upon men and matters with an evil eye, and are best pleased when things go backward: which is the worst property in a servant of a prince or state.

Bacon. Essay on Ambition.

If the bishopps of Rome in olde times refused this name [universal bishop], not for want of right, but only, as M. Harding saith, of humilitie, wherefore then did theire successors, that folowed afterwards, so ambitiously labour to geate the name?

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

Poor in spirit, is contradiction to literal poverty of estate, signifies a temper of mind, disingaged from, and sitting loom to the covetous and ambitious desires of the present world.

Clarke's Sermons.

No, Freedom, no, I will not tell

How Rome, before thy face,

With heaviest sound, a giant-stature, fell,

Push'd by a wild and ardent race,

From off its wide ambulant base.

Colman's Ode to Liberty.

AMBITIOUS, in Ethics, has been more generally used for an excessive and corrupt pursuit of power or

AMBIGU-
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AMBITU-
TION.

AMBLITION.

AMBLE-SIDE.

distinction. It has, however, by some writers, been justly said to be characterised by its object and direction, and as a particular species of desire and sympathy to be honourable or disgraceful according to the mode of its operation. Dr. Hartley, using the word in the more extended sense, proposes to classify all the pleasures and pains of ambition under four heads: 1. External advantages or disadvantages; 2. Bodily perfections or imperfections; 3. Intellectual accomplishments or defects; 4. Moral qualities. Among the Romans, it was a passion highly honourable, and worshipped as a divinity with very considerable sacrifices.

AMBITUS, amongst the ancient Romans (see AMBITION,) was used to denote the practice in candidates of walking about to solicit public suffrages or honours; and may be well exemplified by the English practice of canvassing a town or county, previous to an election.

AMBITUS, in Music, a term applied formerly to denote the extent or modification of any particular tone, as grave or acute.

AMBLAU, one of the smaller Molucca islands, three leagues from Bonoro.

AMBLE, v. From the Lat. *ambulare*, to walk.
AMBLING, } Alternò crurum explicata mollem
AMBLER, } gressum glomerare. Du Cange.

For thy yoke is hard to put away,
As hors that evil trotted, twelvish I yew telle,
It were hard to make hym afire to ambill well.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Second Tale.

This markis hath hie spooned with a ring
Brought for the same cause, and than hie sette
Upon an hors snow-white, and wel ambilling.

Id. The Clerk's Tale.

And thus after his lodes graunt,
Upon a mule white ambilled
Fourth with a fure note this queene.
The wonderd, what she wolde meane,
And riden after a softe pace. Gower. Con. A. book ii.
And as she caste his ele aboute
She rich clad in one rote a rouse
Of ladies, where thei comen ride
A large under the woodde side,
On fayre ambillende hors thei set,
That were all white, fayre and great,
And everibone ride on side.

Id. book iv.

Upon an ambler eaily she sat,
Ywinked wel, and on hire hede no hat,
As brode as is a bookelet, or a target.

Chaucer. The Princesse, vol. i. p. 20.

Pious and pleasant Bishop Felton indurcued in vain his sermon to assimilate his [Lancelot Andrews] style; and therefore said mildly of himself, "I had almost now'd my own natural trot, by endeavouring to imitate his artificial ambler."

Fowler's Watchies. London.

But I, that am not shap'd for sportive tricks,
Nor made to court an amorous looking-glass;
I, that am rudely stamp'd, and want love's majesty,
To strut before a wanton ambler nymph.

Shakespeare's Rich. III. act i. sc. 1.

An ambler is proper for a lady's saddle, but not for a coach. If you undertake this ride, you will be as ambler in a coach, or a trotter under a lady's saddle. Howell's Letters.

Frequent in park with lady at his side,
Ambler and prouling scandal as he goes;
But rare at home, and never at his books,
Or with his pen, save when he scrawls a card.

Cooper's Task, book ii.

AMBLE, in Horsemanship, a shuffling pace between the trot and the gallop, in which the horse moves both his legs on the same side at the same time.

AMBLESIDE, a township of Westmorland, about

13 miles from Kendal, and 274 from London. It stands in a most enchanting situation, near the lake of Windermere. It is supposed that this town was once the large and populous city Dictus, of the Romans, built, according to Horsley, after their subjugation of the Brigantes. Camden erroneously calls it the Amboglans of the Notitia; but afterwards places that station at Willeford, in Cumbria. That this was at one time a city of considerable magnitude, is evident from the present ruins of walls and scattered heaps of rubbish, with some remains of a fort (evidently Roman), 660 feet in length and 400 in breadth, secured by a ditch and rampart. It is, however, now reduced to a small town, with a resident population of not more than 630 persons. During the summer season it is much resorted to by occasional visitors and the lake-tourists. There is a market on Wednesdays, and two annual fairs. The chapel, which was become ruinous, was rebuilt in the year 1812, in a neat Gothic style.

AMBLETEUSE, a sea-port town of Picardy, in France, in the department of the Straits of Calais, in the English channel, nine miles north of Boulogne, and 189 miles from Paris. Julius Caesar, on his invasion of Britain, embarked the Roman cavalry at this port, which he calls "Portus Ambletensis" and James II. of England, on his abdication of the throne in 1688, landed at this town. E. lon. 1° 37'. N. lat. 50° 48'.

AMBYLION, in Geometry (from *amblyon*, obtuse, and *ylon*, an angle), obtuse-angled, a term sometimes applied to triangles, one of whose angles is obtuse.

AMBYLOPIA, in Anatomy (from *amblyon*, dull, and *ops*, the eye), a disease of the eye, producing dullness of sight, which has been described as an incipient AMAUROSIS, which see.

AMBO. *Ἀμβω*, whatever rises up or projects (*forma rotunda*, Vossius), from *ἀναβαίνω*, *ἀψιβαίνω*, to go up, to ascend, to mount.

An elevated place, formerly used in churches, for the purpose of saying or chanting some parts of the divine service, and also of preaching to the people. Menage and Du Cange.

Between the *ἑννομήν* and the faithful, stood the *ambo*, or reading desk.

See G. Walker's *Acc. of the Churches of the Prim. Chris.*

The *ambo* is now placed on the north side of the nave of the church, nearer to the east and gates than the bema.

Id.

Socrates also and Zozomen inform us, that this was the ancient custom; shewing, that St. John Chrysostom was the first that preached in the *ambo*, or reading desk of the church, by reason of the multitude of people that crowded up to hear him.

Id.

The AMBO is sometimes called AMBON, or ANALOGIUM in Ecclesiastical History. The Gospel was read at the top of the ambo, the Epistles a step lower: here new converts of religion confessed their faith, and the acts of martyrs, and epistles of distant churches, were published to the people. Some of these ambos are still left standing, both in England and on the continent, although the modern reading desks and pulpits are more generally substituted in their stead.

AMBOHITSIMENE, an extensive province of the island of Madagascar, so called from the vicinity of some lofty red mountains bearing the same name, and lying in S. lat. 20°. On one side of this ridge the sea extends into the country for fifteen leagues; on the other side lies a flat country, abounding in marshes.

AMBO-
HITS-
NIENE
—
AM-
BOYNA.

The mountaineers are named Zafershoings; and have an abundance of gold, iron, and cattle.

AMBOISE, a town of France, in the department of the Indre and Loire, seated at the junction of the rivers Masse and Loire, and the chief place of a canton. This town is celebrated in history for one of the most formidable confederacies of the Protestants against the Catholics and the house of Guise, in 1560. It has a chateau situated on a rock, difficult of access, and whose sides are nearly perpendicular. At the foot of it runs the Loire, which is divided into two streams by a small island. The duke of Guise, when in expectation of an insurrection of the Protestants, removed Francis II. to this fortress, as a place of safety. Two detached parts of the ancient castle still remain, which were built by Charles VIII. and Francis I. The former of these monarchs was born and died here. The modern town has a noble promenade, several ancient monasteries, and two churches: woollen stuffs, excellent swords, and other hardware, are manufactured here; and the town gives name to a silk stuff called Amboisienne. Population, 5,660. E. lon. 1°, 0'. N. lat. 47°, 25'.

AMBOON, a district of Hindostan, with a well-built town of the same name, in the territory of Arcot, near the river Palar. It is commanded by a lofty hill, on which is a decayed fort, once of some strength; and exports a superior kind of castor oil. E. lon. 78°, 46'. N. lat. 12°, 50'.

AMBOULE, a town and province of Madagascar,

AM-
BOULE.
—
AM-
BOYNA.

under the tropic of Capricorn, and watered by the river Manampani. The country produces yams, fruits, and plants in great abundance. The cattle, which are black, are very fat, and their flesh is excellent. There is a hot spring near the town, within about twenty feet of a small river (whose sands are almost burning), which will boil an egg hard in two hours, and which is reckoned by the inhabitants to be a panacea for the gout. The inhabitants of this district are expert manufacturers of iron and steel, which they procure from their own mines. In their manners they are represented as knavish, licentious, and indolent.

AMBOURNAY, a town of France, in the department of Ain, and capital of a canton. It is situated in the route from Lyons to Geneva; and has an hospital and an abbey of Benedictine monks, founded about the year 800. This place lies nine leagues N. E. of Lyons, and one mile and a half N. W. of St. Rambert. Population 1,540. E. lon. 6°, 16'. N. lat. 46°, 1'.

AMBOY, in Geography, a small city of New Jersey, in Middlesex county, North America. It is delightfully situated on a high neck of land between the river Rariton and Arthur Kill sound. The harbour is safe and commodious, and vessels may reach it with almost any wind; but owing, perhaps, to its vicinity to New York, from which it is only 35 miles distant, the city possesses little trade or importance and does not contain 100 houses. It is 74 miles from Philadelphia. W. lon. 74°, 50'. N. lat. 40°, 35'.

A M B O Y N A.

AMBOYNA, one of the largest and most valuable of the Molucca islands, in the Indian ocean, the seat of their government, and the centre of the commerce in nutmegs and cloves. It lies in E. lon. 128°, 15', and S. lat. 3°, 42', and is between fifty and sixty English miles in length from north to south. On the western side it is divided by a bay into two peninsulas, one of which is called Heton, being twelve leagues long and two and a half broad; and the other Leytmer, about five leagues in length and one and a half in breadth. There is an inferior harbour on the eastern side, where the Portuguese originally erected their principal fort. It has no river of importance, but its general aspect is beautiful, and richly diversified with mountains covered with valuable wood; verdant vales, and flourishing hamlets. The island has been occasionally subject to earthquakes; but the climate is generally salubrious:—the rainy season sets in with the southerly monsoon. The soil is a darkish red clay, mixed with sand; both the valleys and the mountains are reported to have contained gold, but no mines of that description are worked. The deer and wild boar are the principal animals of the island; but there are a few sheep and black cattle, buffaloes, horses, and goats. The cassowary parades the mountains; but the chief boast of Amboyna is its rich productions of the vegetable kingdom. An astonishing variety of beautiful wood for inlaying, and other ornamental purposes, is to be found here; four hundred different species are reckoned by Rumphius.

The cinjput tree affords a valuable oil, and the sassafras an aromatic bark. The clove tree, however, is its staple production. In favourable situations this tree grows to the height of forty or fifty feet; its branches spread wide from the stem; the cloves grow in clusters, but on separate stalks, and the leaves are long and tapering. It will bear fruit about nine or ten years, to one hundred years of age. The average quantity of cloves yielded annually is from seven to twelve pounds per tree, but some have been known to afford thirty pounds, and the island, taken together, about 650,000 pounds. They are gathered from October to February. The Dutch, during the long period of their former possession of this island, made every effort at the entire monopoly of this invaluable spice; the number of trees was regularly registered by the governor, all the plantations of them visited, and particular districts devoted to their cultivation. They bought from the neighbouring islands all the cloves that other nations were likely to import, and in some cases compelled their chieftains to destroy the rest, and even the trees that bore them. The Dutch East India company's warehouse was the public and regular depository of the whole crop; and they are said to have prohibited the culture of many edible roots on the island, by way of withholding the chances of subsistence from settlers and conquerors. When the cloves were gathered from the tree, they were dried before the fire upon burlers, and sprinkled with water; by which means their natural colour, which is

AN-
BOYNA.

red, was changed into deep purple or black. It is said that this process prevents the worm from getting into the fruit; but it is pretty generally suspected that the principal design is to add to their weight.

Thirty years back, the Dutch allowed some nutmags to be grown here, because Banda did not furnish a sufficient supply for the demand. Sugar and coffee are plentiful at Amboyna; the sago tree is a principal article of subsistence; and the few fruits cultivated are delicious; among the latter may be reckoned the mangoes of Hindostan. They import their cattle and grain from the island of Java, and a variety of curious woods from Ceram.

Natives.

The natives of Amboyna, like the other Malays, are rude and savage in their manners, and, when intoxicated with opium, are equal to the perpetration of any crime. Besides these there are many Chinese and European settlers on the island, and mixed races from intermarriages, nearly as fair as Europeans. Those who are the offspring of European fathers and native mothers are called *misticks* or *mestices*; those of a mixture and European marriage, *poestices*; and those of a European and poestice, *custices*. These children are all legitimated, and included with the European society of the island. The Chinese are industrious, and live much together. Some of the aboriginal race in the woods are said to be as barbarous as ever in their dispositions, and to offer human sacrifices to their native deities. Their dress consists of a loose shirt or frock of cotton cloth. The men wear large whiskers and mustachios; the women bind their hair in knots. Wives are bought of their fathers; and should they bear no children, the marriage contract is dissolved. When the English took this island, in 1796, it contained about 45,259 inhabitants, of whom no less than 17,813 were Protestants; and the rest were Mahometans and Chinese. The houses of the natives are made of bamboo canes and sago trees; they sleep upon mats; their weapons are bows, darts, scimitars, and targetts. Their chiefs are called *rajahs*. The Amboynese are said to be indolent, effeminate, and pusillanimous; and their women particularly licentious, whether in the married or unmarried state.

The Dutch governor of Amboyna had ten adjacent islands subject to his power and jurisdiction: Ceram, Ceram-Lavit, Bonro, Ambian, Manipa, Kelang, Bonva, Orna, Honimou, and Nouzen-Laut; the three lasties are called *Uliassers*. The growing of cloves is limited to the Uliassers and Amboyna; but to what degree the ancient government is restored in the neighbourhood since the last peace, we have not been able to learn.

Discovery.

Diego D'Abrew and Ferdinand Magellan, two Portuguese adventurers, first discovered Amboyna, in 1515; it was not, however, taken possession of by Portugal until 1664; it was afterwards conquered by the Dutch republic in 1605; but they did not succeed in obtaining possession of the whole island till after some time had elapsed. During this period the English had erected several factories in the country, which were protected by the Dutch fort; but disputes arising between the settlers, the treaty of 1619 between Great Britain and the United Provinces, stipulated that the English colonists should reside unmolested at Amboyna, and possess one-third part of its cloves. However, in 1622, fresh differences arose, which were

referred to the Dutch council at Jacatra, in the island of Java; and, finally, to the government of the two countries in Europe for decision. While this was pending, however, the Dutch colonists contrived, by alleging a fictitious plot against the English, to make themselves masters of the whole island. This event is known in history by the name of the "Massacre of Amboyna."

A plot, it was said by the Dutch authorities, was conceived by two soldiers in their service, and confirmed by an English prisoner, but these had been all first sentenced to the rack. Upon this evidence the English were accused of being confederates in a conspiracy against the Dutch possessions: they were immediately seized, loaded with irons, and thrown into prison. The most savage modes of torture were then resorted to by the Dutch governor, for the purpose of extorting a further confession from the unhappy sufferers: some were put to the rack, others half-drowned and miserably scorched with fire. Those who escaped this inhuman treatment were all executed, although they persisted in their innocence to the latest breath. The number of persons who thus perished were ten Englishmen, eleven Japanese, and one Portuguese. The day after these wretched men were put to death, the governor ordered public festivals and solemn thanksgivings for their deliverance from this pretended conspiracy. It is absurd to suppose that such a plot as pretended by the Dutch ever existed; for in the first place, the number of the English did not exceed twenty persons upon the island, whereas the Dutch garrison in the fort amounted to three hundred men; and the English had not a single ship in the port, whereas eight Dutch vessels were lying off the town of Amboyna. In consequence of this massacre the English factory was withdrawn from the island, and the Dutch retained possession of the effects of the English merchants to the amount of 400,000 *l*. The English factories in the adjacent islands were also seized, and the traders forcibly dispossessed. James I. and Charles I. of England were either unwilling or unable to avenge the national honour upon the cruelty and cowardice of the Dutch; but Cromwell compelled the United Provinces, in his celebrated treaty with that power, to pay the sum of 300,000 *l*. as a small recompence for their atrocious conduct towards the English factors. From the time of this massacre down to the year 1796, Amboyna remained quietly in the hands of its Dutch masters; but in that year the English Admiral Rainier took it without opposition. It was, however, restored to the Batavian republic at the peace of Amiens; but again taken by the English in the year 1810. At the general peace of Paris, in 1814, the Dutch once more were reinstated here, under whose ill-organized government the island is not at present considered to be in a very prosperous state.

AMBOYNA, the capital of the island, is situated on the peninsula of Leytimor, commanding a spacious harbour. It is a regularly-built town, though most of the houses are of wood, and but one story high. Matted cane is neatly contrived to form a substitute for glass in their windows, something after the manner of our Venetian blinds; and the roofs are made of the branches and leaves of palm-trees twisted together. Abundance of water runs through this town in rivulets. There is a hospital, a good town-house, and two well-built churches here; in one of which the service is performed

AN-
BOYNA.Massacre of
Amboyna.

The capital.

AMBOY-NA. AMEROSIA. in the Malay language. An earthquake completely destroyed one of the churches in 1755, and rent the other throughout, but they were immediately rebuilt. Between the fortifications of the harbour and the town

is a fine esplanade, terminated by a handsome range of houses, shaded by a double row of nutmeg trees; and here some of the principal inhabitants reside.

AMBOY-NA.
—
AMBROSIAN CHAUNT

AMBRACIA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Epirus, near the river Acheron, the residence of Pyrrhus. Its original name was Epia, afterwards Peralia; but Augustus, after the battle of Actium, called it Nicopolis. *POMP. MIRA. II. 3; STRABO, X.*

AMBRACIUS SINUS, a bay in the Ionian sea, so called from the above city. It was about three hundred stadia deep, very narrow at the entrance, but within about one hundred stadia in breadth. It is now called the gulf of Larta.

AMBRESBURY, or AMESBURY. See AMESBURY. AMBRI, in Ancient Geography, a nation of Indians, mentioned by Justin *xii. c. 9.*

AMBRIERES, a town of France, in the department of Mayenne, and chief place of a canton. It is three leagues north of Mayenne. The town contains about 2,351 inhabitants, and the canton 14,077. It is situated W. lon. 0° 36'. N lat. 48° 24'.

AMBRIZ, a river of Africa, in the kingdom of Congo, which takes its rise from a lake in the mountains of Tenda, and then flows westward, by the town of St. Salvador, and empties itself into the ocean between the mouths of the Labanda and the Loxe. Here it forms a small bay, difficult of entrance, but affording good anchorage within. E. lon. 13° 25'. S. lat. 7° 10'.

AMBRONX, St. a town of France, in Languedoc, the head of a canton in the department of the Gard, arrondissement of Alais, with 2,250 inhabitants. It is about 33 miles from Nîmes.

AMBRONES, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gaul, who lost their possessions by an overwinning of the sea; and afterwards lived upon rapine and plunder. They were conquered by Caius Marius. *PLUT. MAR.*

AMBROSA, or St. AMBRASIA, an island of the South Pacific ocean, on the coast of Chili, in South America. About four miles to the north of this island is a volcanic islet, or rock, called Sail rock, where the finest seals are caught. W. lon. 79° 30'. S. lat. 36° 40'.

AMBROSIA, *n.* } *Ἀμβροσία*, from *α*, not, and *ἄμβρος*, mortal.
AMBRASIACK, }
AMBRASIAL, } Applied by classic writers to
AMBRASIAN, } the food of the immortals; and, consequently, to any thing exquisitely grateful to the senses of taste and smell.

Thidde brocht Venus this herbe, and she was shroued
Bath face and body in one wretty cloud,
And with the herbe she mytilt has she
The balleson thrifty warle wonderle,
That from his bricht lipps she set in by;
And trawperts and embalsins prielle
The plavter therewith, strikand at ouer see
The balleson yss of herbe Ambrosiane,
And the wote mariland herbe hecht Panaces.

Douglas. Eccead, book xii. p. 404.

Disguised in cloud obscures, this hearte dame Venus thither brings,
And into water vessels bright it secretly she flings,
And stooping large therewith she maketh, the verue forth to take
And of ambrosie wholesome litle, thereto doth springing shake,
Whereto she adds the fragrant sap that Panes noote doth make.

Teign.

This Venus brings, in clouds involt'd; and brave
Th' extracted liquor with ambrosia drow,
And od'rous Panace: unseen she stands,
Temp'ring the mixture with her heavenly hands:
And pours it in a bowl, already crown'd
With juice of medicinal herbs prepar'd to bathe the wound.

Dryden.

And, as I wondering look'd, beside it stood
One shap'd and wing'd like one of those from heav'n,
By us oft seen; his dewy locks diffus'd
Ambrosia; on that tree he also gaz'd.

Milton's Par. Lost. book v.

HEAR. Here is beauty for the eye;
CRIS. For the ear sweet melody;
HEAR. Ambrosia odours for the smell;
CRIS. Delicious nectar for the taste;
HEAR. For the touch, a lady's waist;
Which doth all the rest excel.

Ben Jonson's Postaster, act iv. sc. 5.

Thus while God spake, ambrosial fragrance fill'd
All heav'n, and in the blessed spirits elect
Sense of new joy ineffable diffus'd.

Milton's Par. Lost. book iii.

AMBRASIA, in Grecian Mythology, though generally meaning the fabled food of the gods, in distinction from their nectar or drink, was sometimes used interchangeably with that term. It was asserted by the poets to confer the gift of immortality: to be sweeter than honey, and of a most fragrant smell. It was also used as a perfume. Berenice, queen of Ptolemy Soter, was said to have been preserved from death by Venus, through a present of ambrosia for her food; and Tithonus thus became immortal by the assistance of Aurora. It was also alleged to have the miraculous power of healing wounds: hence we find, that Apollo, in the Iliad, saves the body of Sarpedon from putrefaction by rubbing it with ambrosia; and Venus, according to Virgil, heals the wounds of her son with it. Juon and Venus are each represented as using it on their hair. We need not be surprised that a word connected with an many agreeable ideas was transferred to various other preparations, both of food and medicine. In the early stages of medical science it was applied to many antidotes for poison; in some ancient writers it is used for the imaginary food of the bee; for wines and perfumes; for ambergria, and sometimes for the spices and other preparations for embalming. *HOM. II. i. 14, 16, 24; VIRO. ÆN. i. 407.*

AMBRASIA, in Grecian Antiquity, were festivals celebrated in honour of Bacchus in particular cities in Greece. They answered to the Brumalia of the Romans.

AMBRASIA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Monoclea, and order Pentandria.

AMBROSIAN CHAUNT, in Church Music, often mentioned by ecclesiastical writers as resembling, but somewhat differing from the Gregorian chaunt. It is said to be still preserved in the Duomo at Milan; but Dr. Burney, who attended at that church during its performance, was not able to discover the difference between that service and the chaunt of the other cathedrals of France and Italy, which is commonly said to be the Gregorian chaunt.

AMBRO-
SIN.
—
AMBUR-
BIA.

AMBROSIN, a coin of the dukes or lords of Milan, representing St. Ambrose on horseback holding a whip in his right hand. This figure on the coin is said to have been taken from an appearance of that saint, thus accoutred, during a battle in 1339.

AMBROSINIA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Gynandria, and order Polyandria.

AMBRY. See ALMONRY.
If thou wilt understand and open thy selfe, thou shalt find within a sure, an ambry, say a storehouse and treasure (as Democritus saith) of many evils and maladies, and those of divers and sundry sorts.

An Ambry, in Old Customs, was a place where arms, plate, and valuable vessels of domestic use were kept: the Ambry at Westminster either takes its name from having been formerly set apart for this purpose, or is a corruption of Almonry.

AMBRYM, an island in the Pacific ocean, and one of the New Hebrides discovered by Capt. Cook. It is about 50 miles in circumference, and has a volcano, occasionally active. E. lon 168°, 15'. S. lat. 16°, 12'.

AMBRYSSUS, in Ancient Geography, a city of Phocis, so called, according to Pausanias, from some hero of that name. PAUSAN. x. 35.

AMBUBAJAE, in Ancient Customs, were dissolute women of Syria, who were in the habit of attending the festivals and public assemblies of Rome as mistresses; and hence resembling the almas, or dancing girls of Hindostan. Some writers think their name is derived from a Syrian word which signifies "flute." Turnebus and others deduce it from am, "round," and "hair," the place which they generally frequented. Horace mentions them,

Ambobajorum colligis, pharmascepe.—Book i. sat. li. l.

See TURNER. xi. 23. and SEXT. in NER. 27.

AMBULATION, n. } Lat. *ambulo*, to walk.
AMBU'LATORY, }
AMBU'LATORY, adj. }

From which occurs sense and invariable motion of the muscics in station (as Galen declareth) proceed more offensive incursions than from ambulation. Brown's Vulgar Errors.

In new deviations and uncertain forms we may also have an ambulatory faith, and new articles may be offered before every scruple, and at every conversion.

Anglo's Apology for Authorized & Set Forms of Liturgy.

The ark, while it was ambulatory with the tabernacle, was carried by staves on the shoulders of the Levites.

Prideaux's Connections.

They [the monarchs of Europe] appointed the royal courts, which originally were ambulatory and irregular with respect to their times of meeting, to be held in a fixed place and at stated seasons.

Robertson's State of Europe.

AMBULATORY COURTS, in Ancient English Polity, a name sometimes applied to each of our supreme courts of judicature, from their moving about from place to place. The high court of parliament was formerly ambulatory, as well as the court of king's bench, which moved with the king's person, and took its name from the circumstance of his presiding in this court in person.

AMBULIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Didynamia, and order Angiosperma.

AMBULLI, in Ancient Mythology, a surname of Castor and Pollux, amongst the Spartans.

AMBURBIA (*ambire urbem*), festivals at Rome, considered by Scaliger as the same with the AMBARVALIA, which were. They consisted in a solemn procession round the walls of the city and neighbouring fields, in which hymns were sung in honour of Ceres. TURNERUS, xviii. 17.; LUCAN, l. 502.

AMBUSCADE, n. } Fr. *embuscher*, *embuscade*; AMBUS-
AMBUSCA'DO, } It. *imboscata*, *imboscata*; Span.
AMBUSCA'DO, } *emboscado*, *emboscado*, from
AMBUSCH, n. } the Fr. *bois*; It. *bosco*; Span.
AMBUSCH, n. } *bosque*; English, *hush*.

AMBUSCHMENT. } To *ambush*, is to hide in a
} bud, or wood, for the purpose of surprising an enemy;
} and then applied, literally and metaphorically, to any
} mode of concealment to effect a stratagem.

The ancient Scotch writers use *bush*. In Robert Brunne are found *busee* and *embusee*, *busement* and *embusement*.

Saladyn priently was hunted beside pe floe.

R. Brunne, p. 187.

£ alle pat suerd mist bere, or oper wapen weid,
Were sette R. to dene, embused porgh pe feld. Id.
Lutyn in a wod a busement he held. Id. p. 247.

Saladyn did stoppe pe dikes kank & bro,
pat com sold over hygge, ne man ne haun sald go
pugh pat embusement, pat was so princely. Id. p. 187.

Julian pe emperor with strong power y now;
Two ger after pe bataille, to Engeland agayn drow,
And poughte sle al pat folk, and wyne pe kyndon,
Ac he caste per of ambes, as pe he to london com.

R. Glouceter, p. 51.

There lay one rale in an erlyt glen,
Guard for slycht to embusche armis men,
Quham wonder narrow spoos agher syde
The bewis thit hamperit, and doia hyde
With skuggis derse and ful obscure perky.

Douglas. Escadon, book xi. p. 368.

A winding rale there lay, within the shade
Of woods, by nature for an ambush made. Id.
Tharfor one pratik of were drynte wy I,
And ly at wate in quyet embuschemen.

At alther pethis hede or accrete went,
In the how slake be gooder woddis syde
Fell dene I sal my men of armes hyde. Douglas.

In secret ambush I, in yonder wood, in place not wide,
That so bothi wayes I may besidge, my selfe entred to hide. Id.

But, in the wood, an ambush I prepare,
And try to foil him in the wiles of war. Id.

In deepe still waters the pilate searcht more than in the great his
wases: of secret ambuscades rather than of open armies, the war-
riorous doubteth. Golden Booke, letter iv.

High earle of the marches of Poictoun, cumming by the French
king's direction to remove Earle Richard and the English from the
siege of the Rois, was with all his forces intercepted by an ambu-
cade, and discomfited with no small loss of men, munition, and
carriage. Spenser's *Hist. of Gr. Britain*.

'Twould be my mirrour to strike and gill them,
For what I bid them doe: For, we had this be done
When call deesse base their permission passe,
And not the punishment: therefore indeeds (my father)
I have on Angelo impos'd the office,
Who may in th' ambush of my name, strike home.
Shakespeare's *M. for M.* act i.

Againe great dole on either partie grew,
That him to death antistitit Paris sent;
And also him that false Ulysses slew,
Drawne into danger through close embusement.

Spenser. *Fairy's Quest*.

In the 84th year of Darius, Darius having fallen into the
country of the Carians, overthrew them in two battles with a very
great slaughter; but, in a third battle, being drawn into an ambush,
he was slain, with several other eminent Persians, and his whole
army cut off and destroyed. Prideaux's *Connections*.

The youth of Sparte, it is well known, frequently lay in ambush
for these wretched slaves in the night, and snatching out upon them
unexpectidly, with daggers in their hands, murdered, in cold blood,
every helot they met with.

Porteus, on the Beneficial Effects of Christianity.

AMBUS-
CADE.
—
AMELIO-
RATE.

Far from the town two shaded hills arise,
And lose their adverse summits in the skies:
One side is bounded by the grove's embrace;
A mountain's brow o'erhangs the middle space.
The nature of the place, and glowing sky,
Seem'd formed for ambuscade, and deeds of night.

Lucia's Statius, book ii.

AMBUSCADE, in Military Tactics, the art of concealing troops, either to surprise the enemy when on a march, or, having drawn him from a place of strength and security, to pour upon him an unexpected fire or attack from an advantageous position.

AMCHITCHIE, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific ocean. E. lon. 178°, 14', N. lat. 53°, 22'.

AMEDNAGUR, a province and city of Hindostan. The province, or aoubah, is bounded on the north by Candesh and Mulwa, on the west by the mountains of Balaghaut, on the south by Benapur or Visnapour, and on the east by the province of Berar. Amednagar, sometimes called Dowlatabad, the capital, is about 105 miles N. N. W. of Visnapour, and 63 N. E. of Poona. It stands at the foot of the mountains of Balaghaut. E. lon. 74°, 55', N. lat. 17°, 6'.

AMEL. *n.* } Amyled, I believe, for enamelled,
AMELLED. } says Skinner. In German, schmelzen; Dutch, smelten; from the more ancient A. S. myltan, melcan, to melt. In English also we have, to smelt; i. e. to melt.

And with a bend of gold tumbled
And knoppes fine of gold enailed.

Chaucer. Romance of the Rose, f. 121. c. 2.

Below her hair her weed did somewhat tryne,
And her straight legs most heavily were embaynd
In glasse bekkens of costly corall-tyne,
All bad with golden linders, which were enaynd
With curious atticles, and full fayre enamel.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. can. iii.

Ye matchless stars (yet each the other's match)
Heaven's richest diamonds, set in sweet white,
From whose bright spheres all grace the groves catch,
And will not move but by your lookers bright.

F. Fletcher's Purple Island, canto vi.

Ah, silly I! more silly than my sheep,
Which on thy flowery banks I wont to keep,
Forest are thy banks! Oh, when shall I once more,
With match'd eyes, review thine *enail'd* shore!

Philips. Pastoral ii.

AMELIA, a county in Virginia, North America, situated between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters, having on its N. Cumberland county, Prince George county E. and Lunenburg county S. and W. Here is an academy, called Jefferson academy.

AMELIA ISLE, an island of America, on the E. coast of F. Florida, about seven leagues N. of St. Augustine, and near Talbot island on the S. at the mouth of St. John's river. It is thirteen miles long and two broad; is extremely fertile, and, according to Morse, has an excellent harbour. W. lon. 67°, 23', N. lat. 30°, 50'.

AMELIA, or AMERIA, an old episcopal town of the duchy of Spoleto, in Italy. It stands upon a mountain between the Tiber and the Nera; the country around is pleasant and fertile; it is eight leagues S. E. from Spoleto, and 18 N. from Rome. E. lon. 12°, 20', N. lat. 42°, 33'.

AMELIORATE, *v.* } Ameliari, melius valere,
AMELIORATION. } says Du Cange.

Am. amelior; Lat. melius, melius (which, according to Vossius, is magis-volens, melius, melius), that which is more willed, more wished for, more desired.

To make more desirable, to better, to mend, to improve. — AMELIO. RATE.

This word, though frequent in speech, is not of common occurrence in good writers.

—
AME-
NAGE.

The class of proprietors contributes to the annual produce, by the expense which they may occasionally lay out upon the improvement of the land, upon the buildings, drains, inclosures, and other ameliorations, which they may either make or maintain upon it; and by means of which the cultivators are enabled, with the same capital, to raise a greater produce, and consequently to pay a greater rent.

Smith's Wealth of Nations.

AMELUS, in Botany, starwort, a genus of plants belonging to the class Syngenesia, and order Polygamia superflua.

AMEN, *interj.* 1204. Heb. and thence coming to the Greek *amen*, used in Scripture, and still preserved in our different Christian churches at the conclusion of prayer: it signifies assent and desire, *as, verily; so be it; or so it ought to be.* In this sense it exists, with little alteration as to sound, in the languages of most countries where Christianity has been known.

Mica One cry'd God bless ye, and amen the other,
As they had seen and with those language's words:
— Listening their fear, I could not say amen,
When they did say God bless ye.

Lucy. Consider it not so deeply.

Mica. But wherefore couldst not pronounce amen?
I had most need of blessing, and amen stuck in my throat.

Shakespeare's Macbeth, act ii. sc. ii.

For be it from him to entertain so uncharitable thoughts of us; as if we durst not trust God on his word, though but once spoken. We know him to be amen; and that repetitious ad nothing to plain truth.

Rp. Hall's Censure of Truel.

AMENABLE. The Italian, menare, and Fr. mener, are derived, by Menage, from the Latin, minare; pelere, to drive. Vossius writes largely upon the etymology of minare, but unsatisfactorily. Wachter is persuaded that it is of Celtic origin (*as*), from menn, a place; and that minare is nothing else than to move from place to place.

Fr. amener, to bring or lead unto, to fetch in or th. Cotgrave.

Amenable then may mean that may be brought—to answer inquiries, to account for actions.

As to most of the corporate towns there, it is granted by their charter, that they may, every one by himselfe, without an officer (for that were more burdensome), for any debt, to distrain the goods of any Irish, being found within their liberty, or but passing thorough their townes. And the first persuasion of this was, for that in those times when that grant was made, the Irish were not amenable to law, so as it was not safety for the townes-men to goe to him forth to demand his debt, nor possible to draw him into law.

Spenser's View of the State of Ireland.

The sovereignty of this country is not amenable to any form of trial known to the laws. *Jurinal's Letters. Ded.*

AMENAGE, *n.* } To menage, or manage. See
AMENANCE. } MANAGE.

With her, whose will raging Force tame,
Must first begin, and well her damage;
First her restrain from her reproachfull blame
An evil menage, with which she doth engage.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. canto iv.

In whom please employ his personage,
That may be matter meete to please him praise;
For he is fit to use in all amange,
Whether for service and warlike amanceuare,
Or chee for wise and civill gouernance.

Id. Master Hubbert's Tale.

AMENANUS. AMENANUS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Sicily, near Mount Ætna; now called Guidicello.

STRANO, v. AMEND', v. } Lat. *emendare*, *e* and *meudo*, which Vossius thinks is from the Greek *μεω*; it is properly called *amenda*, when any thing is wanting.

To free from deficiency, fault, blemish; to repair, correct, improve, reform.

Wielſ, in Luke, has "I ſchal amende;" where the com. verſion has, "I will eſtate."

Beſt ye will at deſt was yd lond for to amende.

And alſur all yſe to Wyneſtre from Londone he wende,

For to amende þilke yde, & ſo 40 to Saluſbury.

And ſo, for to amende more, to þe dounſe of Ambreſbury.

R. Glouceſter, p. 144.

Sir, erſt þou not ſerſt of wreche of Gode's iwe,

þu þou wilt wryte biggynne, without amendeſt,

Agryn Gode don synne, agryn holy kirke has went?

I rede þou mak amendeſt of þu geſt miſdeſt.

R. Brannor, p. 491.

Lo I [Pilate] aſwage before þou fynde no cauſe in this man of theſe thinge, in whiche ye accuſen him; neiþer Cruche, for he hath ſent him agen to vs, and is woking worthi of deſt in don to him. And thefor I ſchal amende him and deſpoyr him.

Wielſ, Luk. ch. xlii.

And he aſide of hem the owt in which he was amendeſt; and thei wrode to him, for yſtyday in the ſeuerthe our the ſeſtre leſte him.

Id. Joh. ch. iv.

O mighty lord toward my vice

Thy mercy medle with luſtie,

And I woll make a couſtant,

That of my life the remeſant

I ſhall it by thy grace amende.

Geſner. Coſ. A. book i.

Pureſte is heful good; and, as I geſe,

A ful gret bringer out of beſynne;

A gret amendeſt eke of aſpiree

To him, that taketh it in paſſiſe.

Chaucer. The Wyf of Bathes Tale.

Certeſ, all theſe thinge ben defendyd by Gode and holy churche, for which thinge ben ſecured, all they come to amendeſt, that on ſeiche ſich ſet his beſe.

Id. The Perſones Tale.

Now hit a thyſday me in pouſt, þat euer ich ſo wroghte

Lord er ich lyſte, for love of þy ſelſe

Grant me goode lord, grace of amendeſt

Vision of Piers Ploukman, p. 92.

A hurt well ſayd, in overthwartes deſpe

Hupeth amendeſt; in ſwete, doth keſe the ſowre.

Survey.

Our mynes have over-laid our hugen: then haſt taught us to depend on thy mercies to forgiſe, not on our purpoſe to amende.

Eikon Basilike.

Lord lay not their ſins (who yet live) to their charge for condemnation, but to their conſciences for amendeſt.

Id.

Rot. Away with him, hence, halld him ſtraight to execution.

Ava. Far fyſe ſuch rigour, your amendeſt hand.

Rot. He perſuades with him that ſpeakſ for him.

Bonn. and Fletcher. Bloody Bro. act. iii.

Eſw. Now brother Richard, Lord Haſtings, and the reſt,

Yet theſe ſare ſarſon maketh vs amendeſt.

And ſayſ, that once more I ſhall interchange

My wained ſtate, for Henries regall crowne.

Shaleſpere's R. Henry VI. 3d part.

Theſe who accept of this deliverance from the dominion of ſin, that is, who by repentance and true amendeſt of life embrace the terms of the poſpel; thoſe, and thoſe only, he further delivers from the guilt and puniſhment of ſin.

Clerk's Sermons.

What woſe to Cymon could his fortune deal,

Roll'd to the loweſt ſpoke of all her wheel?

It reſted to diſmiſs the downward wright,

Or riſe him upward to his former height;

The latter pleaſ'd; and love (concern'd the moſt)

Proſp'd th' amendeſt, for what by love he loſt.

Dryden's Cym. and Iph.

VOL. XVII.

AMENDE HONORABLE, in ancient French Caſtoms, a diſgraceful and infamous kind of puniſhment thus inflicted. The offender being delivered over to the common executioner, was ſtriped to his ſhirt; a rope was hung round his neck, and a wax taper put into his hand; in this condition he was led to the provincial or other court, and forced to beg pardon of God, the king, and the country. In offences of an heinous nature, death was added to this puniſhment.

AMENDMENT, in Law, the correction of any error committed in a proceſs. An error in judgment cannot be amended, but an error after judgment may be. A writ of error muſt be brought by the party aggrieved by an error in judgment. Any error after judgment, in plea or otherwiſe, may always be amended by leave of the court. Amendment in parliament, denotes an alteration made in the original draft of a bill, whiſt it is paſſing through the houſes of parliament.

AMENITY. Amicus, which Feſtus thinks ſo called, becauſe it allures to the love of itſelf (ad ſe amandum). Pleaſantneſs, ſweetneſs, agreeableneſs.

G. Douglas and other Scotch writers uſe the adjective amere.

If the ſituation of Babylon were ſuch as firſt as it was in the days of Herodotus; it was rather a ſeat of amercy and pleaſure, than conducing unto this intention. It being in a very great plain, and ſo improper a place to provide againſt a general deluge by towers and eminent ſtructures.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

AMEN'USE, v. Minuo, imminuo, to leſſen. Fr. amenuer: to leſſen, to make little, to diſmiſh.

Another [humilitie of mouth] is, when he praiſeth the bountie of another man and ſomething thereof amenuer.

Chaucer. The Perſones Tale, vol. ii. p. 321.

The thriddle [the ſpice of envy] is to amenuer the bountie of his neighbour.

Id. p. 323.

AMENIA, in Medicine, (from a priv. and mens, the mind), a term ſometimes uſed to ſignify a weakneſs of intellect, as either want of the memory, or incapability of receiving mental impreſſions. Amenia is divided into three kinds: when originating in birth, it is called *amemia congenita*; when from accident, as from the effects of a fever, it is called *amemia acquiſita*; and when from old age, *amemia ſenilis*.

AMENTIUM, in Antiquity, a thong generally made of leather, one end of which was fixed to a javelin, or other miſſile weapon, whiſt the combatant retained the other end in his hand, and thereby poſſeſſed the power of recovering his weapon when thrown at the enemy. It was thought that the amentium gave alſo a force to the blow; hence ſome combatants reſuſed to uſe it, truſting rather to their natural ſtrength.

AMERAGE, a kind of officer of rank amongſt the Saracens, ſimilar to the governor of an European province or county.

AMERCE', v. } Lat. *merces*, a *merendo*, ſays AMERCEMENT, or } Vossius, after Varro; and AMERCIEMENT. } mereo, whence *merendo*, from pupo, a part or ſhare.

To take a portion, or ſhare of money, or goods; to impoſe a fine, or penalty; to exact a recompence.

By the ancient law, puniſhments affecting life or limb, were remitted upon payment of a fine (*merci*). To be ſubject to fine was to be ſubject to *merci*, which furniſhes a very ſufficient reaſon for the application of the word *mercy*, to pity, tendereſs, &c.

AMERCER. Then at the articles of every hundred shall be definered to the six justices of the county, and then time shall be appointed them to give their verdicts, then prize of the king's mercy. And if they give not their verdicts they shall be amerced as to the justices shall seeme best.

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AMERICICA.

They ben clerkes, her courts they oversce
Her poore lawesouse fully they alyte
The hier that a man amerced be
The glottier they will write.

Chaucer. Plowman's Tale, fol. 95.

In all which [the reasons of peace] many kindes of malefactours are amerced yearly, & fyres set on their hedes, & they compelled to put them, to compel the thereby to leave their crayf doing, & yet will they many far yt be starkly thought still. But yet are had yf amercements made for licences, but devoted for punishment & for waives of amercement.

Sir Tho. More's Works, l. 600. c. 1.

And though this curried state of amercement and coarctate cometh thise hard lordships, though which men ben distrained by tallages, customes, and cuttages, more than her dette or reason is: and also take they of his bondmen amercement, which might more reasonably be called extortion than amercement.

Chaucer. The Prioress's Tale, vol. ii. p. 351.

I have an interest in your hearts proceeding:
My blood for your rude blowes doth lie a bleeding.
But ile amercer you with so strong a fine,
That you shall all repent the base of mine.

Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet.

At the same time all the sheriffs of England were amerced, because they had not distrained all those which had such estates in land, as the law limiteth, to take the order of knighthood, or pay their fines.

Speed's Hist. of Gr. Britain.

They [the sheriffs] assumed such liberty to themselves, as to seize the issues and profits of their baywick, and convert them to their own use, with all other debts, fines, and amercements, within the Fuller's Worthies. Northumberland.

AMERCER.

—
AMERICA.

AMERCERMENT, or AMERCIAMENT, in Law, a penalty in money assessed by the peers or equals of the party amerced; and sometimes any pecuniary punishment inflicted by our courts of law. It anciently denoted those who stood at the mercy of the king or lord, and on whom a pecuniary fine was laid for an offence, according to the pleasure of the lord or king.

The difference between fine and amercement, strictly, is said to be that the fine is certain and fixed by the law, and that the other is imposed at discretion. None but a court of record can impose a fine; any legal court can levy an amercement. The foregoing extracts will greatly illustrate its legal use.

AMERIA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Umbria, where Sextus Roscius was born. It was remarkable for the ozers which grew there (Amerim salices). *COLUMELLA, iv.; PLIN. iii. 14.; VERO. Georg. i. 265.*

AMERIA, in Geography, a town of Natolia, in Turkey in Asia. It is distant 72 miles east of Kutaya. *E. Ion. 32°, 16'. N. lat. 39°, 25'.*

A M E R I C A.

Divisions
and
boundaries.

AMERICA is the largest of what have been commonly called the four quarters of the globe, extending from the 56th degree of S. latitude to the unknown regions of the Arctic circle, and from the 55th to the 165th degree of W. longitude from Greenwich; or from the 20th degree of E. to the 190th degree of W. longitude from Philadelphia. It lies between the Pacific ocean on the W. and the Atlantic on the E.; it is nearly 10,000 miles in length, and about 2,000 miles in breadth, upon an average; and is thought to comprise an area of 14,000,000 square miles. It is separated from Europe and Africa by the Atlantic ocean, said from Asia by the Pacific; as far as the northern parts of this immense continent are at present known.

America is internally divided into two great portions, called **NORTH** and **SOUTH AMERICA**; which may almost merit the distinction of independent continents, being only separated from each other, in 9° N. lat. by the isthmus of Panama, or Darien; which is, in some places, not more than from forty to fifty miles broad, and forms, with the adjacent continent, what is called the gulf, or bay of Mexico.

Whether we consider the comparative magnitude of this continent as a whole; the scale upon which all the great features of its natural geography are constructed; the recent period of its discovery; the character of its aboriginal inhabitants; or the social institutions to which it has given birth, America, in both hemispheres, possesses those claims upon our attention which are surpassed by no other district of the globe, and to which we shall devote an ample portion of these volumes. The political history of her several states belongs not, indeed, to this department of our work: these details,

annually accumulating in an unparalleled degree, will be found in our Historical and Biographical Division; we have only to notice so much of the political changes of the New Continent in this place, as (being themselves actually ascertained) may enable us to ascertain its present possessors. For as perplexing would be the attempt to unwind the web of the future, with regard to many of its fairest portions, as to justify in this, or any other place, all the past efforts of its modern masters to assume or to sustain that character.

The earliest claim to the honour of discovering this interesting portion of the globe is that which has been urged by Suorro Sturlonides, in his *Chronicle of Olava*, published at Stockholm, A. D. 1697, on behalf of the Norwegians. These enterprising navigators planted a colony in Iceland as early as the year 874, and established some settlers on the coast of Greenland in 982; when they are represented as having "proceeded towards the west," and finding a more attractive coast, on which were some grape-vines, and, in the interior, several hospitable vallies shaded with wood, they gave it the name of Win-land, or Finland, and settled some colonists there. The commanders of this expedition, Biorn and Lief, lived two centuries before Suorro, according to his own account, and except from the tradition of the length of the days and nights at the place where they landed, it would be impossible to form any conjecture as to the spot. From this data it would appear to be about the 58th or 59th degree of N. lat. somewhere near the mouth of Hudson's straits. Here, however, grapes are unknown. Dr. Robertson conjectures that it was on some part of the coast of Newfoundland; and Mallet (*Hist. de Danemarck*) at some

Claims to
the discovery
of
America.

AMERICA.

more southern latitude; it is, perhaps, probable that they penetrated to some part of the eastern coast of North America, but whether it were ever permanently colonized from Norway, with every other part of the story, must remain in hopeless obscurity.

Madoe's voyage.

The Welch bards and historians put in another claim to the honour of discovering America. The celebrated voyage of Madoe, a Welch prince, in the twelfth century, is stated, by Powell and other antiquaries, to have extended to the shores of the New World. His own country being distracted with disputes about the regular succession of the crown, he is said to have embarked, with a few followers, in 1170, for a more peaceful home, and leaving Ireland to the north, to have steered due west. Having found an unknown region, that accorded with his wishes, he returned for a new supply of colonists, after which these historians are silent respecting his fate. The bard, Meredith ap Rees, quoted in Hakluyt (vol. iii. p. 1.), has been thought to confirm the same pretensions; which are unsupported by any other testimony, and ably contested by Lord Littleton, in his *History of England*, and by Mr. Pennant, *Phil. Trans.* lvi. p. 91. There was long a tradition in Wales of some Indians being still remaining, near the Missouri, that spoke a dialect of the Welch language, but the manner in which all the territory in that neighbourhood has been lately explored has completely set aside this notion.

Martin Behaim.

A third claim to the honour of discovering America, of earlier date than the first voyage of Columbus, is of equally doubtful authority. Schedel, a German chronologist, of the fifteenth century, ascribes to his countryman, Martin Behaim, that considerable geographical knowledge which induced the Portuguese to entrust him with the command of an expedition of discovery, in 1483, in which he touched at the kingdom of Congo, in Africa, and seems afterwards to have settled at the Azores. This author, however, mentions nothing more of his discoveries westward. But a map of the western Atlantic is stated to have been left by Behaim, amongst the papers of his family, which contained a considerable island, marked down in the latitude of the Cape Verde isles, to which he gave the name of St. Brandon; and a terrestrial globe is said to have been manufactured by him, upon which the celebrated navigator Magellan first traced the course of discovery in the South Seas which he afterwards so successfully pursued. Behaim appears also to have been the intimate friend of Columbus, (Herrera, dec. i. lib. i. c. 2.) Upon these slight grounds some German writers have attributed to this navigator the first discovery of the western continent. An equally incredible tale is told by the Spanish historians (Gomara, *Hist.* c. xiii.), of a vessel of Andalusia having been reduced to such great distress, on a voyage of discovery, that only four persons returned; and that one of these (the pilot) died in the house of Columbus, from whom he obtained those papers of the voyage which afterward suggested his own track.

Such are the earlier pretensions to dispute the claims of Columbus to the discovery of America; of them all it may be remarked, that were much more credit to be given to the actual details than we can assign to them, so little were they known to the world until after the fact of his voyage, that we cannot fairly suppose him to have been acquainted with them; and that

the very difficulties Columbus for so many years encountered in producing a conviction of what would be the probable results of his voyage, are the best proofs of the state of geographical science at that period, and of the utter incredulity of mankind respecting the existence of any considerable country in the west.

Born to surmount these and still more formidable obstacles to his fame, Christopher Columbus, of a respectable family at Genoa, first tendered to the authorities of that republic (about A. N. 1482) his propositions for undertaking a voyage due westward, in quest of unexplored regions. But his patriotism obtained him no honour in his own country. Dismissed as a mere adventurer, he next applied to John II. of Portugal, in whose service he had been previously engaged, but ignorance and treachery here united to disgust him: while the bishop of Cueta and two Jewish physicians, to whom the king referred his proposals, affected to be surprised at their temerity, they advised the king to dispatch a vessel of discovery, secretly, on the very course Columbus had described; and the clamours of the pilot against his masters on returning, gave the first intimation to the noble Genoese of the baseness of their conduct. Warm with indignation, and the better sharpened, perhaps, into perseverance from such opposition, Columbus immediately made his overtures in person to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, while he dispatched his brother Bartholomew to negotiate with Henry VII. of England on the mighty projects of his mind. Bartholomew was taken captive by pirates on his voyage, and never heard of by his brother for ten years, eight of which Columbus himself was destined to consume in fluctuating and most perplexing intercourse with the confessors, bishops, and grandees of a proud but pusillanimous court. Sometimes the personal and professional character of Columbus (by this time well known to the naval states of Europe) and the hopes of rivaling Portugal and of enriching their own treasury by the splendid success of the voyage, would induce the Spanish princes to listen with considerable attention to the details of our navigator; in conjunction with the patronage which he had gradually obtained, these considerations had already moved the queen to make a decided arrangement with Columbus, when the aversion of Ferdinand to the entire project broke off the negotiation, and Columbus withdrew from court to learn the fate of his brother's embassy to England.

The fall of Granada, however, about this period (1492) seems to have been the deciding circumstance which reserved to Spain the honour of sending out Columbus on his memorable expedition. Alonso de Quintanilla, the minister of finance in Castile, and Lewis de Santangel, the receiver of ecclesiastical revenues in Aragon, were two decided friends of the navigator, who did not fail to take advantage of the triumph of the moment. They represented to the Spanish sovereigns how highly honourable would be the attempt to spread the Christian faith in a New World, on the part of those potentates who had been so successful in extirpating its enemies at home, and induced, it seems, by this consideration, Ferdinand and Isabella recalled Columbus from his journey, already begun, and eventually concluded a treaty upon the five following conditions, in virtue of which he afterwards sailed on his first voyage: 1. Spain, as mistress of the ocean, granted to Columbus the dig-

AMERICA.

Columbus.

Applies to Spain.

Treaty upon his journey, already begun, and eventually concluded a treaty upon the five following conditions, in virtue of which he afterwards sailed on his first voyage: 1. Spain, as mistress of the ocean, granted to Columbus the dig-

AMERICA.

nity of her high admiral in all the seas he might discover, with the same power and prerogatives which belonged to the high admiral of Castile, within his jurisdiction; reserving the office also to his heirs for ever. 2. Columbus and his family were, in like manner, to enjoy the title of viceroy of Spain, in all islands and continents he should now first explore; and should separate governors be required for particular districts, he was to name three candidates, out of whom the Spanish court was to choose one to the office. 3. The tenth of all customs and profits whatsoever accruing from the new discoveries were to be secured to the high admiral. 4. He was to be the highest legal appeal in all suits respecting any commercial transactions in the countries discovered. 5. The admiral was to advance one-eighth part of the first expenses of the voyage, and of opening the commerce with the new countries, which he was to be repaid out of the first profits that might accrue from them. It is said that though the name of Ferdinand is joined with that of Isabella in this treaty, so coldly disposed was that monarch at last to the enterprise, that he formally refused to take part in it as king of Arragon; the whole expence was to be defrayed by Isabella's kingdom of Castile, who accordingly reserved to her subjects a special right in its profits.

General expectations of Columbus.

With the idea of a New World thus glowing at his heart, Columbus seems to have been at first exposed to all the contumelies of the Old one to fit him for the perils of his way. Feeble as were the lights of science on this subject, at this period, there were always some master-spirits formed to make the most of them; Columbus read toward this point; reasoned toward this point; adventured all the best years of his life in efforts toward this point, until the issue was already present with him, and the accomplishment of the project was, perhaps, the least among his actual efforts. Some faint ideas of the globular shape of the earth had long obtained amongst scientific men, from observing the eclipses of the moon; and its comparative magnitude had been pretty accurately established. Either a barren waste of waters must therefore evidently have occupied the greater portion of the globe westward, or some counterbalancing continents to those which were already known would be found in exploring it. All the eastern travellers, confirming the conjectures of the ancients,* had asserted the existence of indefinite regions stretching beyond those which they could reach, and the journal of Marco Paulo, a Venetian, who had proceeded much further than his predecessors, had spoken of several kingdoms in this direction unknown by name in the west. In proportion as these regions stretched eastward, it was natural to conclude that they would be approaching to the western shores of the known world. Pieces of carved timber had been picked up by the Portuguese navigators, and, amongst the rest, by the brother-in-law of Columbus, driving before a westerly wind; canes, trees, and other vegetable productions, unknown to Europe or Africa, had frequently floated toward the Azores from the same quarter, and two singularly-looking human corsees had come on shore there within the last few years. Reasoning upon these facts to the certainty of some important result from a voyage directly westward,

Columbus resolved to pursue that track until he reached his object. The Portuguese had been driven round the southern promontory of Africa but a few years before, and were already reaping the rich harvest of eastern commerce in that direction; there can be no question that Columbus stimulated the avarice of his hesitating employers with the hope of a more direct route to these well-known riches in the first instance; and the name (the West Indies) which his earliest discoveries bear to this day is a lasting proof of it; but the patience of the navigator himself could hardly be sustained so long by the mere love of gain, in which he nevertheless, no doubt, participated. Reserving, however, to the biographical article of COLUMBUS our general estimate of his character, we may now simply follow him into the detail of his first voyage.

AMERICA.

With three miserable vessels under his command, *Emberis* at the *St. Maria*, the *Pinta*, and the *Nigua*, victualled for twelve months, and containing together about ninety men, the two latter having two particular friends of his, *Martin* and *Vincent Pinzan*, as their captains, but in size being little better than large barks, he sailed from *Palos*, in Spain, for the *Canaries*, in presence of an immense multitude of spectators, Aug. 3, 1492. His whole equipment has been calculated to have cost the Spanish court not more than about 4,000*l*. In six days he reached the *Canaries*, and was detained there until the 6th of September to repair his already crippled squadron. He now commenced the daring course upon which his heart had been so long fixed, by steering due west from *Gomera* for twenty-four days. The circumstance of his decision upon this point has been thought to argue in favour of his previously knowing its results; but surely the character of Columbus the tendency of great objects to produce simplicity of mind, and the very uncertainty of his course, supply a much more probable foundation for this decision. Oct. 1, he had run 770 leagues west of the *Canaries*, according to his own reckoning, but to his timid followers he reported 584 leagues as the length of the voyage. When, about half this distance from those islands, the alarming circumstance of the variation of the magnetic needle had been first observed; from the day of their losing sight of land, many of his crew had heartily repented of their expedition, but now their cries for an immediate return were almost as unanimous as they were loud and constant. Sea-wind had for a long time surrounded their course, and though Columbus, at first, persuaded them that it was an indication of approaching land, they now declared their expectation of its only concealing some dangerous rocks or quicksands; that their commander was an adventurer who had imposed upon their sovereign, and a necromancer probably who was now beguiling them to their destruction. In vain Columbus soothed, promised, and even threatened them; they were deaf to all entreaty, and almost to all authority, until, about the 8th of the month, he declared, that if at the end of three days no sign of land appeared, he would comply with their desires, and return. Columbus ventured little, perhaps, in this prediction; every thing indicated their near approach to some considerable coast. The clouds assumed a new appearance at the setting of the sun; the sounding line would constantly reach the bottom; fowls of a different species to what they had lately seen came

* *Arist. de Caelo*, l. ii. c. 14, &c.

AMERICA.

First discoverer land.

in flocks from the west; and canes and wrought timber, together with the branch of a tree, red with berries, floated towards them. On the night of the 11th Columbus ordered the sails to be furled, and the vessels to lie-to; every eye was upon the watch, but Columbus was first gratified with the sight of a light moving to and fro two hours before midnight; and the shout of "Land! land!" sounded a-head from the Pinta. In the morning a large island appeared, about two leagues northward, well diversified with wood and water, but flat in its general aspect. It was St. Salvador, one of the Bahama islands, scarcely four degrees south of Gomera, so exactly had Columbus adhered to his plan of a western course, and above three thousand miles from it west, in a direct line. The admiral, richly dressed, was the first to go on shore, when, followed by his crew, he knelt down, kissed the ground, and returned thanks to God for their success. They now erected a crucifix on the spot, and declared themselves to take possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon. Regarding this as one of the islands of an ocean contiguous to India, when he had refreshed himself and men among the hospitable natives, he took seven of them on board his vessel, and proceeded to the adjacent islands of St. Mary of the Conception, Ferdinandina, and Isabella. He discovered also Cuba and St. Domingo in this voyage, in the latter of which he built a fort, and left a small colony, previous to his return to Spain.

Columbus' second and third voyages.

In his second voyage, in 1493—6, he only enlarged his discoveries among the West India islands; but two years afterwards, with a squadron of six ships under his command, he was determined to try how far a more southerly course would bring him into contact with his cherished object—a fertile continent on this side the globe. Standing south, therefore, from the Cape de Verd isles, he dispatched three of his ships to Hispaniola, and dropped down to within five degrees of the line. Here new perils threatened him, and alarmed the ignorance of his followers. A dead calm came on, with such extreme heat, as nearly spoiled all their provisions, burst their casks of wine, and induced the Spaniards to conclude that their ships were about to take fire. A shower of rain most providentially relieved them, but the admiral was now persuaded to steer toward the N. W. for refreshment at some of the Caribbean islands, when in a few days (Aug. 1, 1498), a man in the round-top surprised them with the tidings of land. This was part of the island of Trinidad, on the Guiana coast, at the mouth of the river Orinoco; and Columbus soon found himself entangled in its numerous currents. Here, however, he was convinced that so immense a river could not flow from any island, and he therefore stood west along the coast of Paria and Cumana, until the perfect exhaustion of his crew, and the severe illness of the admiral, compelled him to direct his course to Hispaniola for refreshment.

Discovers the continent of America.

During these exertions of Columbus, envy was busily at work at home, endeavouring to rob him of those honours and rewards which his enterprising mind and patient labours had so richly merited. His enemies were so far successful as to induce the Spanish court to grant a separate commission for a voyage of discovery to Alonso de Ojeda, who accompanied Columbus in his second voyage and Americus Vesputius, an artful and ingenious person, who subsequently contrived to

cast a cloud over the question of who was actually the original discoverer of the western continent.

These navigators, in the course of eighteen months, from the date of their commission (1497), fell in with the coast of Paria, ran along it, and the coast of Terra Firma, as far as the gulf of Mexico, and then returned to Spain. In a second voyage, began one year after his return from the first, Americus proceeded to the Antilla islands, and from thence to the coast of Guiana and Venezuela, and returned to Cadiz in the latter end of the year 1500. The following year, having quarrelled with the Spanish government, he sailed from Lisbon, under the auspices of the king of Portugal, and ran down the African coast, as far as Sierra Leone and the coast of Angola. From thence he stood over to the American coast, and fell in with Brazil, which he discovered, south as far as Patagonia, and north to the river La Plata. Then returning to Africa, and keeping along the coast of Guinea, he arrived at Lisbon in Sept. 1502. Whatever share this accomplished adventurer might actually have in the discovery of the western hemisphere, he contrived, by his address and the amusing and elegant account which he gave of his voyages, to obtain all the honours of it in the first instance; he insinuated that while Columbus must be admitted to have first reached the West Indies, to him belonged the discovery of the continent itself. The account was at first believed; and though the falsehood of his pretensions was afterwards detected, the error has been sanctioned by the consent of all nations, and this continent, which ought rather to have borne the name of COLUMBIA, is called AMERICA; but at what period of its history this name became first used, is now unknown.

AMERICA.

Gives name to the new continent.

About the period of these voyages of Americus, Vincent Pinzon, one of Columbus' early companions, sailed from Palos with four vessels, and steering boldly toward the south, was the first Spaniard who crossed the equinoctial line. He landed at the mouth of the Maragnon, or Amazon river, in South America; while a mere accident carried thither, in the same year, Don Pedro Cabral, a Portuguese admiral, with a considerable fleet of ships. Gama had just returned from the East Indies, after the longest exploratory voyage that had hitherto been undertaken, and his account of the riches of the east had determined the cabinet of Lisbon to fit out a fleet sufficiently powerful to take possession of various countries in that land of promise. But the expedition standing out to sea to avoid the contrary winds of the African coast, Cabral suddenly found himself upon the shores of an utterly unknown country. This was the south-eastern coast of Brazil, of which he took possession for Portugal, according to the usage of the times; thus accomplishing by accident, within a very short period of Columbus' voyage, that very discovery which had cost him so much toil, and does his memory so much honour.

The Portuguese discover Brazil by accident.

Columbus, in his fourth voyage, still bent upon discovering his supposed passage to the East Indies by the west, after touching at Hispaniola and St. Domingo, in the government of which he had been most oppressively superseded, reached the island of Guanaia, in the bay of Honduras, whence he bore south-eastward toward the gulf of Darien, and discovered all the coast of the American continent from cape Gracias to Porto

Americus Vesputius.

AMERICA.

Columbus attempts the first settlement.

Bello, so called by him from its great security and beautiful appearance as a harbour. He landed several times to explore the country, with which he was delighted; and imagining it to be very wealthy, from the frequent use of gold in the ornaments of the natives, he proposed to plant the first Spanish colony on the continent at the mouth of the river Belen, in the province of Veragua, under the government of his brother. This plan, however, was defeated by the intemperate conduct of his men, upon whom the natives rose in arms, and after dispatching several of them, compelled the rest to abandon the spot.

In 1508, Juan Diaz de Solis associated himself with Vincent Pinzon in another voyage of discovery to the American continent. They took the track of Columbus to the island of Guinnai, when, tacking about to the westward, they coasted along the extensive province of Yucatan. Sebastian de Ocampo, about the same period, first sailed round the island of Cuba, hitherto supposed to have been part of the continent. But Solis and his companion renewed their adventures in the following year, with still more decided success. They advanced in a southern course across the equator, to the 40th degree of S. latitude, and were the means of communicating to the Spanish government much more correct ideas of the extent and importance of the new continent than they ever yet had entertained. On no part of it, however, for ten years after the period of its discovery, had any settlement been effected by the Spaniards; it was at last accomplished, in a most extraordinary way, by Diego de Nicuesa and Alonso de Ojeda, the former companion of Americus.

It is accomplished by Nicuesa and Ojeda.

Ferdinand granted the one a government, extending from cape de Vela to the gulf of Darien, and the other from the latter point to cape Gracias a Dios. The ablest lawyers and divines of Spain are said to have been consulted with respect to the best mode of taking possession of these countries; and "there is not," observes an eloquent historian, "in the history of mankind, any thing more singular or extravagant than the form which they devised for this purpose;" and to which they were to require the submission of the inhabitants, on landing, under the penalty of their extirpation by fire and sword. As this was the model, of the Spanish proceedings in all their subsequent conquests, it will at once answer, in this place, every inquiry into their motives, and every speculation as to their rights. The document is pre-ferred by Herrera, dec. i. l. vii. 14. "I Alonso de Ojeda, servant of the most high and powerful kings of Castile and Leon, the conquerors of barbarous nations, their messenger and captain, notify to you and declare, in as ample form as I am capable," that God our Lord, who is one and eternal, created the heaven and the earth, and one man and one woman, of whom you and we, and all the men who have been or shall be in the world, are descended. But as it has come to pass through the number of generations during more than five thousand years, that they have been dispersed into different parts of the world, and are divided into various kingdoms and provinces, because one country was not able to contain them, nor could they have found in one the means of subsistence and preservation; therefore God our Lord gave the charge of all

Form of taking possession.

those people to one man named St. Peter, whom he constituted the Lord and Head of all the human race, that all men, in whatever place they are born, or in whatever faith or place they are educated, might yield obedience unto him. He hath subjected the whole world to his jurisdiction, and commanded him to establish his residence in Rome, as the most proper place for the government of the world. He likewise promised and gave him power to establish his authority in every other part of the world, and to judge and govern all Christians, Moors, Jews, Gentiles, and all other people of whatever sect or faith they may be. To him is given the name of Pope, which signifies admirable, great father and guardian, because he is the father and governor of all men.

AMERICA.

"One of these pontiffs, as lord of the world, hath made a grant of these islands, and of the Tierra Firme of the ocean sea, to the catholic kings of Castile, Don Ferdinand and Donna Isabella, of glorious memory, and their successors, our sovereigns, with all they contain, as is more fully expressed in certain deeds passed upon that occasion, which you may see, if you desire it. Thus his majesty is king and lord of these islands, and of the continent, in virtue of this donation; and, as king and lord aforesaid, most of the islands to which his title hath been notified, have recognized his majesty, and now yield obedience and subjection to him as their lord, voluntarily and without resistance; and instantly, as soon as they received information, they obeyed the religious men sent by the king to preach to them, and to instruct them in our holy faith; and all these, of their own free will, without any recompense or gratuity, became Christians, and continue to be so; and his majesty having received them graciously under his protection, has commanded that they should be treated in the same manner as his other subjects and vassals. You are bound and obliged to act in the same manner. Therefore I now entreat and require you to consider attentively what I have declared to you.—If you do this you act well, and perform that to which you are bound and obliged; and his majesty, and I in his name, will receive you with love and kindness, and will leave you, your wives and children, free and exempt from servitude, and in the enjoyment of all you possess, in the same manner as the inhabitants of the islands. Besides this, his majesty will bestow upon you many privileges, exemptions, and rewards. But if you will not comply, or maliciously delay to obey my injunction, then, with the help of God, I will enter your country by force, I will carry on war against you with the utmost violence, I will subject you to the yoke of obedience to the church and king, I will take your wives and children, and will make them slaves, and sell or dispose of them according to his majesty's pleasure; I will seize your goods, and do you all the mischief in my power, as rebellious subjects, who will not acknowledge or submit to their lawful sovereign. And I protest, that all the bloodshed and calamities which shall follow are to be imputed to you, and not to his majesty, or to me, or the gentlemen who serve under me; and as I have now made this declaration and requisition unto you, I require the notary here present to grant me a certificate of this, subscribed in proper form."

* They were to make use of the best interpreter they could find on the occasion.

NORTH AMERICA.

AMERICA.

§ 1. *Of the Progress of the Discovery of North America.*

Progress of the discovery of North America.

By the English.

Abstracting our attention now to the progress of discovery with regard to that important division of this continent called NORTH AMERICA, we may observe, that within two years after the first discovery of America by Columbus, Henry VII. of England granted a commission to John Cabot, a Venetian, who resided many years at Bristol, to discover unknown lands, and annex them to the crown. He first sailed in the spring of 1497, carrying with him his three sons, one of whom was named Sebastian, and seems to have been a principal person in the conduct of the voyage. In this voyage they steered directly west for several weeks, upon the parallel of Bristol, and fell in with a large island, which they first called Prima Vista, but which the sailors and subsequent usage named Newfoundland. Here, and at the smaller island of St. John's (so called from its being discovered on the feast-day of that saint), they landed, and brought away several of the productions of the country, and three of the inhabitants. They now coasted the whole of the N. E. promontory of America, between the 38th and 56th degrees of latitude; but though the Cabots were thus certainly the first to discover our earliest transatlantic plantations, we do not hear of any particular observations they made upon any portion of these extensive shores, nor even of any names of places which were given by them.

The Spaniards.

Early in the year 1513, Juan Ponce de Leon, who had subjugated Porto Rico to the crown of Spain, sailed from that island northerly, and discovered the continent in 30° 8' N. lat. Arriving at a period of the year when the surrounding country was covered with verdure, he called it Florida; but being resisted in his attempts to effect a landing, he returned to Porto Rico, after exploring the neighbouring channel, now called the gulf of Florida.

In 1517 Hernandez Cordova, an opulent planter of Cuba, sailed for the continent from that island, standing directly west; and coasting round the eastern point of Yucatan (hitherto thought to be part of a large island), reached the bay of Campeachy. Here he met with a severe repulse from the inhabitants, in attempting to land near Potonechan; and after satisfying himself of the fertility of the country, and bringing away some gold ornaments of the natives, returned to Cuba for succours. The longest and most successful voyage that the Spaniards had hitherto undertaken in this direction was now determined on. De Grijalva, a young but brave soldier, under Diego Velasquez, the original conqueror of the island, headed two hundred and forty volunteers from Cuba, many of whom were persons of considerable fortune, and the expedition, pursuing the same course as the former, made the island of Cozumel, to the east of Yucatan, in April, 1518. Without any particular occurrence they reached Potonechan, on the western side of the peninsula, and, with the assistance of their field-pieces, obtained a difficult victory over the natives: admiring the country, but not strong enough to possess themselves of it, they now coasted onward to the west, and, discovering numerous villages, in which they could distinguish houses of stone, with other appearances of superior cultivation, unanimously named this district New Spain. They were amicably received

by the inhabitants of that part of the coast, now forming the province of Gaxaca; and, after touching successively at a small island, which they named the Isle of Sacrifices, from first beholding the horrible sacrifices of human beings here; Juan de Ulua, near Vera Cruz; and Panuco, in N. lat. 23°; and leaving fertile provinces stretching northward whose boundaries they could not imagine, they returned with great triumph to Cuba.

AMERICA.

The French nation, roused by the enterprising spirit of discovery which animated the courts of Spain, Portugal, and England, in the year 1524 sent out a Florentine adventurer, named Verrazano, to America. He traversed the coast from latitude 28° to 50° N.; but was unfortunately lost in his second voyage. The year afterwards, Stephen Gomez, a Spaniard, sailed from the Groyne, in Spain, to Cuba and Florida; thence, northward, to cape Hays, or Razo, in lat. 46° N. in search of a north-west passage to the East Indies.

In the year 1534, James Cartier, under the auspices of the French government, sailed from St. Maloes, and arrived at Newfoundland, from whence he sailed northerly, and, on the festival of St. Lawrence, found himself in lat. 48°, 30' N. in the midst of a wide gulf, to which he gave the name of that saint, and also to the river which empties itself into this capacious bay. The next year he sailed up the river as far as the Rapids, above Montreal; and having built a small fort, in which he wintered, called the country New France. He returned home the following spring.

About seven years after this, Francis La Roche, then lord of Roberval, was sent out by the French king, with Cartier in his suite, as victory of these newly-discovered regions. He planted a colony, with Cartier at its head, which was shortly afterwards broken up; and nothing of consequence appears to have been accomplished by the French in these parts, until the year 1608, when Champlain, a merchant of Dieppe, and his followers, established themselves between the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, founded the city of Quebec, and gave the name of their governor to lake Champlain.

That portion of North America known by the name of Carolina, and part of the extensive line of coast first denominated Florida by Ponce de Leon, seems to have been called by the former name, in honour of Charles IX. king of France, who sent out a fleet, under the command of John Ribault, in the year 1562. He arrived at cape Francis, on the coast of Florida, near which, on the 1st of May, he entered a river, which he called My river. This is supposed to be that which is now called St. Mary's, and forms the southern boundary of the United States. Ribault discovered many other rivers northward; amongst them was one which he called Port Royal. He built a fort in this neighbourhood, and planted a small colony, which he left under the government of a Captain Albert.

About two years after the death of Albert, who was slain in a mutiny among the colonists, the French sent out another expedition to Florida, under the command of Rene Laudonier. In June, 1564, he built a fort on My river, which he called Carolina. During several years after this, the various forts erected in this part of the continent were contested by the Spaniards and the French, and were, at last, for the most part destroyed.

In 1576, the British government sent out Captain

AMERICA.

British discoveries continued.

Forbisher to find out a north-west passage to the East Indies. In this voyage he discovered several capes, and the straits which bear his name. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in the year 1583, explored Conception bay, on the east side of Newfoundland; St. John's harbour and the adjacent continent; and in the following year, the English, under the command of Sir Walter Raleigh, took possession of the adjoining shores of America, in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and called the whole of this part of the New World, Virginia, in honour of the maiden queen. In 1585 Sir Walter sent Sir Richard Greenville to America, who, having stationed a colony on the coast of Florida, sailed northward as far as Chesapeake bay, and then returned to England. It is not necessary, in this hasty sketch, to detail the various services of Sir Walter Raleigh in the colonization of Virginia. The first native Indian that was baptized in America is said to have been a man named Manteo, of this district, in the year 1587; and in the same year is registered the first child born of English parents in North America. Further discoveries were made in this neighbourhood in the beginning of the seventeenth century; and those parts of America which had already been colonized by the English, were divided into two governments, called North and South Virginia.

Settlements.

The first town that was settled by the English in North America was called Jamestown, near the Chesapeake bay. This was in the year 1607; but the great foundation of Anglo-American population was laid in the opposition that was made in this country to the religious opinions and practices of a Mr. Robinson, a baptist teacher, who, with part of his congregation, removed from the north of England to Holland, and from thence emigrated to Plymouth, in New England, for the professed purpose of enjoying "purity of worship and liberty of conscience," in the year 1620. A very minute and curious account of the origin and progress of this colony, written by one of the original settlers, is to be found in Purchase's Collections. They venture to assure the Virginia Company, for whose protection they applied, "that it was not with them as other men, whom small things could discourage, or small discontents cause them to wish themselves home again."

Long island, New York, and the river which bears his name, were discovered by Henry Hudson, in the year 1608 or 1609. In 1510, this intrepid navigator penetrated the straits which are called after him, and wintered in the bay called Hudson's bay. New Hampshire appears to have been settled about the year 1623; and the first English colony in Massachusetts bay, about five years afterwards.

The rigour which was exercised against the Roman Catholics in this country, in the reign of Charles I., banished to the New World Lord Baltimore, and a great many other persecuted individuals. His lordship had obtained a grant of a tract of land upon the Chesapeake bay, about one hundred and forty miles long and one hundred and thirty broad; but dying before the patent could be sent after him, his son, Cecil Calvert, first acted under the grant, and spent a large fortune in establishing the colony in 1632. It was called Maryland, in honour of Queen Henrietta Maria.

The English settlement of Connecticut appears to

have been founded about the year 1634; and Rhode Island about the same time. New Jersey was finally settled about 1664; and Carolina about five years afterwards.

AMERICA.

William Penn, the celebrated quaker, had a royal charter of extensive lands granted to him in the year 1680-1, and the first colony went over the next year: thus commenced the foundation of the flourishing state of Pennsylvania. Georgia, so named in honour of King George II. of England, was founded in 1732; Kentucky was explored by James Macbride, in 1754, and in 1773 the present settlement was founded. In the last century, Cook, Vancouver, and the Russian navigators, seem to have completed the discovery of the western coast of America.

Mr. Herne, under the direction of the Hudson's-bay Mr. Herne's company, in an expedition which lasted from the 7th of December, 1770, to the 30th of June, 1772, proceeded from Prince of Wales's fort, on the Churchill river, in lat. 58°, 47' N. and lon. 94°, 71' W. of Greenwich, or 19° W. of Philadelphia, to the mouth of the Copper-mine river, which, according to some accounts, is in lat. 72° N. and lon. 119° W. from Greenwich, or 44° W. of Philadelphia; but is laid down by others in latitude 60° N. and lon. 112° W. from Greenwich, or 37° W. from Philadelphia. But the Hudson's-bay company, acting upon a contracted policy, did not render all those services to the subject of American Geography which might have been expected. The enterprising spirit, however, of certain Canadian traders, afterwards united under the name of the North-west company, amply supplied the deficiency. Prior to the year 1789, they had extended their discoveries and establishments along the numerous lakes and rivers situated north of that high tract of country which divides the Mississippi and Missouri waters from those which run towards the north and east, to within a short distance of the Rocky mountains.

In the summer of the year 1789, Mr. M'Kenzie made M'Kenzie's a voyage from Fort Chipewyan, on the Lake of the hills, in lat. 58°, 40' N. and lon. 110°, 30' W. from Greenwich, or 35°, 22' W. from Philadelphia, by the way of the Hare river, Hare lake, and a river by which this lake discharges its waters, since called M'Kenzie's river, to the mouth of that river, where it falls into the North sea, in lat. 69°, 14' N. and lon. 135° W. from Greenwich, or 59°, 52' W. from Philadelphia.

Mr. M'Kenzie again, in the year 1793, penetrated from an establishment on the Peace river, in lat. 56°, 9' N. and lon. 117°, 35' W. from Greenwich, or 41°, 27' W. from Philadelphia, to the Pacific ocean, in lat. 52°, 24' N. and lon. 128°, 2' W. from Greenwich, or 59°, 54' W. from Philadelphia.

By the discoveries above alluded to, and those occasionally made during the rapid settlement of the country and the progress of enterprise, the principal divisions of this northern continent have been explored and become known. The line separating these Parts yet unknown, from the parts which remain unexplored and unknown, may be considered as commencing at the Pacific ocean, in latitude about 38° N. and running along the high lands and mountains, between the waters which fall into the gulfs of California and Mexico and those which fall into the Missouri river; continuing in that direction to the Mississippi; and thence up that river

N. AME-
RICA.

to the source of its highest north-western branch. It now proceeds along the high tract of country which divides the waters of the Missouri from those which fall into Hudson's bay and the North sea, and across the Rocky mountains to the Pacific ocean, in lat. about 53° N. To the S. of this general division line, the known countries are all Old and New Mexico, and a portion of Louisiana; to the S. E. West and East Florida; to the E. the United States; to the N. E. Canada, the Labrador country, part of New South Wales, and of other districts round Hudson's bay; and to the north part of New South Wales, the Athabasca, and other countries, containing the establishments of the Hudson's-bay and North-west companies, and those explored by Hearne and M'Kenzie. The unknown and unexplored countries (except so far as the surveys made by navigators of the coast of the Pacific ocean, and the imperfect accounts of the travellers who have ascended the Missouri have furnished information) comprehend the tract enclosed by this line, containing, in breadth, about 1,000 miles, and in length about 1,800 miles in a direct line; and, by the way of the Missouri and Columbia rivers, nearly twice that distance.

Captains
Lewis and
Clarke.

In the year 1804, the American government sent out a corps of discovery under the command of Captains Lewis and Clarke, of the army of the United States. They passed from the mouth of the Missouri, through the interior parts of North America to the Pacific ocean, and have materially illustrated the geography of that river. Major Pike, in 1805, successfully explored the course of the Mississippi, and in a second expedition, penetrated the interior of Louisiana, surveying the whole of those majestic waters which rise in the rocky mountains of that district, and run westward into the Missouri and Mississippi. The recent and splendid contributions of M. Humboldt to our scientific information respecting the equinoctial regions can hardly be ranked with the expeditions of discovery above mentioned; but we shall not fail to avail ourselves of them in the progress of this article.

Humboldt.

From this succinct view of the progress of our acquaintance with North America, we may now proceed to the minutest details—the geography and topography of this continent. For the character and varieties of the aboriginal inhabitants of America, see the article INDIANS.

§ II. Geographical details of North America generally.

Extent of
N. America.

EXTENT AND GENERAL APPEARANCE.—North America comprehends all that part of the western continent which lies N. of the isthmus of Darien, is about the ninth degree of N. latitude; and extends to the Polar regions, where its boundaries are unknown. Its eastern extremity on the coast of Labrador is in 55°, and its western (cape Prince of Wales, Behring's straits), in 165° W. lon. from Greenwich.

There is, as we have intimated, a considerable difference between the New World and the Old, in all their general features. The former is distinguished for its vastness and grandeur; its rivers, in their extensive courses and innumerable windings; its mountains, in their sublime elevation, and overawing boldness and majesty; its forests, in their extraordinary variety and magnitude;—in short, all the chief productions of this continent possess a certain characteristic superiority to most other parts of the globe, that cannot fail to ar-

VOL. XVII.

rest the attention of the most rapid traveller. The widely-extended lakes and other waters of the North American continent exhibit, perhaps, the principal features of its geography, as the mountains of the Southern division may be said to constitute the sublime peculiarity of that magnificent region. We commence with its principal

N. AME-
RICA.
Geographical
details.

GULFS, BAYS, AND STRAITS.—The Gulf of Mexico is the largest and most celebrated of the inland seas of America. It is situated in an excellent climate, and presents at its entrance the Archipelago of North American islands denominated the West Indies. A remarkable current, called the gulf-stream, here sets in towards the N. E., and passes on to the banks of Newfoundland, at the rate of three miles an hour. It is of a circular form, commencing on the African coast; thence running across the Atlantic, and behind the islands of South America and Cuba, into the gulf of Mexico; from which it finds a passage toward the cape of Florida and the Bahama islands, and runs north-easterly along the American coast to Newfoundland, thence to the European coast; and along the coast southerly till it meets the trade-winds. It is about seventy-five miles from the shores of the southern states of America. Its breadth is from forty to fifty miles, widening towards the N.; but rendered narrower by a north-east wind, and broader by the north-west and west winds. This is, perhaps, one of the most remarkable currents in the ocean; and we shall, therefore, take this opportunity of describing it more at length.

The vessels sailing from Europe to the West Indies are accelerated by equinoctial currents before they arrive at the torrid zone. In a more northern passage, under 28° and 35° lat. between the parallels of Teneriffe and Ceuta, in 46° and 48° W. lon. no regular stream is observable. Here a zone of about 140 leagues in breadth begins to separate the equinoctial current, which tends to the W. from that which runs towards the E., and is remarkable for its high temperature. Humboldt says, "I there observed (gulf of Florida), in the month of May, 1804, in the 26th and 27th degrees of N. lat. a celerity of eighty miles in twenty-four hours, or five feet every second; though at this period the north wind blew with great violence."

The current, at the termination of the gulf of Florida, runs to the N. E.; and its rapidity is sometimes five miles an hour. On the approach of a ship to New York, Charleston, or Philadelphia, it may be known when it enters the gulf-stream by the elevated temperature of the waters, their strong saltness, deep blue colour, the shonks of sea-weed, and the heat of the surrounding atmosphere. Towards the N. this rapidity increases, and the heat of the waters diminish, though the breadth of the current widens. Off Charleston, and in its parallel opposite cape Hellen, the current is forty or fifty leagues broad. Where the stream is the narrowest, it runs from three to five miles an hour, and at about the rate of one mile an hour as it proceeds towards the N.

In the parallel of New York and Oporto, the temperature of this gulf-stream, or current, is equal to that of the seas in the 18th degree of latitude between the tropics.

To the E. of Boston, and on the meridian of Halifax, under 41° N. lat. and 67° W. lon.; this current is nearly eighty leagues broad. It bends from this

Gulf of
Mexico.

Gulf-
stream.

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

Gulfs of St. Lawrence, Florida, and California.

Hudson's, Baffin's, Bay of Honduras, &c.

point to the E., and its western limit skirts the extremity of the great bank of Newfoundland.

The gulf-stream runs towards the E. and E. S. E. from the 52d degree of W. lon. to the Azores; and at 1,000 leagues distance, in the straits of Florida, between the isle of Cuba and the shoals of the Tortoise island, the strong impulse originally received is still felt. This distance is double the length of the course of the river of the Amazons.

The *Gulf of St. Lawrence* is formed by the outlet of the river of that name, which will be afterwards described. The main entrance into this gulf from the Atlantic ocean is on the E. between cape Ray, the south point of Newfoundland, and the north cape of this island of Cape Breton; the straits of Belleisle lead into it from the N. between Newfoundland and the coast of Labrador. It contains some islands, particularly St. John's and Anticosti.

The *Gulf of Florida* is the channel situated between the peninsula of Florida and the Bahama islands, N. of the island of Cuba. The gulf-stream already mentioned finds a passage through it, and runs along the American coast to the N. E.

On the opposite, or western coast of this continent is found the *Gulf of California*, which washes the eastern shore of the country of California. It is, in reality, an arm of the Pacific ocean, intercepted between cape Corrientes on the one side, and cape St. Lucar on the other: that is to say, between Mexico or New Spain on the N. E. and California on the W. It is in the whole nearly 300 leagues in length, with a various width of from 0 to 30 or 40 leagues.

Hudson's Bay extends from the entrance of Hudson's strait to the shores of New North Wales, and about 1,000 miles in length from N. to S., exceeding the Baltic both in length and breadth. The shores are rocky and shelving, and the climate rigorous in the extreme during the whole year, with the single exception of the month of June, when the heat is intense. The common whale is found here; and the beluga, or white whale, is taken in considerable numbers in the month of June, when the rivers in the S. have discharged their ice; but the bay itself does not by any means abound in fish. Common muskies are frequent, but shell-fish is, generally speaking, scarce; sturgeons are sometimes caught near Albany.

Baffin's Bay, as far as it is known, appears to be the most northern gulf or bay of America, and is situate between 70° and 80° N. lat. opening into the Atlantic ocean through Davis's strait. It abounds with whales, and communicates, on the south-western side of that strait, with Hudson's bay, through a cluster of islands.

The *Bay of Honduras* is of considerable extent, deriving its appellation from the province of that name. Its situation is between the cape Honduras and that of Coteche, at the eastern extremity of the province of Yucatan. It is chiefly notorious for the establishment formed on its shores by the English, for cutting dyeing wood, and has been a frequent subject of litigation between the courts of London and Spain.

The *Bay of Campechy* is at the southern extremity of the Gulph of Mexico, and W. of Yucatan. It is noted for the woods yielded by the neighbourhood.

Fundy Bay is another extensive bay of the North American continent, which opens between the islands

in Penobscot haven, in Lincoln county, Maine, and cape Sable, the S. W. point of Nova Scotia, stretching about 300 miles in a north-easterly direction, and with Verre Bay, which proceeds inland from the straits of Northumberland, in a south-western direction, forming a narrow isthmus, which unites Nova Scotia to the continent.

Bristol Bay lies northward of the peninsula of Alaska, by which it is formed, and is terminated by cape Newnham.

In addition to the chief bays already mentioned, we may allude to others, which have received the distinctive appellation of *Sounds*, as those of Prince William, Queen Charlotte, and Nootka sound; the latter of which is very considerable, and is also called King George's sound.

Behring's Straits, so called from a Russian navigator, separate Asia from America, and are situated in E. lon. 168°, 15° N. lat. 65°, 46'. From the south of these straits to the crescent of isles between Asia and America, the sea is remarkably shallow, but deepens from them till soundings are lost in the Pacific ocean, to the south of the isles. It has been supposed, from the volcanic indications, that the entire space from the islands to the straits, was, at some remote period, dry, and that the fury of the water, instigated by fire, overwhelmed the whole tract, leaving the islands as monuments of its desolating force. The Japanese maps place some islands within these straits, bearing the appellation of *Ya Zuc*, or the kingdom of the Dwarfs; whence it is inferred, that the Japanese were acquainted with the western continent.

The *Straits of Juan de Fuca* lie on the N. W. coast; the entrance to them is between cape Flattery, on the S. side, and the opposite shores of the Quadras isles, on the N. W. coast of which is Nootka sound.

Davis's Strait, so called from John Davis, who was its discoverer in the year 1585, runs between the coasts of Greenland and Labrador, to about N. lat. 70°, where it terminates in Baffin's bay.

Cumberland Strait and *Hudson's Strait* are two distinct channels, between Davis's strait and Hudson's bay. The unexplored inlet, called *Forbisher's* or *Forbisher's Strait*, is between Cumberland and Davis's Straits.

LAKES.—The lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, may be considered as forming one large inland sea, dividing the United States from Canada, which has been termed, with some propriety, the sea of Canada. According to the French charts, that part of this extensive collection of waters which is called *Lake Superior* is not less than 1,500 miles in circumference. The coast is remarkably rocky and broken; the water is transparent, and the bed of the lake very stony. Several islands are scattered up and down this lake; one of them, called Minong, is about 60 miles in length. The savages are superstitious enough to believe that these islands are the residence of what they call the Great Spirit. It is supposed that thirty rivers at least fall into this lake, some of them of considerable size. The principal fish are sturgeons and trout; the latter sometimes weighing from thirty to fifty pounds, and may be caught at all seasons of the year. *Lake Superior* opens into

Lake Huron, by the straits of St. Mary, which are 40 miles in length, and in some places only about one or two miles in breadth. The circumference of this

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

Behring's, St. Juan de Fuca, Davis's straits, &c.

Lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron.

N. AMERICA.	lake is reckoned at about 1,000 miles; and on the northern side are the islands of Manitoulin.	of the United States from the S. W. to the N. E. They commence on the north of Georgia, where they give rise to many rivers running southward to the gulf of Mexico. Many tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges of these mountains, known by the epithets of the Iron mountains, the White Oak mountains, the Laurel ridge, the Black ridge, the North ridge, and others. The Cumberland mountains form the exterior skirt on the north-western side; whence the Apalachian chain runs on through the province of Virginia, and proceeds through Pennsylvania, passes by Hudson's river, afterwards terminating in the country of New Brunswick. This chain of mountains is thought to extend nine hundred geographical miles, a distance unparalleled by any mountains of the Old continent, if we except, perhaps, the Norwegian Alps.	N. AMERICA.
Geographical details.	<i>Lake Michigan</i> , the third of this chain, is navigable for ships of any burden; it communicates with lake Huron by a channel six miles broad, and is 900 miles in circumference, exclusive of the Punnas, or Green bay, which runs inland for about eighty miles. According to Mr. Morse's account, these lakes never freeze over, though the entrances are frequently obstructed with ice.	The Cumberland mountains form the exterior skirt on the north-western side; whence the Apalachian chain runs on through the province of Virginia, and proceeds through Pennsylvania, passes by Hudson's river, afterwards terminating in the country of New Brunswick. This chain of mountains is thought to extend nine hundred geographical miles, a distance unparalleled by any mountains of the Old continent, if we except, perhaps, the Norwegian Alps.	Geographical details.
Erie and Ontario.	<i>Lakes Erie and Ontario</i> , which are connected by the fall of Niagara, and are both of considerable magnitude, belong to the chain of lakes between the United States and Upper Canada. The lakes Huron and Michigan are in communication with the former. The division line between the state of New York and Canada, passes through the lake Ontario, leaving 2,390,000 acres of its waters within the United States. The circumference of this lake is about 600, and that of lake Erie about 500 miles.	An immense range of mountains, or rather a series of ridges, runs between the Atlantic, the Mississippi, and the lakes; extending nearly parallel with the sea coast, for about 900 miles. The <i>Sinking Mountain</i> , so called from the number of large crystals sparkling on their surface, are a part of this vast range, beginning at Mexico, and continuing northward on the E. of California, separate the waters of those rivers which fall into the gulf of Mexico, or the gulf of California; whence they are continued to about 47 or 48 degrees of N. latitude. To these are joined the <i>Rocky or Stony Mountains</i> , which extend as far as N. lat. 55°; after which their elevation becomes very inconsiderable.	
Champlain.	<i>Lake Champlain</i> forms part of the dividing line between the states of New York and Vermont. Its length is about 200 miles, its breadth from one to eighteen, and it occupies about 500,000 acres. This lake presents a number of islands on its surface, the most considerable of which are North and South Hero, and Mott island. Half the rivers and streams which rise in the state of Vermont are said to fall into it. Several reach it from New York state, and some from Canada, whither it sends its own waters in a northerly course into the St. Lawrence.	The <i>Sinking Mountain</i> , so called from the number of large crystals sparkling on their surface, are a part of this vast range, beginning at Mexico, and continuing northward on the E. of California, separate the waters of those rivers which fall into the gulf of Mexico, or the gulf of California; whence they are continued to about 47 or 48 degrees of N. latitude. To these are joined the <i>Rocky or Stony Mountains</i> , which extend as far as N. lat. 55°; after which their elevation becomes very inconsiderable.	Shining mountains.
Winnipeg.	The <i>Lake of Winnipeg</i> , or <i>Winnipeg</i> , may be considered as an inland sea, although it is considerably inferior to the Slave lake, or sea, from which Mackenzie's river pursues its course to the Arctic ocean. The geography of the <i>Slave Sea</i> , or lake, is very defective; but, according to Arrowsmith's map, it may be estimated at about 200 miles long and 100 broad.	RIVERS.—This fine continent abounds with the most noble rivers, spread over vast extents of territory, and administering no less to its political than to its geographical importance. Amongst these the <i>St. Lawrence</i> has formerly been supposed to hold the highest rank; and is now, in point of breadth, the most magnificent collection of fresh water on the whole globe; but the Mississippi and the Missouri far exceed it in length. This river can only be regarded as issuing from lake Ontario, though it communicates successively with all the great lakes; and, after a course of nearly 750 miles, finally empties itself into the ocean. At its origin it runs through a long and somewhat narrow valley, diversified with numerous tributary streams; and, unlike some others of the great rivers of America, its bed is continually improving. From lake Ontario to Montreal it is often called the <i>Iroquois</i> ; and, taking a N. E. course, encircles the island of Montreal; just above which it receives the <i>Utawar</i> , or <i>Grand river</i> , from the W., and forms numerous fertile islands. From Montreal, it assumes the name of <i>St. Lawrence</i> , and, continuing the same course, passes by Quebec, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and is so far navigable for large vessels. In many parts it is the support of numerous steam-boats, which are used as much for freight as for passengers. The breadth of this noble river is its grand characteristic; being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and about five miles wide at Quebec. Even as far as Montreal, it is from two to four miles in breadth; and, although impeded by some rapids, affords a navigation of 743 miles, calculating from its mouth to the lake Ontario.	Rocky mountains.
Athapescow.	To the <i>Athapescow Lake</i> , or Lake of the hills, the same remark may be applied; it is generally laid down between the lat. of 57° and 58°, or about 3° S. E. of the Slave lake.	This river can only be regarded as issuing from lake Ontario, though it communicates successively with all the great lakes; and, after a course of nearly 750 miles, finally empties itself into the ocean. At its origin it runs through a long and somewhat narrow valley, diversified with numerous tributary streams; and, unlike some others of the great rivers of America, its bed is continually improving. From lake Ontario to Montreal it is often called the <i>Iroquois</i> ; and, taking a N. E. course, encircles the island of Montreal; just above which it receives the <i>Utawar</i> , or <i>Grand river</i> , from the W., and forms numerous fertile islands. From Montreal, it assumes the name of <i>St. Lawrence</i> , and, continuing the same course, passes by Quebec, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and is so far navigable for large vessels. In many parts it is the support of numerous steam-boats, which are used as much for freight as for passengers. The breadth of this noble river is its grand characteristic; being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and about five miles wide at Quebec. Even as far as Montreal, it is from two to four miles in breadth; and, although impeded by some rapids, affords a navigation of 743 miles, calculating from its mouth to the lake Ontario.	St. Lawrence.
Capes.	CAPE.—The following are the principal capes of North America, reckoning downwards, from the N. W. The Alaskan cape, in 55° N. lat.; cape Mendocino, cape St. Lucas, cape Corrientes, cape Verde, cape Blanco, on the western side; and on the eastern, cape Charles, cape Cod, cape Hatteras, cape Henlopen. The latter, situated on the S. W. side of the bay of Delaware, has a light-house, erected a few miles below the town of Lewis, of an octagon form, 115 feet in height, with a foundation nearly as much above the level of the sea. The lantern is seven or eight feet square, lighted with eight lamps, and seen at the distance of ten leagues off the coast.	From Montreal, it assumes the name of <i>St. Lawrence</i> , and, continuing the same course, passes by Quebec, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and is so far navigable for large vessels. In many parts it is the support of numerous steam-boats, which are used as much for freight as for passengers. The breadth of this noble river is its grand characteristic; being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and about five miles wide at Quebec. Even as far as Montreal, it is from two to four miles in breadth; and, although impeded by some rapids, affords a navigation of 743 miles, calculating from its mouth to the lake Ontario.	
Mountains.	MOUNTAINS.—The mountains in North America are by no means so lofty as those of the southern division, although they exceed those of Europe and the Old World, the Alps alone excepted. Yet nature here assumes almost every variety of aspect with which she adorns the face of the earth. The gently-undulating vale, the widely-extended plain, and the bold and rocky eminence, give a richness and variety to the American continent of the most inviting nature. The <i>Allegheny</i> , or, as they are sometimes called, naming the whole from a part, the <i>Apalachian Mountains</i> , the most celebrated in North America, pass through the territory	The <i>Allegheny</i> , or, as they are sometimes called, naming the whole from a part, the <i>Apalachian Mountains</i> , the most celebrated in North America, pass through the territory	
Allegheny.		The stream generally known by the name of the <i>Mississippi</i> , in point of beauty and magnificence, may be considered the next in order. Its source is about	Mississippi.

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3,000 miles from the sea, if we follow its numerous windings, which are so remarkably serpentine and tortuous, that from its junction with the Ohio to New Orleans at its mouth, in a direct line, which does not exceed 460 miles, the distance by water is more than 800 miles. The Mississippi has its origin in those parts of North America with which we are least acquainted, toward the W. of the northern United States and Canada; it receives in its course the waters of the Illinois and Ohio, and their various branches from the E. numerous streams which take their rise in the Rocky mountains, and form successively the Missouri, the Arkansas, and the Red River westward (the latter a mighty stream, which has previously run 735 geographical miles in a direct line, exclusive of its windings), and disembogues itself in the gulf of Mexico, in W. lon. 89°, N. lat. 28°. It generally affords fifteen feet of water, from the mouth of the Missouri to that of the Ohio; but, in time of flushes, a first-rate man-of-war may descend with safety. The mean velocity of its current may be computed to be four miles an hour. Its breadth is various, from one and a half to two miles; its mouth is divided into several channels, which continually change their direction and depth. The *Arkansas* has been recently explored by Major Pike, who computes its course, from its junction with the Mississippi, about N. lat. 34° 10', to the mountains, at 191 miles, and thence to its source, 192 additional miles. It receives several rivers, navigable for upwards of 100 miles.

Missouri.

The *Missouri*, which, with its eastern branches, waters five-eighths of the United States, has not only claimed of late to rank as a distinct and equal stream with the Mississippi, but is sometimes described as receiving the latter at their junction. It rises in the Rocky mountains to the N. W. of Louisiana, in N. lat. 43° 24', and reckoning from its most extreme branch, the Jefferson, joins the Mississippi after a course of above 3,000 miles, in W. lon. 90°, and N. lat. 39°, when, forming one mighty stream, they pursue their way conjointly to the gulf of Mexico.

The *Ohio*, less sublime and majestic in its course than those already noticed, is also less interrupted in its navigation. Its general breadth is about 600 yards; but it varies from 300 in the narrowest to 1,200 in the widest part. The course of the Ohio, from Fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi, following all its windings, is, by Morse and other American geographers, computed at 1,188 miles. This river commences at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers. It has been described as, beyond competition, the most beautiful river in the world; its meandering course through an immense region of forests; its elegant banks, which afford innumerable delightful situations for cities, villages, and improved farms, with its various other advantages, well entitle it to the name originally given it by the French of "*La belle Rivière*." Since that period, the Ohio has greatly improved both in beauty and utility. The immense forests which once lined its banks have gradually receded; cultivation smiles along its borders; numerous villages and towns decorate its shores; and it is not extravagant to suppose that the time is not far distant when its entire margin will form one continued series of villages and towns. Vast tracts of fine country have communication with the Ohio, by means of its tributary navigable waters; extraordinary fertility,

marks the river-bottoms; and the superior excellence of its navigation has made it the channel through which the various productions of the most extensive and fertile parts of the United States are already sent to market. At its commencement at Pittsfort, or Pittsburg, it takes a N. W. course for about twenty-five miles; then turns gradually to W. S. W.; and having pursued that course for about 500 miles, winds to the S. W. for nearly 160 miles; then turns to the W. for about 260 miles more; thence S. W. for 160, and empties itself into the Mississippi in a S. direction, nearly 1,300 miles below Pittsburg. In times of high freshes, and during the flow of ice and snow from the Alleghany and other mountains, vessels of almost any tonnage may descend this river; it is never so low but that it may be navigated by canoes, and other light craft, not drawing more than twelve inches water. The highest floods are in spring, when the river rises forty-five feet; the lowest are in summer, when it sinks to twelve inches at the bars, ripples, and shoals, where waggons, carts, &c. frequently pass over.

The largest stream that flows into the Ohio is the *Tennessee* river, whose remotest sources are in Virginia, N. lat. 37° 10'. It runs about 1000 English miles S. and S. S. W., receiving considerable accessions of minor waters on each side, and then turning circuitously northward, blends itself with the Ohio at about 60 miles from the mouth of that river. It is navigable for vessels of large burden to the distance of 250 miles from its junction with the Ohio.

The *Alleghany* river rises in Pennsylvania, on the western side of the Alleghany mountains; and after running about 200 miles in a S. W. direction, meets the Monongahela at Pittsburg, and the united streams now form the Ohio. In this course it is increased by many tributary streams. Few rivers exceed the Alleghany for clearness of water and rapidity of current. It seldom fails to mark its course across the mouth of the Monongahela, in the highest freshes or floods, the water of the latter being very muddy, that of the former very clear. In high floods, the junction of these rivers presents a pleasing view; the Monongahela flowing sometimes full of ice, the Alleghany transparent and free. Its banks are delightfully interspersed with cultivated farms and increasing towns. In a course of 80 miles, however, from a place called Enval's Defeat to Freeport, it is full of eddies, rapids, rocks, and other dangers, to avoid which requires the utmost attention. In some of the ripples the water runs at the rate of ten miles an hour; and a boat will go at the rate of twelve miles, without any other assistance than the steering oar. The waters of this river are recommended by the medical practitioners of Pittsburg, both for the purposes of bathing and of drinking; but the peculiar medicinal qualities of the Alleghany water are, perhaps, more to be attributed to the faith of those who use it, than to any inherent character of superior salubrity.

The *Monongahela* river rises at the foot of the Laurel mountain, in Virginia; thence, through various meanderings, passes into Pennsylvania, receiving in its course the Cheat and Youghiogheny rivers, and many smaller streams. It has already been stated that this river unites with the Alleghany at Pittsburg. Twelve or fifteen miles from its mouth, it is about 300 yards wide, and is navigable for boats and small craft, particularly in autumn and spring, when it is

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Monongahela.

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generally covered with what are called trading and family boats; the former loaded with flour, cider, whiskey, apples, and various kinds of wrought materials; the latter carrying furniture, domestic utensils, and agricultural instruments, destined for Kentucky and New Orleans.

Another principal river of North America, and the most considerable one in the eastern states, is the Connecticut.

It rises in the highlands to the S. of New Brunswick, in W. lon. 72°, and N. lat. 45°, 10'. After a lingering course of eight or ten miles, it has four separate falls; and turning W. keeps close under the hills which form the northern boundary of the vale through which it runs. The Annonosack and Israel rivers, two principal branches of the Connecticut, fall into it from the E. between the latitudes 44° and 45°. Between the towns of Walpole on the E. and Westminster on the W. side of the river, are the Great falls. The whole river, compressed between two rocks, scarcely thirty feet asunder, shoots with amazing rapidity into a broad basin below. Over these falls, a bridge, 160 feet in length, was built in 1784, under which the highest floods may pass without difficulty. This is the first bridge that was ever erected over this noble river. Above Deerfield, in Massachusetts, it receives Deerfield river from the W. and Miller's river from the E.; after which it turns westerly in a sinuous course, to Fighting falls, and a little after tumbles over Deerfield falls, which are impassable by boats. At Windsor, in this state, it receives Farmington river from the W.; and at Hartford meets the tide. From Hartford it passes on in a crooked course, until it falls into Long island sound, between Saybrook and Lyme. The length of river, in a straight line, is nearly 300 miles. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth, where there is a bar of sand, which considerably obstructs its navigation. On this beautiful river, whose banks are peopled almost if not now entirely, to its source, stand numerous well-built towns.

Charles. *Charles River* has its sources, five or six in number, in the state of Massachusetts, on the S. E. side of Hopkinton and Holliston ridge. The main stream runs N. E. then N. and north-eastwardly, round this ridge, until it mingles with Mother-brook. The river thus formed runs westward, passing over numerous romantic falls. Bending to the N. E. and E. through Watertown and Cambridge, and passing into Boston harbour, it mingles with the waters of the Mystic river at the point of the peninsula of Charlestown. It is navigable for boats to Watertown, seven miles.

Taunton. *Taunton River* rises in the Blue mountains, forming the principal drain of the country lying E. of those mountains. Its course is about 50 miles from N. E. to S. W.; and is navigable for vessels to Taunton. It finally empties into Narraganset bay, at Tiverton. The rivers *Cowardin*, *Mystic*, *Medford*, *Ipswich*, and many others, contribute to the beauty and commercial interests of Massachusetts.

Hudson. To the state of New York belongs the noble stream called *Hudson River*, and frequently *North River*. It rises in a mountainous country, between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. In its course, south-easterly, it approaches within six or eight miles of lake George; then, after a short course E., turns southerly, and receives the Saratoga from the S. W. within a few miles of the Mohawk river. The course of the river thence to

New York, where it empties itself into York bay, is almost uniformly S. Its whole length is about 250 miles.

The banks of Hudson, or North river, especially on the western side, as far as the highlands extend, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The passage through the highlands, which is sixteen or eighteen miles, affords a wild romantic scene. In this narrow pass, on each side of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compressed, and blows continually as through a bellows; vessels, in passing through it, are often compelled to lower their sails. The bed of this river, which is deep and smooth to an astonishing distance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of some of the highest mountains in the United States, must undoubtedly have been produced by some mighty convulsion of nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany; to which place it is navigable for sloops of eighty tons, and for ships to Hudson. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes fresh, and is stored with fish of various kinds. The advantages which this river affords to the inland trade of the state, and those which, by means of the lakes, it renders to the trade with Canada, are very great. These have been considerably enhanced since the invention of steam-boats, of which there are several, of amazing size, on this river, on which that memorable invention was first successfully tried, in the year 1807. Some of them, though equal in length to a ship of the line, travel through the Narrows, and along the whole course of this river from New York to Albany, at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour, against wind and tide. The distance, it is said, has been run down the stream in seventeen hours; formerly an uncertain voyage of three or four days, or even a week or two, according to the state of the winds and tides. The average time is twenty-four hours. Ferry-boats, propelled by steam, and so constructed that carriages drive in and out at pleasure, may be observed at every large town on this fine river. These convenient vehicles are likely to supersede the use of bridges on navigable waters. They are, in fact, a sort of flying-bridge, with this advantage over the numerous and costly structures of that kind which now span the broad surface of the Susquehanna, in the interior of Pennsylvania—they do not require such expensive repairs; they may be secured from the effects of sudden floods; and, what is of far more importance, they present no obstruction to navigation. The growing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudson must annually increase the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New York. In almost every point of view, this river is one of the greatest utility in the United States.

The *Onondago* river rises in a lake of the same name, and, running westerly, falls into lake Ontario, at Oswego. With the exception of a fall, which occasions a portage of twenty yards, this river is navigable for boats from its mouth to the head of the lake; thence bateaux go up Wood creek, almost to Fort Stanwix, whence there is a portage of a mile to Mohawk river. Towards the head waters of this river salmon are caught in great quantities.

The *Mohawk* river rises to the northward of Fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Sable river, a water of lake Ontario, and runs southerly 20 miles to the fort; then eastward 110 miles, and, after receiving

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The Dela-
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New Pica-
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Columbia.

Macken-
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&c.

Cataracts of
Niagara.

many tributary streams, falls into North river, by three mouths, opposite to the cities of Lausburgh and Troy, from seven to ten miles N. of Albany. This is a very fine river, and is navigable for boats nearly the whole of its course. Its banks were formerly thickly settled with Indians, but now cultivation and civilization have rendered its course a busy scene of mercantile pursuit and increasing population.

The *Delaware*, the *Susquehanna*, *Tyoga*, *Seneca*, *Genesee*, and the N. E. branch of the *Alleghany* river, all belong to the state of New York; and such is the intersection of the whole state, by the various branches of these and other rivers, that there are few places, throughout its whole extent, that are more than fifteen or twenty miles from a navigable stream.

The river *Savannah* divides the state of Georgia from South Carolina, and pursues a course nearly from N. W. to S. E. The freshes of this river will sometimes rise from thirty to forty feet perpendicular above the actual level of the stream.

The *New Piscataqua*, having four extensive branches, all of them navigable for small vessels, furnishes the commencement of a line, which, drawn from its northern head, until it meets the boundary of the province of Quebec, divides New Hampshire from the province of Maine. The *Merrimack*, remarkable for two considerable falls, *Amascogee*, and *Panuckee*, bears that name from its mouth to the confluence of the *Pernigewasset* and *Winnipisaukee* rivers, which unite in about lat. 43°. 30'. The first of these rivers forms the only port of New Hampshire. Great Bay spreads out from *Piscataqua* river, between Portsmouth and Exeter.

Columbia River is the principal stream that has been explored on the N. W. coast of America. It is called, by the Indians, *Tacoute-Tesse*, and is formed by innumerable streams from the Rocky mountains, rising between the 43° and 53° of N. lat. The principal stream has a course of 700 British miles to the ocean, which it enters at N. lat. 46°.

Mackenzie's River is another noble stream, which has lately become known to geographers. It was originally explored by Mr. Mackenzie, in 1789; and is first called the *Unjiga*, or *Pear River*, which flows from the neighbourhood of the Rocky mountains, in about lat. 56°, into the Lake of the hills, and afterwards under the name of the Slave river, proceeds in a N. W. direction to the Slave lake, whence it issues by the name of Mackenzie's river, to what he has marked as the Arctic ocean, in W. lon. 135°, and N. lat. 69°, 14', after a course of 1,700 miles.

Copper-mine River is only worth noticing in the same direction, as traced by Mr. Hearne, in 1771, to another supposed point of the Arctic ocean, in 113° W. lon. and upon about the same parallel on the mouth of Mackenzie's river.

Each of these streams, thus generally described, to give the reader some impression of the chief features of this continent (and some of them being peculiar to no single district), will again receive our attention in their alphabetical places.

CATARACTS.—Some of the chief wonders of this western hemisphere are found in its cataracts, or falls, which do not consist of single streams precipitated from hill to vale in picturesque beauty, as in the Alps, but of whole rivers tossed from broken mountains into immense basins below. The first in magnitude are

The *Cataracts of Niagara*, in Lower Canada, between

the lakes Erie and Ontario, distant about eighteen miles from the town of Niagara, and situate upon a river of the same name. These falls may be regarded as presenting one of the most interesting of all the phenomena in the natural world. "At Queenston," says Lieutenant Hall, "seven miles from the falls, their sound, united with the rushing of the river, is distinctly heard. At the distance of about a mile, a white cloud, hovering over the trees, indicates their situation: it is not, however, until the road emerges from a close country into the space of open ground immediately in their vicinity, that the white volumes of foam are seen, as if boiling up from a sulphureous gulph. Here a foot-path turns from the road, towards a wooded cliff. The rapids are beheld on the right, rushing, for the space of a mile, like a tempestuous sea. A narrow tract descends about sixty feet down the cliff, and continues across a plashy meadow, through a copse, encumbered with masses of limestone; extricated from which, I found myself on the Table Rock, at the very point where the river precipitates itself into the abyss. The rapid motion of the waters, the stunning noise, the mountain clouds, almost persuade the startled senses, that the rock itself is tottering, and on the point of rolling down into the gulf, which swallows up the mass of descending waters. I bent over it, to mark the clouds rolling white beneath me, as in an inverted sky, illumined by a most brilliant rainbow,—one of those features of softness which Nature delights to pencil amid her wildest scenes, tempering her awfulness with beauty, and making her very terrors lovely.

"There is a ladder about half a mile below the Table Rock, by which I descended the cliff, to reach the foot of the fall. Mr. Weld has detailed the impediments and difficulties of this approach, and Mr. Volney confesses they were such as to overcome his exertions to surmount them. A few years, however, have made a great change; the present dangers and difficulties may be easily enumerated. The first is, the ordinary hazard every one runs who goes up or down a ladder; this is a very good one of thirty steps, or about forty feet; from thence the path is a rough one, over the fragments and masses of rock which have gradually crumbled, or been forcibly riven from the cliff, and which cover a broad declining space, from its base to the river brink. The only risk in this part of the pilgrimage, is that of a broken shin from a false step. The path grows smooth as it advances to the fall, so that the undivided attention may be given to this imposing spectacle. I felt a sensation of awe as I drew near it, like that caused by the first cannon on the morning of battle. I passed from sunshine into gloom and tempest: the spray heat down in a heavy rain; a violent wind rushed from behind the sheet of water: it was difficult to respire, and, for a moment, it seemed temerity to encounter the convulsive workings of the elements, and intrude into the dark dwellings of their power: but the danger is in appearance only: it is possible to penetrate but a few steps behind the curtain, and in these few, there is no hazard; the footing is good, and the space sufficiently broad and free: there is not even a necessity for a guide; two eyes amply suffice to point out all that is to be seen, or avoided."

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The most stupendous of these cataracts is that on the British, or north-western side of the river Niagara, which, from its resemblance to the shape of a horse-shoe, has received the appellation of "the Great, or Horse-shoe fall;" but this name is no longer strictly applicable. It has become an acute angle, and the alteration is estimated at about eighteen feet in thirty years. The height of this fall is 142 feet. But the two others (for there are three falls, owing to the circumstance of small islands dividing the river Niagara into three collateral branches) are each about 160 feet in height. The largest has been reckoned at about 600 yards in circumference. The width of the island, which separates the "Great Fall" from the next in magnitude, is estimated at about 350 yards. The second fall is said to be only five yards wide. The next island may be estimated at about thirty yards in size; and the third, commonly called the "Fort Schloper Fall," is about 350 yards. According to these calculations, the islands being included, the entire extent of the precipice is 1,335 yards in width. It is supposed that the water carried down these falls amounts to no less a quantity than 670,255 tons per minute. A kind of white foam surrounds the bottom of "Fort Schloper Fall," and rises up in volumes from the rocks: it does not, however, as at the Horse Shoe fall, ascend above in the form of a cloud of smoke and mist, but the spray is so abundant that it descends like rain upon the opposite bank of the river. The whirlpools and eddies immediately below, are so dangerous as to render the navigation completely impracticable for six miles. The river Niagara, above the falls, however, is unavailing by boats and canoes as far as Fort Chippaway, which is about three or four English miles from them. But, on approaching nearer, the waters are in such a state of agitation, as to require the boat or canoe to be kept in the middle of the stream, and, without skilful management, would inevitably dash it to destruction. The middle of September is considered as the most pleasant time of the year for the examination of these celebrated falls, the surrounding forests being richly variegated with the autumnal colouring. At this season the traveller is not exposed to the danger of meeting with noxious reptiles and insects of the country, which completely disappear in the chilly nights.

St. Anthony's Falls.

St. Anthony's Falls, in the river Mississippi, are situated about ten miles from the mouth of the river St. Pierre, which joins the Mississippi from the W. These falls were first discovered by Louis Hennipin, in the year 1680, and received their present name from that traveller, who was the first European ever seen by the natives in these parts. The river falls perpendicularly above thirty feet, and is about 250 yards in width. The rapids, which are below, in the space of about 300 yards, render the descent apparently greater when it is viewed at any considerable distance. These falls are so peculiarly situated as to be approachable without any obstruction from a hill or precipice, and the whole surrounding scenery is singularly pleasing.

The Cohaz.

The Cohaz, or falls of the river Mohawk, between two and three miles from its entrance into North river, are a very great natural curiosity. The river, above the falls, is about 300 yards wide, and approaches them from the N. W. in a rapid current, between the high banks on each side, and pours the whole body of its water over a perpendicular rock of about 40 feet in height, which extends quite across the river like a

mill-dam. The banks of the river, immediately below the falls, are about 100 feet high. From a noble bridge, erected in 1794 and 1795, the spectator may have a grand view of the Cohaz; but they have the most romantic and picturesque appearance from Lausburgh hill, about five miles E. of them. The river, immediately below the bridge, divides into three branches, which form several large islands.

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

CANALS.—The rivers and lakes of North America Canals, are in many places connected together by CANALS, which furnish an artificial assistance to the communication established in other instances by Nature. The principal interior canals, which have been already completed in the United States, are the *Middlesex Canal*, uniting the waters of the Merrimack river with the harbour of Boston; and the canal *Caramoleet* extending from Bayou St. John to the fortifications or ditch of New Orleans, and opening an inland communication with lake Pontchartrain.

On the 17th of April, 1816, and the 15th of April, 1817, the state legislature of New York passed acts appropriating funds for opening navigable communications between the lakes Erie and Champlain and the Atlantic ocean, by means of canals connected with the Hudson river. This magnificent undertaking is already begun, and promises to make effectual progress under the auspices of Governor Clinton. We have before us, at this moment, the official report of the canal commissioners; but the extent and the capabilities of these works will be noticed at greater length, when we come to speak of the physical resources of the United States.

DESERTS.—North America does not furnish any of Deserts, those vast sandy deserts which occur with such frequency, and spread to such an extent in Africa and Asia; for even in the most torrid regions of this continent there is so great an exuberance of water, as to be considered, by some writers, as a sufficient proof of the theory of its having recently emerged.

CLIMATE.—America exhibits every variety of climate, every kind of soil, and almost every species of natural produce which the earth affords, besides many animal and vegetable productions peculiar to this quarter of the globe. Stretching through the whole width of the five zones, she feels the heat and cold of two summers and two winters every year. The heat of summer and the cold of winter are more intense than in most parts of Europe. Fahrenheit's thermometer, near Hudson's bay, sometimes rises in July to 85°, and sinks in January to 45° below zero. The severest cold is from the N.W.; but the predominant winds are from the W. The middle provinces are remarkable for the variations of weather and the rapidity of its transitions.

It has been thought that, speaking generally, the climate both of North and South America may be stated to be colder than, considering its position on the globe, might be expected; to this a variety of causes contribute. Among these may be reckoned, with regard to the latter, the form of that continent, which is exceedingly contracted in breadth in its approach towards Cape Horn; so that far considerably more than one-third northwards of that extremity, it is very narrow in comparison with the other divisions, and the consequence of this tapering is an exposure to the winds which blow over that immense extent of ocean, which stretches on either side, and southward to the

N. AME-
RICA.
Geographi-
cal details.

Antarctic circle. Very much to the southward it is remarkable of these seas, that cold is prevalent to a greater degree than in similar parallels in the north, owing, doubtless, chiefly to the superior frigidity of the polar regions, whence the winds acquire their severity. This remark, however, must be considered as restricted in its application to the high latitudes. M. Humboldt states, that this difference is not perceptible between the tropics, and very little so far as the 35th and 40th degrees of latitude. On the western side of America, it is said, that generally the climate is more temperate and warm than on the eastern, which is to be attributed to the ridge of mountains forming a barrier against the colder winds that assail the more exposed countries, and occasioning those of a milder kind, and more adapted to the climate, to diffuse their warmth and influence.

Another cause conducing to the effect we have noticed, is the existence of mountains of such prodigious altitude and extent; and which, though in some parts especially, they may form a shelter from the inclement winds, that would otherwise sweep over a considerable portion of the western side of the continent, contribute, nevertheless, in another point of view, to the general predominance of cold. The eternal snows which are collected on their summits, must necessarily refrigate the atmosphere, and diminish the degree of the temperature.

In estimating the causes of the comparative coolness we have mentioned, the very considerable elevation of the surface of this continent must not be overlooked. That the mean temperature of any place is materially affected by its elevation, has been ascertained by unquestionable experiments, and for a reason which is sufficiently obvious. Between the higher and lower parts of the atmosphere, a perpetual intercommunication is carried on, the warm columns of air ascending from the surface whence they have received their heat, and a proportionable column, or stream, descending from the upper regions. The space in which this vertical interchange takes place being several thousand times smaller than the range of the horizontal currents which connect the equator with the poles, an equilibrium is produced, and the same absolute quantity of heat exists at every height in the atmosphere. But the capacity of air is affected by its density, otherwise an uniform temperature would prevail throughout the vertical column; and the power of containing heat, increasing as the density is diminished, the temperature of the higher regions of the atmosphere is reduced in proportion; so that the temperature at any given elevation, is in the inverse ratio of the capacity for retaining heat in the air of such density. Hence we have a formula for expressing the diminution of temperature in the perpendicular ascent, and though the gradation is not precisely uniform, owing to certain local peculiarities and influences, the decrease is more rapid in the superior regions.

There is yet another consideration which has been very fully elucidated by some writers, with regard to the North American continent, and which is also applicable to the Southern division. The uncultivated state of a country is believed considerably to affect the climate, and in both regions immense tracts remain wholly uncultured, being covered with forests, marshes, and mountains. Some very interesting estimates have been made from actual experiment by Mr. Williams,

in North America, which fully illustrate this subject. By clearing the land of its forests, and exposing the earth to the sun, its heat, at the depth of ten inches below the surface, was ten or twelve degrees greater than that of the uncultured parts, which must, of course, influence the superincumbent atmosphere, so that both the earth and air experience an increased temperature of ten or eleven degrees in the cultivated districts. And it is well known, that the climate of the United States has materially improved since they have been under the hands of the diligent agriculturists, who have, from time to time, within these few years, settled in every direction. Mr. Williams suggests, with very great probability, that an amelioration of the climate of Europe has taken place from a similar cause. Many of the great rivers which were formerly frozen over during winter, now continue their course, unchecked to any considerable degree, by the severity of the cold. The Euxine sea, which the Roman writers assure was as anciently often covered with ice, at this period exhibits no such appearances; and consequently the improvement of the European climate, by about fifteen or sixteen degrees, may be attributed to the progress of cultivation.

MINERALS.—In the Apalachian mountains very distinct strata are found. The central, or highest, is granite; the next schistose, and the exterior belts calcareous. The granite is again divided into felspar, pellucid or bluish quartz, and black mica. The schistose, although, in other regions, it is generally metalliferous, here yields copper ore only; but in Canada it contains lead, and, as some have attested, silver. The limestone, according to Mr. Pennant, contains petrifications, particularly the corn ammoniac, a small shell of the scallop kind, and several species of corals.

In the primitive calcareous rock are likewise found veins of granite, and sometimes whole banks of it. From its situation, it is obvious that it must have been contemporary in its deposition with the original rock. Near Philadelphia, talc lies in large quantities, instead of mica. Hornblende, quartz, and marble, are deposited in veins like minerals. The granite mountains in America, unlike those of any other region, approach nearest the sea, but the rocks at a distance are chiefly calcareous, and breccia and argillaceous schistus sometimes are deposited over the red primitive limestone. Calcareous rocks gird and surround the lakes of Upper Canada; whilst from Montreal to the sea, the granite is the chief component. At the island of St. Helena, on the coast of Carolina, the mountains are chiefly of granite; and in the mountain of Beloeil is found much black schist. The black slate mentioned by the Duc de Rochefoucault, is the same as the black schistose limestone of Kalm, a Swedish traveller and a most skilful naturalist. Grey granite and schistus compose the rock of Quebec, and from the quartz crystals which were found there, this rock is sometimes called the Rock of diamonds. In this neighbourhood limestone and granite are intermingled; the slaty stone strikes out through the unpaved streets of Quebec to the frequent annoyance of the traveller; but the grey granite stone of the vicinity has furnished many noble buildings, of late years, to the town. The bank of Newfoundland has been considered as a rock of granite, covered with mud. In the vicinity of Boston and New York a soft granite is found in rocks, in

N. AME-
RICA.
Geographi-
cal details.

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

which limestone and schists are mixed. Near Carolina and Florida, those mountains which are composed of granite, are at a considerable distance from the sea, and wear the appearance of its having retired from their base.

Kalm, the traveller above-mentioned, describes a substance of which the mountains of North America often consist, which is unknown by modern mineralogists, but may be termed calcareous granite, the absence of felspar being supplied by grey primitive limestone; of which, together with purple or garnet-coloured quartz, and black mica, it is, in fact, entirely composed. Aquafortis causes the limestone to effervesce, and some particles of felspar are found. A mountain near the river St. Lawrence contains red felspar, black mica, white limestone, with grains of purple or red quartz. Near the Isle of Orleans, grey quartz, reddish and grey limestone, and grains of sand, compose the hills. Fragments of granite, mixed with schist minerals, without any calcareous substance, were discovered by the Swedish naturalist near Fort St. Frederick, or Crown point; and ammonites, of about two feet diameter. He observed a quantity of red sand, which appeared like pulverized or decomposed garnets, near the lake Champlain. The calcareous granite, before-named, frequently occurs in Pennsylvania, and is used at Philadelphia in building. The lapis ollaris of New England is spotted with the stony asbestos; and green soap-rock and amianthus are frequent in Pennsylvania. From fine basalt the hatchets of the savages were made; their knives of quartz and petroselin; their kettles and tobacco-pipes of lapis ollaris, either grey or green, though the tobacco-pipes of some of the chiefs were of a beautiful red serpentine, from the W. of the Mississippi river.

Volney, who wrote on the climate and soil of America, makes a supposititious division of the United States into five distinct regions—the granitic, the sandstone, the calcareous, the sea-sand, and river alluvions.

The granitic commences at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence and ends at Long island. It is mixed with sand-stone and limestone, in New Hampshire and Maine, except the White mountains in New Hampshire, which are granite. The river Mohawk appears to be the dividing line of the granite and the sand-stone; but in the river Susquehanna some granite is found; and at the base of the S. W. chain of the White mountains in Virginia.

The whole of the Appalachian mountains are sandstone according to this arrangement; and, towards the N. W. the sand-stone ends in slate and marl. The Katekill mountains are of the same sand-stone as the Blue Ridge.

The calcareous region commences at the W. of the Appalachian mountains, and runs to the Mississippi, and, as some have supposed, to the Rocky mountains. This stratum lies horizontally, at depths proportioned to the depositions of soil.

The region of sea-sand runs along all the shore from Long island to Florida. It is bounded towards the land side by a seam of granite, full of large mica, or rather talc; and this boundary runs uninterruptedly along the coast from the W. bank of the river Hudson to the river Roanok in N. Carolina; its breadth is from two to six miles, its extent 500. This boundary generally marks the limits of the tide, and frequently occasions falls

in the rivers. The land between the granite ridge and the sea varies in breadth from thirty to 100 miles, and is evidently sand recently brought by the ocean, whose limits were originally determined by this hill of granite. The bare rocks projecting into the sea are granite, which seems to indicate that the sand brought in by the sea merely covers rocks of this description.

The region of the river alluvions extends from the granitic ridge to the base of the sand-stone mountains; hence it appears that the ridge of granite in the Appalachian chain is narrow and lower than in the sand-stone.

In the states of New York and of Massachusetts great quantities of iron-ore, gypsum, and salt are found.

Gold, silver, lead, copper, and zinc are dug from various American mines, but, except in the Spanish dominions, these metals are as yet by no means in plentiful quantities; and as long as manufactures are imported with so much ease, and so little comparative expence from the old continent, it is not likely that the hidden treasures of American ore will be brought into view. Talc abounds in Pennsylvania and New York in large plates, and in New Hampshire is perceived adhering to rocks of white or yellow quartz. There is a remarkable hill, called Diamond hill, in Rhode island, which contains a variety of singular sparkling stones, whose characteristics have not yet been investigated.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—The magnificence and variety of the vegetable productions of America bear their full proportion to the other stupendous features of its geography. Its numerous forests are scarcely diminished by the recent and widely-extended efforts of cultivation; and its fields produce every species of grain, fruit, pulse, herbs, plants, and flowers indigenous to Europe, besides an incalculable number of others peculiar to this continent, as the cocoa-tree, the cinnamon, pepper, sarsaparilla, vanilla, scarlet dye, tobacco, balsams of various kinds, brazil and logwood, saffron, aloes, and azibar, incense, gums, resins, &c. In North America, though the forests are not overspread with the same luxuriant vegetation as in the Southern continent, yet the trees are generally more lofty, and, upon the whole, exceed in size the same species in other parts of the world. In the forests of North America there are several species of oak-trees; the principal of which are the quercus phellos (the willow-leaved oak), the prinus (the chestnut oak), the white oak, the red, and the black. There are also two kinds of walnut-trees, the black and the white, much valued for their oily nuts. The forests likewise abound in European beech and chestnut-trees. The tulip-tree and sassafras laurel appear as mere shrubs on the frontiers of Canada; but in the midland states they attain to great height and beauty. On the northern sides of the mountains, in the southern states, the sugar maple-tree is found, but reaches its fuller size in the more northern climate of the New England provinces. The sweet gum-tree, the iron-wood, the nettle-tree, the American elm, the red maple, the black poplar, and various others are to be discovered in each of the United States. Pines grow in abundance in the light and sandy tracts; and of this useful timber the chief species are the Pennsylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock spruce-fir; the black, the white, and Weymouth pine, toge-

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

Vegetable productions.

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

ther with the larch-tree. A variety of pines, together with white and red oaks, on the drier parts, and juniper and cypress trees, on the more moist, overspread the large tract of the country in the eastern part of Virginia and North Carolina, called *Diurnal Swamp*, which contains 150,000 acres of land. The trees are prodigiously large, and, unlike other North American forests, a thick brushwood pervades the whole.

Among the chief vegetable productions which flourish in the Floridas and South Carolina, may be reckoned the mangrove-tree, the only shrubby plant which can grow in salt waters; and the white-flowering panicum. Some of the rich tracts of country in the southern states produce the palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the broom pine, and the red cedar. The white, glistening columns of the papaw fig-tree aspire to the height of about twenty feet, and being crowned with a canopy of wide-spreading leaves, form a striking feature in this delightful scenery, which is still further diversified and adorned by the golden fruitage of the orange-tree, first introduced into these regions by the Spanish colonists. The most remarkable plant, however, in these districts, is the great magnolia, which sometimes rises above 100 feet, with a trunk perfectly erect, surmounted by a dark-green foliate, of a conical shape. From the centre of the cone expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson cone, containing the seeds, of a beautiful coral colour, and these, falling from their cells, remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel, by a silky thread of about six inches in length: so that, whether viewed in this state or in blossom, it exhibits a richness of colouring and beauty of form surpassed by no other plant.

The swamps are distinguished by the crowded stems of the cane, some of them from twenty to thirty feet in height; the tupelo-tree, a species of *nyssa aquatica*; the fringe-tree, and the elegant white cedar. "This last," says Mr. Pinkerton, "is perhaps the most picturesque tree in all America: four or five enormous buttresses or rude pillars rise from the ground, and unite in a kind of arch, at the height of about seven feet, and from this centre there springs a straight column, 80 or 90 feet high, without a branch: it then divides into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely-divided leaves of the most delicate green. This platform is the secure abode of the eagle and the crane; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the paroquets that are constantly fluttering around."

The level plains, on the sides of the rivers and the champagne countries in America, are called savannahs. The trees which grow upon their surface are of the aquatic genus, as the magnolia glauca, or beaver-tree, American olive, and *gordonia lavinthus*, covered with blossoms; the candleberry myrtle, with various species of azaleas, kalmias, and *rhododendrons*, arranged into groves and shrubberies, entwined by the crimson granadilla, and the luxuriant climber. The sides of the pools are covered with the bright azure flowers of the iris, the golden blossoms of the canna lutea, and the rose tufts of the hydrangea. The groves and the forests which skirt the verdant savannahs are adorned by innumerable species of the plover, by the sensitive plant, the dionaea, the mayrillus atamasco, and the royal palmetto, in prodigious quantities.

Almost all the fruits of the European garden have been reared in America, in great perfection. The peaches of Virginia, much cultivated for the sake of the peach-brandy, for which that state is celebrated; the apricots, nectarines, and apples, are remarkably fine. The humble potatoe is a native; top-grounds have been planted to some extent; and tobacco is the well-known product of Virginia, where the grasses are numerous, particularly the red clover. Hemp and flax, in so considerably agricultural a country as the United States, have not escaped the diligent attention of the farmer: the maize, or Indian corn, is a native grain; and wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, rice, oats, beans, and peas, succeed well in almost all parts of the Union. The rice is more particularly cultivated in the southern and western states.

QUADRUPEDS.—The bones of the mammoth, which *Quadrupes* is supposed to be extinct, are said to be found in various parts of America. They are of an enormous size; and Mr. Jefferson states the teeth of this animal to be five or six times as large as those of the elephant.

Among the larger wild animals is the bison, which is seen in herds on the banks of the Mississippi. The musk bull and cow are only to be found in the more western districts beyond that river. The moose-deer, a large species of elk, is now become scarce, and it is thought will soon be extinct. The useful rein-deer inhabits the northern regions of British America. The stag resembles the same animal in Europe, but is larger. It is seen in herds, along with the Virginian deer, on the plains adjacent to the Missouri and Mississippi. The lama is a valuable beast of burden, capable of carrying a load of 150 or 200 weight; but its pace is very slow, and it is incapable of proceeding more than about fifteen miles in a day. The most rugged and precipitous paths are descended by this animal without any comparative difficulty. The paco, or vicuña, is valued chiefly on account of its wool, which is warm, while it is light and silky, and of the colour of a dried rose-leaf. Both the lama and the vicuña inhabit principally the cold mountainous regions. Two species of bears, both of them black, are found in the northern United States; the carnivorous ranging bear and the wolf are to be seen in all the states. Captains Lewis and Clarke frequently encountered the white or brown bear in the N. W. interior, an animal of a most ferocious description; they also saw herds of antelopes, buffaloes, and wolves. There are several kinds of foxes, as the gray fox, the fox of Virginia. The wolverine is generally thought to be a species of bear. The ferocious animals of America are essentially different from those of the other continents. There are no lions, tigers, panthers, or leopards throughout its whole extent; though the cougar, an animal about five feet in length, found in the southern states, has been called the tiger of America. The catamount, or cat of the mountains, is found in the northern or middle states, and is also sometimes, according to Mr. Pennant, denominated the American panther. Of the cat kind, there exists a large number of smaller beasts of prey, as the lynx, ocelot, and margay, which, with the beaver, are esteemed for the furs with which they supply the hunters. The cell, or cabin of this useful creature is built in ponds for the sake of security; the animal itself seems to feed upon leaves and the twigs of trees, and not on fish, as is commonly reported. Its habits are imitated by the musk-

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

N. AMERICA.

Geographical details.
Birds.

rat, who builds his hut in shallow streams. Monkeys are said to be found in the southern states.

BIRDS.—Vultures, eagles, owls, hawks, kites, woodpeckers, cranes, herons, cuckoos, pelicans, teal, plovers, abundant; besides an immense number of other birds, for which we have no nomenclature. The singing-birds of North America are inferior in the melody of their notes, but superior in the beauty of their plumage to those of Europe. The wren derives its name from alarming the birds near it on the approach of danger. The humming-bird, and a variety of others of great beauty abound in Virginia. The turkey, which was introduced into Europe in the year 1524, is an aboriginal of America, and abounds in the northern states. On the lakes are various kinds of aquatic fowl, of which the wild swan is the largest, sometimes weighing thirty-six pounds.

Reptiles.

REPTILES.—America, which contains many extensive forests, and a considerable proportion of marshy land, may be expected to abound in reptiles and insects. Naturalists and travellers have given accounts of serpents from twenty-five to fifty feet in length; of which a species of the boa constricta is the largest. Next to this in importance, and more frequently found, are the rattlesnake and the coral-snake, whose bite discharges a virulent poison. There are also various species of lizards, crocodiles, tortoises, vipers, and adders.

Insects.

INSECTS.—Among the insects may be particularly noticed the wheat-fly, called also the Hessian-fly, which is very injurious to the species of corn from which it derives its appellation. The generally-received opinion of its having been imported from Europe does not seem well founded, since, in Giovanni's narrative of fifty different insects that infest Italian wheat, this species is not specified. The yellow-bearded wheat of the United States is said to be exempt from its destructive power. Beetles, flies, spiders, mosquitoes, hornets, &c. are almost numberless.

Fish.

FISH.—The American coasts abound in fish of all kinds and sizes, from the ponderous whale to the minute minnow; there exists also, in the seas of America, that extraordinary animal the torporific eel, which, if it be touched with an iron rod, or with the hand, gives a violent sensation resembling the electric shock. The ink-fish is a great curiosity; it is furnished with a cyst of black liquor, which may be reckoned a tolerable substitute for ink. When pursued by its enemies it emits this liquid, and darkens the water with it to such a degree as to render it difficult, if not impossible, for its pursuer to follow. The white trout, which is caught in the lakes, is remarkable. The recent accounts of the sea-serpent which has been seen off the coast of North America, are at present too unauthenticated in their details to admit of any classification of the animal. The fishing-bank, of which those of Newfoundland are the principal, will claim our notice in a subsequent part of this article.

Population.

POPULATION.—Various estimates of the population of the New World have been made by different writers: some assign to North America alone 12,500,000, and 13,000,000 to South America; while others allow scarcely 15,000,000 to both continents. The native tribes, thinly scattered over an immense extent of territory, are considered, by Morse, to be about 2,500,000 in number, and are supposed never to have exceeded

3,000,000. According to a statement made in 1817, including the last census of the American government, the resident population of the United States alone is estimated at 10,405,547; and the entire population of the western hemisphere, at 40,000,000. The great rage for emigration which, within these few years past, has infected the minds of Europeans, must, however, put aside all certainty of conclusion respecting the actual population of this extensive continent. The stream of emigration is evidently towards the United States; but many thousand persons sail annually from England and other countries to Canada. Within the year 1817 only, the population of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada are said to have received an accession of 5,000 individuals.

§ III. Political and Moral state of North America.

North America is politically divided into the territories of the UNITED STATES, those of GREAT BRITAIN and SPAIN, and a small portion of UNCONQUERED COUNTRY. If Greenland be united with the continent, Denmark must also be considered as one of the powers in possession of America.

The original and unconquered inhabitants are scattered throughout the line of unexplored country to which we have already alluded; and are more mixed with Europeans in the Spanish than in any other of the modern settlements. They are not supposed, as we have seen, to exceed in number above two millions and a half. Spain claims all the land W. of the Mississippi, and East and West Florida. By the treaty of 1783, between the United States and Great Britain, it is stipulated that the latter shall occupy all that part of America which lies N. of the northern boundary of the United States and E. of the river St. Croix. By the same treaty, it is stipulated, that the boundaries of the United States shall be from the N. W. angle of Nova Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due N. from the source of St. Croix river to the highlands; along those highlands, which divide the rivers emptying themselves into the river St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down, along the middle of that river, to the forty-fifth degree of N. latitude; and thence, by a line due W. on the same latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois, or Cataroguy; thence, along the middle of that river, into lake Ontario; through the middle of that lake, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and lake Erie; thence, along the middle of this communication in lake Erie, through the middle of the lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and lake Huron; thence, through the middle of the same lake, to the water communication between that lake and lake Superior; thence, through lake Superior, northward of the isles Royal and Phillips; next, to the Long lake; thence, through the middle of the Long lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the woods, to this last-named lake itself; thence, through it, to the north-westernmost point thereof; and from thence, in a due course W. to the river Mississippi; thence, by a line to be drawn along the middle of this river, until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of N. latitude. South, by a line to be drawn due E. from the determination of the line

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral.
State.

Political division of N. America.

N. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

last-mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees N. of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola, or Catahouche; thence, along the middle thereof, to its junction with the Flint river; thence straight to the head of St. Mary's river; and thence, down along the middle of St. Mary's river, to the Atlantic ocean. East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth, in the bay of Fundy, to its source; and, from its source, directly N. to the aforesaid highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic ocean from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shore of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due E. from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the bay of Fundy and the Atlantic ocean; excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia.

The United States are situated between 25°, 50', and 49°, 37' N. lat. and between 10° E. and 48°, 20' W. lon. from Washington. The most northern part is bounded by a line running due W. from the N. W. corner of the Lake of the woods, and the southern extremity is the outlet of the Rio del Norte. The eastern extremity is the Great Menan island, on the coast of Maine, and the western extremity is cape Flattery, N. of Columbia river, on the Pacific ocean. Their greatest extent, from N. to S. is 1,700 miles, and from E. to W. 2,700. Their surface covers more than 2,500,000 square miles, or 1,600,000,000 acres.

CHAP. I.

OF THE UNITED STATES.

In 1788, the number of square acres in the United States amounted to 283,800,000, of which only about 1,250,000 were cultivated; and in 1808 to 600,000,000, of which about 2,500,000 were in a high state of cultivation. At the present time, the American writers estimate them at the enormous increase of 1,600,000,000 acres. Of this it can only be remarked, that the accession of Louisiana and the lands cleared westward hardly account for an vast an addition of territory.

POPULATION.—The increase of the population during this period exceeds all preceding instances. In the year 1749, the whole white population of the North American colonies, now the United States, amounted, according to M. PITKIN (*Statistical View of the Commerce, &c. of the United States*, New York, 1817), only to 1,046,000, in the following proportions:

New Hampshire	30,000
Massachusetts	220,000
Rhode Island	35,000
Connecticut	100,000
New York	100,000
The Jerseys	60,000
Pennsylvania and Delaware	250,000
Maryland	85,000
Virginia	85,000
North Carolina	45,000
South Carolina	30,000
Georgia	6,000

1,046,000

The following table will show the increase of population which has taken place within twenty-seven recent years:

States.	Square miles.	Number of Inhabitants.		
		1790.	1800.	1817.
Vermont	10,000	85,539	154,465	296,450
New Hampshire	9,800	141,885	183,858	302,733
Maine	31,750	96,540	151,719	318,647
Massachusetts	8,500	378,787	422,845	564,392
Rhode Island	1,700	68,825	69,122	98,721
Connecticut	4,500	237,946	251,092	349,568
New York	54,000	340,120	586,050	1,486,739
New Jersey	6,500	184,139	211,149	345,822
Pennsylvania	48,700	434,373	602,545	986,404
Delaware	1,800	59,094	64,273	108,334
Maryland	14,000	319,728	349,692	502,710
Virginia	75,000	747,610	886,149	1,347,496
Kentucky	52,000	73,677	220,959	583,753
North Carolina	49,000	393,751	478,105	701,224
South Carolina	32,700	240,073	345,591	564,785
Georgia	64,000	82,548	162,686	408,567
Western Territories	35,691	45,365
District of Columbia	100	14,093	37,692
Tennessee	63,000	105,602	489,624
Ohio	45,000	394,762
Louisiana	49,000	108,923
Indiana	38,000	5,641	86,734
Mississippi	55,000	104,550
Illinois Territory	66,000	39,000
Michigan ditto	47,600	9,743
Missouri ditto	1,987,000	68,794
Total	2,814,550	3,929,336	5,303,666	10,405,647

N. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
United States.
Physical capacity.

PHYSICAL CAPACITY.—Although it will not accord with our plan to give, in this place, any minute details of each particular state of the American Union, the following facts, bearing upon the general physical powers of the country, are too important to be overlooked.

The state of New York is 10,000 square miles larger than all England and Wales. The harbour of New York is a roadstead capable of containing all the navies of the world. Baltimore now contains 60,000 souls, much wealth, and increasing commerce, whereas fifty years ago no such place existed.

Kentucky, in 1770, contained not a single white inhabitant; but in 1790 there were 73,677 white people; in 1800 there were 220,960 inhabitants; and in 1817 nearly 700,000.

New Orleans was, in 1783, nothing but a small colony of smuggling Spaniards; but in 1817 it reckoned nearly 40,000 inhabitants; and the internal trade to and from this port exceeded that of all the New England states together; 600 flat-bottomed boats and 300 barges, in 1816, navigated the Mississippi in this direction, with produce from the western states.

It appears that the whole of the population of the United States has been doubled during the last twenty-five years; and it is asserted that the same causes are continuing to operate, and will undoubtedly again produce a similar effect in the next quarter of a century. This immense increase of numerical power has been repeatedly and triumphantly pressed upon us by the Americans as a proof of the comparative unimportance of the Old World, and as the fearful menace before which all her Trans-atlantic possessions, and perhaps the independence of many of the countries of Europe must eventually fall. Some circumstances, however, which will afterwards present themselves in the course of our account of the government, and of the political and moral state of this country, will serve to show that extent of empire is not always indicative of proportional strength, and that mere numbers, without political and moral bonds of union, are likely to act without combination, without order, and therefore without effect.

The late political convulsions throughout Europe will certainly account for some part of the increase of American population; but the main causes are, doubtless, the immense extent of yet unoccupied country; the high price of wages; the great demand for labour; the quantity and the proportionate cheapness of the land; the smallness of the public debt, and consequently of the taxes; to which may be added the cheapness of provisions.

Bristed says* that the United States are much less indebted for the increase of their population to the emigrants from other countries than is usually supposed; for that 5,000 persons, during the last twenty-five years, may be taken as the annual average of the emigrants who arrived on their shores; and full half of that number have re-emigrated to Canada.

The average of births to the deaths in the United States, is as 100 to forty-eight. The annual average of deaths about one in forty persons; and in the most unhealthy districts one in thirty-five. About five in every thousand attain the ages of eighty to ninety years; whereas in Europe there are only three to a thousand.

The Americans possess an insatiable thirst after commercial speculation. The merchants of this continent carry on trade with almost all parts of the globe; but the great bulk of their mercantile transactions abroad is with Great Britain. France possesses also a considerable share in the commerce of America. They trade also considerably to Spain, Portugal, and Holland, and to the various ports of the Baltic and the Mediterranean. Their trade to the East Indies has greatly increased within the last few years.

The United States export about one-fourth of their agricultural produce, which consists of wheat, flour, rice, Indian corn, rye, beans, peas, potatoes, beef, tallow, hides, butter, cheese, pork, &c.; horses, mules, sheep, tobacco, cotton, indigo, flax-seed, wax, &c. The following is the amount in value of exports, during eight successive years, consisting of vegetable food only:

In 1802,	\$12,790,000	In 1811,	\$20,391,000
1803,	14,080,000	1814,	2,179,000
1807,	14,432,000	1815,	11,234,000
1808,	2,550,000	1816,	13,150,000

Their imports embrace every European article of utility and amusement, and every luxury of the east.

As the rivers of the United States are more numerous, they are also much more navigable than those of Europe. The Hudson, or North river is navigable above 200 miles from the sea. Above all, the Mississippi is navigable E. and W. about 1,700 miles in a straight line; and in its northern to its southern extreme points, 1,680 miles. This river and its branches spread over surface of about 1,500,000 square miles, through the territories of Mississippi, Missouri, North-east, and Illinois; and the states Indiana, Ohio, New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, the two Carolinas, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Louisiana.

Several mighty plans are in agitation, which, if projected, will wonderfully accelerate the internal communications and trade of the country. It is proposed to form canals and great roads from N. to S. along the whole Atlantic shore. To cut a communication between the Atlantic and western waters, and between the Atlantic waters and those of the great lakes and the river St. Lawrence; and to make interior canals as they may be wanted. The especial use of these works will appear from considering that the United States have a tidewater inland navigation, defended from storms, &c. reaching from Massachusetts to the S. of Georgia, through the extent of which only four small isthmuses intervene, viz. the isthmus of Barnstable in Massachusetts; that peninsula of New Jersey which extends from the Raritan to the Delaware; that between the Delaware and the Chesapeake, and the marshy land which divides the Chesapeake from Albemarle sound.

In February, 1817, the house of representatives and senate in congress passed a bill to raise a fund for internal improvement. The more immediate object of this fund is to complete the communication from Maine to Louisiana; to connect the lakes with the river Hudson, and all the other great commercial points on the Atlantic, such as Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Richmond, Charlestown, and Savannah, with the western states; and the W. with New Orleans. This bill, however, has not as yet received the sanction of a law, for Mr. Madison, the president, refused his

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
United States.
General remarks.

* View of America and her Resources, 405, &c.

N. AMERICA.
Political and Moral State.
—
United States.

Rivers.

Canals.

signature, on the plea that congress had no power to order any such internal improvements, as it interfered with the authority of the separate states. This appears also to be the opinion of Mr. President Monroe, who nevertheless recommends, in a message to the senate and representatives for Ordering an Amendment to be made in the federal government, to create a power for the purpose. The committee of the house of representatives reports, on the 15th of December, 1817, that congress has such a power; and thus the question remains for the present undecided.

Four artificial roads, it has been stated, might be made from the four great western rivers, viz. the Alleghany, the Monongahela, the Kanhawa, and the Tennessee, to those Atlantic rivers which most correspond and are nearest, viz. the Susquehanna, or Juniata; the Potomac; James river; and either of the rivers Santee or Savannah, and these roads may be continued from thence to the nearest sea-ports. The improvement of the navigation of these rivers too might be promoted by cutting canals round the different falls, and the mountains avoided either on the N. by the Mohawk valley and lake Ontario, or on the S. through Georgia and the Mississippi territory.

Another and similar improvement to the S. might be effected by traversing with canals the country lying between the sources of the Chatahouchee and Mobile rivers and the gulf of Mexico, a district which presents, it is said, no considerable obstacles to the plan. This would connect the Mississippi with the Atlantic ocean through a tract of about 550 miles.

Many vessels, from 100 to 400 tons burden, are now built every year on the Ohio, as high up as Pittsburg, which not only take down the produce of the country where they are built to New Orleans, but, in turn, take in cargoes of sugars and other commodities at that port, and carry them across the Atlantic.

But that which has of late, more than any thing else, contributed to the internal intercourse and improvement of the states in this direction, and has almost given birth to the commerce of New Orleans, is the invention of steam-boats, which are able to stem the rapid tide of the Mississippi river to and from that port; whereas, formerly, the vast inundations and the strong current of the river, prevented the navigation for many months of the year; the produce from the adjoining country was principally carried to market by land, none but that more immediately in its neighbourhood being transported to New Orleans.

Steam-boats now carry merchandise up to the falls of Louisville, on the Ohio, from New Orleans, a distance of 1,700 miles. To avoid these falls, land-carriage is used for two miles, but it is calculated that a canal might be formed for about half a million of dollars, in which case, steam-boats might pass up to Pittsburg, a further distance of 700 miles.

From Louisville to New Orleans and back again, along the rapid Mississippi, a distance of 3,400 miles, these boats run in thirty-five or forty days. To the advantage of celerity must be likewise added the superior safety from damage of the goods conveyed by these boats, in comparison with the rough and jolting waggons. The average speed of a steam-boat, against the stream and heavily laden, is sixty miles per day.

The physical capacities and capabilities of the United

States, therefore, may be summed up under the following heads, viz.

1. Extent of territory, greater than that of any power in Europe.
2. Extent of sea-coast, upwards of 2,000 miles.
3. Amazing richness of soil, and capability of maintaining 500,000,000 of people.
4. Natural internal navigation, already immense.
5. Artificial and improved navigation, at present great, and capable of being extended to an indefinite degree.

NAVY.—The navy of the United States at present consists of 100 ships, brigs, and schooners, besides small sloops and gun-boats. Nine of these are rated at 74, but carry 90 guns; ten rated 44 guns; one 38 guns; two 36 guns; two 32 guns; and thirty from 28 to 16 guns; and it is to be observed, that all of these exceed in the actual number of their guns the nominal rate. Their officers have also increased in the same proportion. At the commencement of the last war, there were thirteen captains, nine masters, and seventy lieutenants. During this war there were sixteen captains, twenty-eight masters commanding, and one hundred and twenty lieutenants.

It appears very doubtful whether the emancipation of the Spanish colonies will benefit the United States: the reverse seems probable; for, since the peace of 1815, between Great Britain and America, the imports of manufactured goods from the former have beaten those of the latter out of her own markets, and Great Britain would be enabled to sell her manufactures cheaper in South America, than is possible to the people of the United States. The last contest between the United States and Great Britain seems also to have proved that internal manufactures are not the objects of wise policy with the United States, but that external commerce, protected by, and, in its turn, strengthening a navy, is their sure road to power and prosperity.

COMMERCE.—The commerce of the United States Commerce has advanced in proportion to its increase in population. This may be best demonstrated by the following table, furnished originally by Lord Sheffield, in his "Observations on American Commerce," and which form the earliest data of Mr. Pitkin's "Statistical View" of this subject.

	Imports from the colonies, now United States.	Exports to the colonies, now United States.
Average		
from 1700 to 1710	£265,783 0 10	£267,205 3 4
from 1710 to 1720	392,653 17 1½	365,645 6 11½
from 1720 to 1730	578,830 16 4	471,342 12 10½
from 1730 to 1740	670,128 16 0½	660,136 11 1½
from 1740 to 1750	708,943 9 6½	812,647 13 0½
from 1750 to 1760	802,691 6 10	1,577,419 14 2½
from 1760 to 1770	1,044,591 17 0	1,763,409 10 3
from 1770 to 1780	743,560 10 10	1,331,206 1 5

N. AMERICA.
Political and Moral State.
—
United States.
Summary.

Navy.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.Various
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This table, as Mr. Pitkio remarks, was taken, undoubtedly, from the custom-house entries in London, to which the irregular and smuggling trade of the colonies (very considerable during some of these years) cannot be included. Previous to the American revolution, it should also be observed that the trade of the colonists was limited to Great Britain, that part of Europe lying S. of cape Finisterre, the West Indies, and Africa.

By a report of the secretary of state, of the 16th of December 1793, having reference to the year 1792, it appears, that the countries with which the United States at that time had their chief commercial intercourse, were Spain, Portugal, France, Great Britain, the United Netherlands, Denmark, and Sweden, and their American possessions; and that the articles of export, constituting the basis of that commerce, with their respective amount, was as follows, viz.

	Dolls.
Bread stuffs, that is to say, bread grain, meal, and bread, to the annual amount of	7,649,887
Tobacco	4,349,567
Rice	1,753,796
Wood	1,263,534
Salted fish	941,686
Pot and pearl ashes	839,093
Salted meats	599,130
Indigo	537,379
Horses and mules	339,753
Whale-oil	252,591
Flax-seed	236,072
Tur, pitch, and turpentine	217,177
Live provisions	137,743
Foreign goods	620,274

\$19,737,692

The proportion of these exports, which went to each of the nations before-mentioned, and their dominions, the secretary states as follows:

	Dolls.
To Spain and its dominions	2,005,907
Portugal and ditto	1,283,462
France and ditto	4,698,735
Great Britain and ditto	9,363,416
United Netherl ^d & ditto	1,963,880
Denmark and ditto	224,415
Sweden and ditto	47,240

The imports, from the same countries, are also stated to be, from

	Dolls.
Spain and its dominions	335,110
Portugal and ditto	595,763
France and ditto	2,068,348
Great Britain and ditto	15,285,428
United Netherl ^d & ditto	1,179,692
Denmark and ditto	351,364
Sweden and ditto	14,325

\$19,823,030

The above account does not include the whole amount of exports at that period, as many articles of smaller value than those mentioned are not included.

The progressive increase of American commerce,

from 1795 to 1801, will be seen by the following extract from Mr. Pitkin's tables:

	Exports. Dolls.	Imports. Dolls.
1795	47,855,556	69,756,258
1796	67,064,097	81,436,164
1797	56,850,206	75,379,406
1798	61,527,097	68,551,700
1799	78,665,522	79,069,148
1800	70,971,780	91,232,708
1801	93,020,573	111,363,511

From 1803 to 1816, including the interesting period of the war with Great Britain and the years immediately preceding and succeeding that event.

Years.	Total Exports.	Exports of do- mestic origin.	Exports of fo- reign origin.
1803	\$35,800,033	\$42,205,961	\$13,594,079
1807	108,343,150	48,699,592	59,643,558
1808, i. e. embargo year	22,430,960	9,433,546	12,997,414
1810, em- bargo off	66,757,970	42,366,675	24,391,295
1814, war with Eng- land	6,927,441	6,782,272	145,169
1815	52,557,753	45,974,403	6,583,535
1816	81,920,452	64,781,896	17,138,556

Of the domestic exports, the produce of agriculture amounts, in value, to three-fourths; the produce of the forest, one-ninth; of the sea, one-fifteenth; and manufactures, one-twentieth. Of the foreign exports, the proportions in 1807 (the greatest commercial year ever experienced by the United States), being the year immediately preceding the embargo, were \$43,525,320, imported from the British Isles; \$3,812,065, from France and her dependencies; and \$11,318,532, from the rest of the world.

From the documents furnished to congress by the secretary of the treasury in 1806, of the trade of the United States with different parts of the world during the years 1802, 3, and 4, Mr. Pitkin supplies us with the following calculations. During these three years, the annual value of the imports into the United States was \$75,316,937; and of the exports, \$68,461,000. Of the imports the proportions were,

From Britain	\$35,970,000
the northern powers, Prussia, and Germany	7,094,000
the dominions of Holland, France, Spain, and Italy	25,475,000
the dominions of Portugal	1,083,000
From China, and other native powers of Asia	\$4,856,000
all other countries	838,000

During the same three years, 1802, 1803, and 1804, the annual value of domestic exports was \$39,928,000

Of which was exported

To the British dominions	20,653,000
the northern powers, Prussia, and Germany	2,918,000

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.

N. AME- RICA. Political and Moral State. — United States.	To the dominions of Holland, France, Spain, and Italy	\$12,183,000
	the dominions of Portugal	1,925,000
	all other countries	2,249,000
	The annual value of foreign produce, re-exported to all parts of the world during those three years, was	\$28,533,000
	Of which was exported	
	To the British dominions	3,054,000
	the northern powers, Prussia, and Germany	5,051,000
	the dominions of Holland, France, Spain, and Italy	18,495,000
	the dominions of Portugal	396,000
	all other countries	1,537,000
	Annual value of importations being . . .	75,316,000
	exports—domestic	
	produce	39,928,000
	foreign produce	28,533,000
		68,461,000
	Apparent balance against the United States	\$6,855,000
	The imports for the year 1807, just prior to the embargo on foreign trade, inflicted by Mr. Jefferson's ad- ministration, and from which the commerce of America is not yet fully recovered, were, in value . . .	138,574,876
	exports—domestic	
	produce	\$48,699,592
	foreign produce	59,643,558
		108,343,150

The following summary is extracted from the Treasury documents for 1817:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

16th January, 1818.

SIR,—I have the honour to transmit a statement of the exports of the United States, during the year end- ing the 30th of September, 1817, amounting, in value, on articles	
Of domestic produce or manufacture, to	\$68,313,500
Of foreign produce or manufacture, to	19,358,069
	\$87,671,569
Which articles appear to have been exported to the following countries, viz.	
	Domestic. Foreign.
To the northern countries of	
Europe	\$3,828,563 2,790,408
To the dominions of the Ne- therlands	3,397,775 2,387,543
Do. of Great Britain	41,431,168 2,037,074
Do. of France	9,717,423 7,177,395
Do. of Spain	4,530,156 3,893,780
Do. of Portugal	1,501,237 333,586
All other	3,907,178 5,198,283
	\$68,313,500 19,358,069

I have the honour to be,

Very respectfully, Sir,

Your most obt. servant,

WILLIAM H. CRAWFORD.

The Hon. the Speaker of the House of Representatives.

By this report it appears that there were exported from the United States, from the 1st day of October, 1816, to the 30th day of September, 1817, of the growth and manufacture of the United States, 17,751,376 dollars worth of flour, and 23,127,614 dollars worth of cotton, making, in these two items alone, 40,278,990 dollars. The whole value of exports for the same year, including foreign articles, amounts to 87,671,569 dollars. Of this sum 18,707,433 was exported from the port of New York.

Summary of the value of exports from each State.

States.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.
New Hampshire	\$170,559	26,825	197,424
Vermont	913,201		913,201
Massachusetts	5,908,416	6,019,571	11,987,997
Rhode Island	577,911	372,556	950,467
Connecticut	674,290	28,949	604,139
New York	13,660,533	5,046,700	18,707,433
New Jersey	5,849		5,849
Pennsylvania	5,538,003	3,197,589	8,735,592
Delaware	38,771	6,083	44,854
Maryland	5,887,884	3,046,046	8,933,930
Dist. of Columbia	1,689,102	79,556	1,768,658
Virginia	5,561,238	60,204	5,621,442
North Carolina	955,211	1,369	956,580
South Carolina	9,944,343	428,270	10,372,613
Georgia	8,530,831	259,883	8,790,714
Ohio	7,749		7,749
Louisiana	8,241,254	783,558	9,402,812
Territory of U. S.	108,115		108,115
Total	\$68,343,500	19,358,069	87,671,569

In the midst of this splendid display of the resources of that country, which has been our rival and enemy, it is gratifying to observe, that the trade between Great Britain and the United States more than equals that between the United States and all the rest of the world. Hence it follows, that a war between the English and their former colonists is not only un-natural, but perhaps equally against the interest of both countries; certainly, and most decidedly detrimental to the United States.

The great increase of their imports may be deduced from the following statement of average yearly mer-
chandise consumed, paying ad valorem duties.

Three years from 1790 to 1792	\$19,310,801
Six years 1793 to 1798	27,051,440
Three years 1805 to 1807	38,549,966

In the article sugar alone, 10,000,000 lbs. were made in 1810, in the territory of New Orleans, now state of Louisiana; and 20,000,000 lbs. are said to have been made in 1817. The increase of the registered tonnage employed in foreign trade is also immense. From the year 1793 to 1801, the increase was 358,815 tons, being doubled in these eight years. From 1793 to 1810, the increase was 616,535 tons. The increase of tonnage employed in the coasting trade, from 1793 to 1810, was 283,276 tons.

This coasting trade is by no means an unimportant branch of the resources of the United States, tending, as it does, to nourish a race of hardy seamen. The large fisheries serve the same purpose. These advantages have been nourished with peculiar care in

N. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

United States.

Agriculture.

our own case, and, doubtless, will be supported with equal solicitude by the United States.

AGRICULTURE.—The United States, as a nation, is yet in every respect in her youth. This, therefore, is the season of her labour, and the period for enterprise; in both of which she not only has the advantage of that experience which has been so dearly purchased by all the rest of the civilized world, but an ample scope of territory to exercise and reward her efforts. That the encouragement of agriculture must enter decidedly into her policy, and that agricultural pursuits must form the employment of the major part of her population for some time to come, if she aspire to a solid eminence among the nations is clear from the extent of her territory alone; or this very circumstance may enfeeble her strength and precipitate her ruin. Their actual necessities dictated to her first settlers an attention to agriculture; while the enormous increase of population has at once encouraged and demanded extensive enclosures of unoccupied and uncultured territory in more modern times, of which the government has assumed the active proprietorship, and become, in fact, the great farmer of the soil. Hitherto the means of subsistence have happily increased with the demand for it, and the agriculturist of moderate capital and moderate view would appear to have no prospects more promising than those which may be found in America. The very peculiarity in the agricultural labour of America will also demonstrate that the really *skilful* farmer will here find sufficient encouragement. One man spreads his labours over a far greater surface of land than can be given to an individual in England. It follows, therefore, that the science of agriculture is more perfect in England than in the United States; that is, that more produce is procured from a certain quantity of ground in the former than in the latter country; in other words, any given number of working men produces far more in America; any given number of acres has hitherto given far less produce. Her agricultural productions have been classed into, 1st, Vegetable food, such as wheat, flour, rice, Indian corn, rye, peas, beans, potatoes, &c.; 2d, Product of animals, in beef, tallow, hides, butter and cheese, pork and lard; or the animals themselves, as live cattle, horses, mules, sheep, &c.; 3d, Tobacco; 4th, Cotton; 5th, Indigo, flax-seed, wax, and other inferior articles.

Wheat.

Wheat is the staple of the middle states, and Maryland and Virginia have latterly exchanged many of their tobacco-lands for this invaluable grain, the cultivation of which was also, during the late war, greatly substituted for cotton in the southern states. The official value of wheat, flour, and bread, exported from the North American colonies, now the United States, in 1770, was \$36,020 l. 6s. 11d. or about \$2,862,190; in 1811 (owing, however, greatly to the enhanced price of those articles that year) it was \$14,662,000. The West Indies, Spain, and Great Britain, are the great consumers of American wheat and flour. A large proportion (particularly of the latter) finds a ready market in the islands; seasons of scarcity in Great Britain and the south of Europe bring the United States into successful competition with the ports of the Baltic, and the late protracted contests in Spain and Portugal created an astonishing demand in those countries for these indispensable supplies. In 1812, 8,865 bushels of wheat were sent to Spain, and 33,591 to Portugal; of flour,

in the same year, 381,726 barrels to Spain, and 557,218 to Portugal. In 1813, 74,409 bushels of wheat to Spain, and 431,101 barrels of flour; 214,126 bushels of wheat, and 542,399 barrels of flour to Portugal: the official value of these exports, in the latter years, to both countries, being \$11,213,441 at the places of exportation; in the foreign market they were worth full \$15,000,000. In 1801, a season of scarcity in Great Britain, the United States exported thither 216,977 bushels of wheat, and 479,720 barrels of flour. In 1807, 569,950 bushels of wheat, and 323,986 barrels of flour.

It appears to be as difficult in North America as in England to fix any average price of wheat that would fairly remunerate the grower and satisfy the consumer; nor does it appear to have been attempted. In 1806 and 1807, years of the largest exportation, the average price of wheat was \$1 27 per bushel, and of flour \$7 50 per barrel.

The relative importance of the American commerce in these staple articles of the agricultural world, compared with that of the grain countries of Europe, will appear from the fact, that, in the years 1801 and 1802, about eight millions of bushels of wheat were, according to Oddy (*European Commerce*, vol. II.), shipped from all the ports of the Baltic taken collectively; and from the United States, according to Mr. Pitkin, about five millions nine hundred thousand bushels, falling only about two millions short of the entire quantity of the great market of European trade; and reckoning, as the Americans do, about five bushels of wheat to one barrel of flour. The average value of all kinds of grain exported from the Baltic, in common years, is about two millions sterling, or nine millions of American dollars. In particular years, it has amounted to eight millions. The entire value of American grain, including rice, shipped from the ports of the United States, on an average of the years 1805, 6, and 7, was about twelve millions and a half of dollars; and in the particular years 1811, 1812, and 1813, about twenty millions, eighteen millions, and nineteen millions, respectively. In the first of those years, that of the greatest exportation ever known in America, and, as we have seen, a year of high prices, the official value of

Wheat, flour, and biscuit exported, was	\$14,662,000
Indian corn and meal	2,895,000
Rice	2,387,000
All other grain, including pulse and potatoes	446,000

Total . . . \$20,391,000

Wheat was brought into America by the original settlers, as well as rice, which was first cultivated in South Carolina, and became the staple of the province. Indian corn, or maize, was found amongst all the Indian nations, except in the higher northern climates, where the summer is too short for its cultivation. In 1816, one of the best years for the exportation of rice, 137,843 tierces were shipped abroad; at the official value of \$3,555,000. Rice finds its best and principal markets in Europe; Indian corn in the West Indies, and, ground into meal, in Spain and Portugal. In times of scarcity, small quantities of it are sent to Europe; before it is ground into meal it undergoes a drying process by the kiln. Most of the rye grown

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

United States.

N. AME. RICA. in the United States is made into bread, or used in distillation at home.

The distillation of ardent spirits has increased prodigiously of late years throughout the Union, and three-fourths of it is from grain. In 1801 the entire distillation from grain and fruits was only about 10,000,000 gallons; in 1810 it exceeded 20,000,000. A bushel of rye is calculated to yield from two and a-half to three gallons of spirits, making the consumption of rye for this article, in the latter year, therefore, between five and six millions of bushels. About five million gallons were in the same year distilled from molasses. The whole of this immense quantity of spirits is consumed at home, together with upwards of six million gallons imported, making a total of 31,725,417 gallons, according to the official returns, and allowing, it is said, about four gallons and a half per annum to each person in the states.

Beef, pork, tallow, hams, butter and cheese, laid, live cattle and horses, are also valuable branches of the export trade to the West Indies. Of these articles, as exports, in 1815 and 1816, the following were the proportions and value:

	Beef, tallow, hides, and live cattle.	Butter and cheese.	Pork, lard, bacon, and live hogs.	Horses and mules.	Sheep.	Total.
	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.
1815	407,000	942,000	498,000	155,000	30,000	1,532,000
1816	738,000	925,000	719,000	364,000	45,000	2,691,000

Tobacco. Tobacco is indigenous to America, and finds its principal market in the north of Europe, Great Britain, France, and Holland. Before the revolution, it is said to have constituted, in value, between a quarter and one-third of all the exports of the North American colonies. Since that period its average value, as an export, has not exceeded, and scarcely equalled what it was the middle of the last century. From 1802 to 1807 this was about \$6,000,000; from 1808 to 1813, only 2,300,000. In 1815 and 1816, it averaged ten million dollars, owing to the quantity on hand and high prices; in the former year 34,149 hhdts. at an average of \$96, were shipped to Great Britain; and in 1816, 31,756, at \$185.

Cotton. Cotton is another important modern article of American growth and exportation, called the sea-land and upland cotton; the former growing along the coasts, the latter in the higher parts of the interior. A machine, of American invention, used in the cleaning of the upland cotton, has much improved the prospect of the agriculturist in cultivating it, and given birth indeed to the article as an export. Prior to this invention, in 1793, the plant was little grown, and scarcely a pound of it exported; it has now become the principal object of the South Carolina and Georgia planters, and nearly supplanted their indigo. In 1792 the entire exports of the United States were valued only at \$20,753,098; and in 1807 this new article of commerce amounted to more than half that sum. Great Britain is the principal market for American cotton; the whole quantity of which, as an export, amounted, in 1791, to 189,316 lbs. In 1815 and 1816 we find the returns as follow:

	Sea-land.	Upland.	Official value.	N. AME. RICA.
1815	8,449,951	74,548,796	\$17,529,000	
1816	9,900,326	72,046,790	24,106,000	

To Great Britain alone, in 1807, the custom-house entries of this article amounted to \$11,953,378.

Flax-seed (generally shipped to Ireland) is thus valued during the same period:

	Bushels.	Value.
In 1815	267,101	\$ 326,000
1816	636,467	1,082,000

Indigo, which has lately been neglected for the growth of cotton, constituted, for a long period, the second great staple of Carolina; 216,924 lbs. of this article were exported from South Carolina alone in 1754; and just before the revolution, upwards of one million pounds was the annual average. In 1794 we find 1,550,800 lbs. among the returns to congress; but a considerable portion of this is supposed to have been foreign indigo re-imported.

The following table exhibits the comparative value of the produce of the sea, of the forest, of agriculture, and of manufactures exported, for each year, from 1803 to 1816:

	Of the sea.	Of the forest.	Of agriculture.	Of manufactures.	Comparative values of sea, forest, &c. products.
	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	Dolls.	
1803	2,635,000	4,850,000	32,995,000	1,355,000	
1804	3,420,000	4,630,000	30,890,000	2,100,000	
1805	2,884,000	5,261,000	31,562,000	2,300,000	
1806	3,116,000	4,861,000	30,125,000	2,707,000	
1807	2,804,000	5,476,000	37,832,000	2,120,000	
1808	832,000	1,399,000	6,746,000	344,000	
1809	1,710,000	4,583,000	23,234,000	1,506,000	
1810	1,481,000	4,978,000	33,502,000	1,917,000	
1811	1,413,000	5,286,000	35,556,000	2,376,000	
1812	935,000	2,701,000	24,555,000	1,355,000	
1813	304,000	1,107,000	23,119,000	380,000	
1814	188,000	570,000	5,613,000	246,300	
1815	912,000	3,910,000	38,910,000	1,553,000	
1816	1,331,000	7,293,000	53,354,000	1,755,000	

From this it appears, that on an average of eight years, from 1803 to 1811, the produce of agriculture constituted about three quarters, in value, of all the domestic exports of the United States; the produce of the forest, about one-ninth; of the sea, about one-fifth; and manufactures, about one-twentieth.

These documents, for which we are principally indebted to the second edition of Mr. Pitkin's recent work, will best demonstrate to the sober calculator the relative importance of American agriculture. To that work, and our future article on the UNITED STATES, we must refer for further details; but the progressive march of this mighty empire to what may prove an almost indefinite prosperity, must be interesting at every stage. We are not amongst the converts of Mr. Birkbeck's popular reasoning on the unequalled advantages of his adopted country; but a passage or two from his picturesque description of the manner of settlement in the western territory, toward which all the redundant population of *Old America*, as it is now called, is migrating with such eagerness as are Europeans, may well close our remarks on this subject.

"The land, when intended for sale, is laid out in the government surveys in quarter sections of 160 acres, being one-fourth of a square mile. The whole is then

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

United States.

Emigrants in the western territory.

offered to the public by auction, and that which remains unsold, which is generally a very large proportion, may be purchased at the land-office of the district, at two dollars per acre, one-fourth to be paid down, and the remaining three-fourths at several instalments, to be completed in five years.

"The poor emigrant, having collected the eighty dollars, repairs to the land-office, and enters his quarter section, then works his way without another "cent" in his pocket, to the solitary spot, which is to be his future abode, in a two-horse wagon, containing his family, and his little all, consisting of a few blankets, a skillet, his rifle, and his axe. Suppose him arrived in the spring; after putting up a little log cabin, he proceeds to clear, with intense labour, a plot of ground for Indian corn, which is to be their next year's support; but, for the present, being without means of obtaining a supply of flour, he depends on his gun for subsistence. In pursuit of the game, he is compelled, after his day's work, to wade through the evening dews, up to the waist, in long grass, or bushes; and returning, finds nothing to lie on but a bear's skin, on the cold ground, exposed to every blast through the sides, and every shower through the open roof of his wretched dwelling, which he does not even attempt to close, till the approach of winter, and often not then. Under these distresses of extreme toil and exposure, debarred from every comfort, many valuable lives have sunk, which have been charged to the climate.

"The individual, whose case is included in this seeming digression, escaped the ague, but he lay three weeks delirious in a nervous fever, of which he yet feels the remains; owing, no doubt, to excessive fatigue. Casualties, doubly calamitous in their forlorn estate, would sometimes assail them. He, for instance, had the misfortune to break his leg at a time when his wife was confined by sickness, and for three days they were only supplied with water, by a child of two years old, having no means of communicating with their neighbours (neighbours ten miles off perhaps) until the fourth day. He had to carry the little grain he could procure, twelve miles to be ground; and remembers once seeing at the mill, a man who had brought his sixty miles, and was compelled to wait three days for his turn.

"Such are the difficulties which these pioneers have to encounter; but they diminish as settlements approach each other, and are only heard of by their successors. The number of emigrants who passed this way, was greater last year than in any preceding; and the present spring they are still more numerous than the last. Fourteen waggoners yesterday, and thirteen to-day, have gone through this town. Myriads take their course down the Ohio. The waggoners swarm with children. I heard to-day of three together, which contain forty-two of these young citizens. The wildest solitudes are to the taste of some people. General Boon, who was chiefly instrumental in the first settlement of Kentucky, is of this turn. It is said, that he is now, at the age of seventy, pursuing the daily chase, 200 miles to the westward of the last abode of civilized man. He had retired to a chosen spot, beyond the Missouri, which, after him is named Boon's Lick, out of the reach, as he flattered himself, of intrusion; but white men, even there, inroached upon him, and two years ago he went back 200 miles farther." (June 11, 1817.)

In another place he says, "From what I have seen, and heard from others, of America, east of the Alleghany mountains, I judge that artisans in general will succeed in any part of it; and that labourers of every description will greatly improve their condition: in so much, that they will, if saving and industrious, soon lay by enough to tempt them to migrate still farther in quest of land, on which they may establish themselves as proprietors. That mercantile adventurers would be likely to succeed as well, but not better than in England; that clerks, lawyers, and doctors, would gain nothing by the exchange of countries. The same of master manufacturers in general."—Notes on a Journey in America, 8vo.

In his Letters from Illinois, Mr. Birkbeck furnishes us with the following calculations:

"Copy from my memorandum-book.

"Estimate of money required for the comfortable establishment of my family on Bolting-house, now English, prairie; on which the first instalment is paid. About 720 acres of wood-land, and 720 prairie, the latter to be chiefly grass:

	Dols.
Second instalment, August 1819, 720 dollars;	
third, Aug. 1820, 720 dollars; fourth, Aug. 1821, 720 dollars	2,160
Dwelling-house and appurtenances	4,500
Other buildings	1,500
4,680 rods of fencing; viz. 3,400 on the prairie, and 1,280 round the wood-land	1,170
Sundry wells, 200 dollars; gates, 100 dollars; cabins, 200 dollars	500
100 head of cattle, 900 dollars; 20 sows, &c. 100 dollars; sheep, 1,000 dollars	2,000
Ploughs, waggons, &c. and sundry tools and implements	270
House-keeping until the land supplies us	1,000
Shepherd one year's wages, herdsman one year, and sundry other labourers	1,000
One cabinet-maker, and one wheelwright, one year, making furniture and implements, 300 dollars each	600
Sundry articles of furniture, ironmongery, pottery, glass, &c.	500
Sundries, fruit-trees, &c.	100
First instalment already paid	720
Five horses on hand, worth	300
Expence of freight and carriage of linen, bedding, books, clothing, &c. &c.	1,000
Value of articles brought from England	4,500
Voyage and journey	2,000

Dollars 23,820

£5,359 sterling.

Allow about 600 dollars more for seed and corn

141

£5,500."

The entire cost of purchasing, fencing, and watering the land until it shall begin to yield a profit, either as pasture or arable, according to this gentleman, averages about 18s. an acre. Buildings, &c. included, Mr. B. calculates that 2000*l.* would suffice for 640 acres.

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N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

United States.

Emigrants in the western territory.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.

"As to obtaining *labourers*," says Mr. Birbeck, "a single settler may get his labour done by the piece on moderate terms, not higher than in some parts of England; but if many families settle together, all requiring this article, and none supplying it, they must obtain it from elsewhere. Let them import English labourers, or make advantageous proposals to such as are continually arriving at the eastern ports."

"Provisions are cheap of course. Wheat three and fourpence sterling per bushel. Beef and pork twopence per pound, groceries and clothing dear, building moderate, either by wood or brick. Bricks are laid by the thousand, at eight dollars or under, including lime."

"Privations I cannot enumerate. Their amount depends on the previous habits and present disposition of individuals: for myself and family, the privations already experienced, or anticipated, are of small account compared with the advantages."

"Horses, 60 to 100 dollars, or upwards; cows, 10 to 20 dollars; sows, 3 to 5 dollars."

"Society is made up of new comers chiefly, and of course must partake of the leading characters of these."

"Roads as yet are in a state of nature."

"Purchases of land are best made at the land-offices: payments, five years, or prompt; if the latter, eight per cent. discount."

"Mechanics' wages, 1 dollar to 1½. Carpenters, smiths, shoemakers, brickmakers, and bricklayers, are among the first in requisition for a new settlement: others follow in course—tanners, saddlers, tailors, hatters, tin-workers, &c. &c."

"We rely on good markets for produce, through the grand navigable communication we enjoy with the ocean."

"Medical aid is not of difficult attainment. The English of both sexes, and strangers in general, are liable to some bilious attacks on their first arrival: these complaints seem, however, simple, and not difficult to manage if taken in time."

"The *manufactures* you mention may hereafter be eligible: cotton, woollen, linen, stockings, &c. Certainly not at present. Beer, spirits, pottery, tanning, are objects of immediate attention."

"The *minerals* of our district are not much known. We have excellent limestone; I believe we have coal: wood will, however, be the cheapest fuel for some years."

"*Implements* are cheap till you commence with the iron. A waggon, 35 or 40 dollars, exclusive of tier to wheels. A strong waggon for the road, complete, will amount to 160 dollars or upwards."

"The best mode of coming from England to this part of the western country is by an eastern port, thence to Pittsburg, and down the Ohio to Shawnee town. Clothing, bedding, household linen, simple medicines of the best quality, and sundry small articles of cutlery and light tools, are the best things for an emigrant to bring out."

Manu-
factures.

MANUFACTURES.—Though very great encouragement is everywhere given to ingenious European and other mechanics and handicraftsmen, the manufactures of America are yet in their infancy; but they have of late greatly improved. Whilst land, however, is so cheap, and wages are so high, continual impediments

most arise to mechanists, and encouragements, in proportion, to agriculturists. It has been recommended to carry this principle into every part of the produce of the land; to the fruits of the earth, as well as to the raw material, cotton, sugar, &c. which, being prepared in their crudest possible form, may be exported to Europe for completion in manufacture, even for their home consumption, at the place where these articles are first grown."

At the period when the importation of all manufactures was lately stopped from Europe, and the Americans were actually forced into them, no less than a capital of \$1,000,000,000 was employed in the manufactures of the United States; but so soon did the external cause cease to operate, that the internal stimulus was also found deficient. The manufactures, although established quickly, broke up, and now not more than \$500,000,000 are employed; so impossible has it been found to force this system upon the economy. There is consequently no stated and continuous employ for any one man in the United States; he is successively a farmer, a lawyer, a clergyman, a merchant, a congress man, a soldier, and a diplomatist; he is, in fact, freed from all restraint as to his vocation, and may pursue any to which he may be propelled by his particular genius."

The following list shows the annual value of manufactures in the United States, before the peace of 1815 had diminished them:

Manufactures of wood	\$25,000,000
leather	24,000,000
soap & tallow candles	10,000,000
permucet candles & oil	500,000
refined sugar	1,600,000
cards	300,000
hats	13,000,000
spirituous & malt liquors	14,000,000
iron	18,000,000
cotton, wool, and flax	45,000,000

Making a total of . . \$151,400,000

And the exports may be seen by the following table:

Years.	Exports of manufactures.		Total of both.	Exports of manufactures.
	From domestic materials.	From foreign materials.		
1803	\$ 790,000	\$ 565,000	\$1,350,000	
1804	1,650,000	450,000	2,100,000	
1805	1,579,000	721,000	2,300,000	
1806	1,889,000	818,000	2,707,000	
1807	1,652,000	468,000	2,120,000	
1808	309,000	35,000	344,000	
1809	1,266,000	240,000	1,506,000	
1810	1,359,000	558,000	1,917,000	
1811	2,062,000	314,000	2,376,000	
1812	1,135,000	220,000	1,355,000	
1813	372,000	18,000	390,000	
1814	233,300	13,000	246,000	
1815	1,321,000	232,000	1,553,000	
1816	1,415,000	340,000	1,755,000	

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.Manu-
factures.

The manufactures from foreign materials are, at present, spirits from molasses, refined sugars, chocolate, gunpowder, brass and copper, and medicines. The manufactures of wool is thriving, and the Merino breed increases rapidly throughout the several states. In iron, and especially hemp, the United States will soon be independent of the rest of the world. Kentucky produced in one year to the value of \$700,000, in a quantity of 120,000 cwt. In the same year, in the same state, were produced 40,000 cwt. of cordage, of the value of \$400,000, making a total for both articles of \$1,100,000. The cotton consumed, reckoning the average of the three years 1811, 1812, and 1813, exceeds 20,000,000 lbs.

In wood, the chief manufactures are household furniture, carriages of all kinds, ships, and pot and pearl ashes.

The manufactures of leather are boots, shoes, harness, and saddles. Soap and tallow candles are manufactured in private families as well as in general establishments. Cotton, wool, and flax are also manufactured much in private families. Fifty thousand tons of bar-iron are annually consumed; 10,000 tons are exported in a rude state, for foreign completion, and the remaining 40,000 are manufactured at home. Sheet, slit, and hoop iron are almost wholly made at home; and cut nails are manufactured for home consumption, of which 300 tons are annually exported.

Cutlery and fine hardware, and steel-work, are entirely imported from Britain. Of copper and brass works, almost all the zinc and all the copper is imported. Colours of red and white lead are imported largely; but lead for shot is found and made at home. Plated ware is made in the cities of Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Baltimore, and Charleston. Gunpowder, coarse earthenware, window-glass, glass bottles, and white glass decanters, are manufactured there nearly in sufficient quantity for home consumption. About 1,000,000 bushels of salt are manufactured, and 3,000,000 are imported. The white crockeryware of Philadelphia will, it is asserted, compete with any in England. Saltpetre is made in Virginia, Kentucky, Massachusetts, and East and West Tennessee. Nearly 10,000,000 lbs. of maple-tree sugar is produced in Ohio, Kentucky, Vermont, and East Tennessee. Good copraea is produced in West Tennessee and Vermont.

Twenty-five millions of gallons of ardent spirits are yearly distilled and consumed in the United States. Four hundred water and horse mills, which work 120,000 spindles for cotton-spinning, are employed. Fulling-mills 2,000, and 400,000 looms. One hundred millions of yards of cloth made from wool, cotton, and flax. For making gunpowder there are 300 mills, 600 furnaces, forges, and bloomeries; and for manufacturing paper there are 200 mills.

In Vermont the manufactures are those of iron, lead, pipe-clay, marble, distilleries, maple-tree sugar, flour, and wool.—In Massachusetts, duck, cotton, woollen, cut nails (which are made by a newly-invented machine, capable of cutting 200,000 a day), paper, cotton and wool cards, playing-cards, shoes, silk and thread lace, wire, snuff, oil, chocolate and powder-mills, mills for sawing timber, iron-works and slitting-mills, mills for grinding grain, fulling-mills, distilleries and glass-works. In Rhode Island, cotton, linen, and tow cloth, iron, rum, spirits, paper, wool and cotton cards, spec-

mence, sugar, machines for cutting screws, and furnaces for casting hollow ware.—In Connecticut, silk, wool, card-teeth, (made by a machine at the rate of 86,000 an hour), buttons, linen, cotton, glass, snuff, powder, iron, paper, oil, and well-wrought fire-arms.—In New York are manufactured wheel carriages of all kinds, refined sugar, potters'-ware, umbrellas, musical instruments, glass, iron, and steam-boats.—In New Jersey we find tanneries, leather-manufactures, iron-works, powder-mills, cotton, paper, copper-mines, lead-mines, stone and slate quarries.—In Pennsylvania, on the Lehigh river, are some good collieries, distilleries, rope-walks, sugai-houses, hair-powder-manufactures, iron-foundries, shot-manufactories, steam-engines, and mill-machinery; the pneumatic cock for tapping air-tight casks; hydrostatic blow-pipe-manufactories, type-foundries, improvements in printing, and a carpet-manufactory. In Delaware are found cotton, and bolting-cloth and powder man-

factories; fulling, snuff, slitting, paper, grain, and saw mills.—In Maryland are iron-works, collieries, grist-mills, glass-works, stills, paper and cotton mills.—In Virginia, abundant lead-mines, iron-mines, copper-mines, vast collieries, and marble-quarries.—In Kentucky, cotton, wire, paper, and oil, are made.—In Ohio, ship-building is pursued to a vast extent, and this branch of manufacture is spread indeed throughout all the United States.—In North Carolina, the pitch pine produces excellent pitch, tar, turpentine, and lumber. Here are iron-works, and a gold-mine producing virgin gold.—In South Carolina are found gold, silver, lead, black-lead, copper and iron mines; coarse cornelian stones, and some other semi-pellucid stones of various hues; variegated marble, nitrous stones and sand, red and yellow ochres, potters'-clay, fullers'-earth, dyestuffs, chalk, crude alum, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol.—Indigo, silk, and sago in Georgia.—Cotton, wool, cordage, shot, and hair-powder, are manufactured in Louisiana.

FINANCE.—The Washington administration, with Finance. Mr. Hamilton as secretary, founded an internal revenue by taxation, which Mr. Jefferson abolished; and the public revenue depended entirely upon the customs. Mr. Madison pursued the same policy, until the last war expenditure forced the country again to impose a taxation on land, houses, and manufactures, which, however, did not, on the whole amount to \$10,000,000; but even this, small as it is, has been to a considerable degree repealed since the termination of the war. Mr. Monroe has, in his message, 2d December, 1817, recommended to congress the repeal of the whole internal taxation. This must be followed by the reduction of the regular army; and such is the jealousy existing with regard to every subject connected with the independence of the country, that the prevalent fear at present is, lest the standing army, which consists of only 10,000 men, spread all along the Atlantic coast, may become dangerous to the liberties of the American citizens, the whole of whom are armed, or trained to the use of arms, and have besides a disciplined body of militia of nearly 1,000,000 men.

Previous to the late war with this country, the revenues of the United States were derived from duties and taxes on imports, tonnage of ships and vessels, spirits distilled within the United States, and stills; postage of letters, taxes on patents, dividends on bank

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
United
States.Manu-
factures.

N. AME-
RICA
Political
and Moral
State.
United
States.

National
debt.

Sinking
fund.

stock, snuff manufactured in the United States, sugar refined there, sales by auction, licenses to retail wines and distilled spirits; carriages; stamps, direct taxes, and sales of public lands. Since that time some alterations have taken place. The amount of the actual receipt from the customs, from January 1st to June 20th, 1816, was \$15,426,951.

The report of the secretary of the treasury (Mr. Dallas) for the year 1816, states, that on the 12th of February of that year, the whole of the public debt, funded and floating, was \$123,630,692; but, on the 1st of January, 1817, it did not exceed \$109,748,272. The actual receipts of the treasury for 1816 were \$65,702,628 gross.

The history of this debt is, in brief, as follows: The debt contracted during the revolutionary war exceeded \$135,000,000; about one-half of which was collected by means of taxes levied during the war, and for the remainder the United States continued indebted in 1783, when peace and independence were ratified. The American treasury, during the struggle for that independence, advanced little else than paper, which was called continental money, and which at last suffered an considerable a depreciation, that 1,000 paper dollars would not purchase more than one silver dollar. The specie value of the debt, in April 1783, not calculating upon the paper depreciation, amounted to \$42,000,375, and its interest annually to \$2,415,956. This interest was not paid under the old confederation, and amounted, in 1790, to \$54,124,464; the state debts, and its interest, were \$25,000,000. The general government took to themselves only \$21,500,000 of the debts of the several states, although Mr. Hamilton advised the assumption of the whole of the debt, both state and continental. The sum total due in December 1794, was \$76,096,468.

For the liquidation of this debt and its interest, certain import duties, and duties on distilled spirits, were imposed. The sum of \$600,000, for the national defence and support of government, was appointed out of these imports; the remainder of which, after payment of the interest of the debt, was to be appropriated to the establishment of a sinking-fund, under direction of certain commissioners, for the liquidation of the whole debt. On the 31st of March, 1794, the commissioners of this sinking-fund had purchased stock amounting to \$2,265,022. In March, 1795, congress again made other provisions for this sinking-fund, in trust to commissioners, as before, until the whole debt should be liquidated.

The whole debt of the United States, funded and temporary, on the 1st of January, 1800, amounted to \$79,433,820. The war with the Indians; the expenses attending the suppression of two insurrections in Pennsylvania on account of the whiskey-tax; the sums employed in the negotiations with the Barbary powers; and the disputes with revolutionary France in 1798-99, produced this augmentation of the debt.

In 1802, on the 28th of April, congress enacted, that \$7,300,000 annually should be added to the sinking-fund, for the purposes already mentioned. The amount of the debt in 1803 was something more than \$70,000,000, of which \$32,119,211 were claimed by foreigners, \$5,603,564 by particular states, \$10,006,398

by certain corporate bodies, and \$22,330,696 were held by American citizens.

On the 10th of November, 1803, \$700,000 annually were added to the sinking-fund; so that its annual income then amounted to \$8,000,000. From 1800 to 1812, a large portion of the debt was paid off, owing to the increased prosperity of the nation; and on the 1st of January, 1812, the debt was found to amount only to \$45,154,489; and an ad valorem import-duty of only two and a half per cent. was laid on during that period.

On the 14th of March, 1812, congress, contemplating a war with England, authorized a loan of \$11,000,000, of which \$3,034,700 was funded. In 1813 the sum of \$324,200 of this stock was redeemed by the sinking-fund. On the 8th of January, 1813, another loan of \$16,000,000 was authorized: this loan being raised by individuals, every \$88 paid in silver, entitled the lender to a certificate of \$100 in stock. The stock, therefore, issued to supply this loan amounted to \$18,109,377, allowing a premium to the lenders of \$2,109,377. On the 2d of August, 1813, another loan of \$7,500,000 was decreed, and raised by issuing stock amounting to \$8,498,583.

On the 24th of March, 1814, a loan of \$25,000,000 was authorized; but of this only \$11,400,000 was raised; for which stock was issued amounting to \$14,262,351. To supply the deficiency of these loans treasury notes were issued, it being found that 30 per cent. depreciation had taken place on the latter loans. The total amount of stock issued was \$48,905,012, while the actual money received by government was only \$42,934,700. The states of New York and Philadelphia also lent money to government, for which \$1,100,000 stock was issued; so that the total funded on these loans was \$50,105,022. But this disadvantageous system of borrowing was soon discontinued, and treasury notes were given, as already mentioned, to supply the demands, to the amount of \$18,452,800.

On the 20th of February, 1815, the whole debt of the United States amounted to \$121,688,805, including the expense of the last war, the old debt, and the other out-standing debts. Since that time, on the 24th of February, in the same year, \$25,000,000 was issued in treasury notes; and on the 3d of March following another loan of \$18,452,800 was authorized, in the same treasury notes.

The sinking-fund is made first out of an annual appropriation of \$8,000,000 from the interest of the debt already redeemed, which amounted, in 1813, to \$1,932,107; from the sale of public lands, which amounted, in that same year, to \$830,671; and from import and tonnage duties.

On the 1st of January, 1814, the sinking-fund had discharged of the national debt, \$32,873,463. In March 1817 the sinking-fund amounted to \$10,000,000.

On the 12th of February, 1816, the public debt, as we have seen, amounted to \$123,630,692; and on the 1st of January, 1817, was reduced to \$109,748,272; making a saving, in about one year, of \$13,882,420. We heg to subjoin the following explanatory tables:

The appropriations and payments for 1816 were
Demands on the treasury for that year
by appropriations \$32,475,303

N. AME-
RICA
Political
and Moral
State.
United
States.

Loans.

Present
state of the
debt, &c.

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

Viz.—For civil department, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous expenses . . . \$3,540,770

Military department, current expenditure . . . \$7,794,250

Arrears . . . 8,935,373

16,729,633

Naval establishment . . . 4,204,911

Public debt . . . 8,000,000

Payments at the treasury, to the 1st of August, 1816 . . . \$26,332,174

For civil department, &c. . . 1,829,015

Military do. current expenditure . . . \$4,285,236

Arrears . . . 8,935,372

13,220,608

Naval department . . . 1,977,788

Public debt (adding to the appropriation of 1816 part of the balance of appropriation of 1815) . . . 9,354,752

Leaving an unexpended balance of the annual appropriation, on the 1st of August, 1816, of . . . \$6,143,129

To which add the part surplus of the appropriation of 1815, used for the sinking-fund . . . 1,354,762

And the whole balance is . . . \$7,497,891

The actual receipts of the treasury for 1816 were

The cash balance in the treasury (excluding treasury notes), 1st January, 1816 . . . \$6,298,652

Customs, for seven months, from the 1st of Jan. to the last of August 1816, without allowing for debentures on drawback, estimated at \$1,829,564 . . . 21,354,743

Direct tax, including the assumed quotas of New York, Ohio, South Carolina, and Georgia, for the direct tax of 1816 . . . 3,713,963

Internal duties . . . 3,964,000

Postage, and incidental receipts . . . 127,025

Sales of public lands (excluding \$211,440 received in the Mississippi territory, and payable to Georgia) . . . 676,710

Receipts in revenue, from the 1st of January to the 1st of August, 1816 . . . \$36,035,093

Loans, by funding and issuing treasury notes . . . 9,790,825

Gross receipts from the 1st of January to the 1st of August, 1816 . . . \$45,825,918

Estimated receipts, from the 1st of August to the 31st of December, 1816 . . . 19,876,710

Gross annual receipts for 1816 . . . \$65,702,628

We are indebted to Mr. Pitkin for the following lucid statement of the annual receipts of the United States, and of the annual expenditures, from the commencement of the present government, to the 31st of March, 1815.

From 4th of March, 1789, to 31st December.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
	Dols. Cts.	Dols. Cts.
1791	4,418,913 99	1,718,129 37
1792	3,661,932 31	1,766,077 15
1793	4,614,423 14	1,707,348 28
1794	5,128,432 87	3,500,348 20
1795	5,954,534 59	4,350,596 45
1796	7,137,529 65	2,531,930 40
1797	8,303,560 99	2,833,590 96
1798	7,820,575 80	4,623,223 54
1799	7,475,773 31	6,480,166 72
1800	10,777,709 10	7,411,369 97
1801	12,846,530 95	4,981,669 90
1802	13,668,233 95	3,737,079 91
1803	11,064,097 63	4,002,824 24
1804	11,826,307 38	4,452,858 91
1805	13,560,693 20	6,357,234 62
1806	15,539,931 7	6,080,200 36
1807	16,398,019 26	4,984,572 89
1808	17,060,661 93	6,504,338 85
1809	7,773,473 12	7,414,672 14
1810	9,384,214 28	5,311,082 28
1811	14,423,529 9	5,592,604 86
1812	9,801,132 76	17,829,498 70
1813	14,340,409 95	28,082,396 52
1814	11,181,625 16	30,127,686 38

From Jan. 1st, to 31st of March, 1815, 2,337,058 21 . . . 12,337,825 43

\$247,019,302 79 \$184,719,336 43

During this period the receipts from the

Customs, were . . .	\$222,530,374 56
Internal revenue . . .	9,016,342 24
Direct taxes . . .	4,476,826 53
Postage of letters . . .	747,388 40
Sales of public lands . . .	8,658,369 38
Miscellaneous . . .	1,590,001 68

\$247,019,302 79

The expenditures, during the same period, were

For pay and subsistence of the army . . .	\$88,270,562 85
Fortifications of ports and harbours . . .	4,374,805 26
Fabrication of canoes . . .	263,611 54
Purchase of saltpetre . . .	150,000
Additional arms . . .	300,000
Arming and equipping the militia . . .	1,100,000
Detachment of militia . . .	170,000
Services of militia . . .	2,000,000
Services of volunteers . . .	1,000,000

\$97,628,979 65

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

Receipts, &c. since the federal government.

N. AME- RICA.	Indian department,	
	Holding treaties . . .	\$878,313 68
Political and Moral State. — United States.	Trading houses . . .	459,726 98
	Naval department . . .	1,338,040 66
	Foreign intercourse, (exclusive of Barbary powers) and including the sum of \$6,361,000 paid under the convention with Great Britain of 8th of January, 1802, and with France of the 30th April, 1803 . .	47,818,303 68
	Barbary powers . . .	10,678,015 34
	Civil list . . .	2,405,322 40
	Miscellaneous civil . . .	14,940,695 79
		9,909,978 91
		<u>\$184,709,336 43</u>

In addition to the above sum of . . . \$247,019,302 79

Received, from various sources of revenue, from March 4th, 1789, to March 31st, 1815, there was received into the treasury, during the same period, for	
Sales of bank stock . . .	2,671,860
Dividends on ditto . . .	1,101,720
Interest on stock remitted to Eu- rope . . .	136,400
Gain on exchange . . .	805,127 59
And from foreign and domestic loans . . .	102,423,077 2

Making the sum total of receipts to
March 31st, 1815 . . . \$354,157,487 20

Besides the sum of . . . \$184,709,336 43

Expended for the foregoing objects, the expenditures, in relation to the payment of the interest and charges on foreign loans, and principal of the foreign and domestic debt, at the treasury of the United States, and by commissioners abroad, were . . .	167,524,588
And the expenditures, on account of the revolutionary government, were . .	316,268 70

Making the whole expenditures of
the United States, to March 31st,
1815 . . . \$352,560,193 13

Leaving a balance in the treasury, at
that time, of . . . 1,597,294 7

\$354,157,487 20

The actual receipts from the various
sources of revenue, from March
31st, 1815, to June 30th, 1816,
were . . . \$36,595,141 11

The actual expenditures, during the
same period, for the military, naval
and Indian departments, foreign
intercourse, Barbary powers, civil
list, and miscellaneous civil,
amounted to . . . \$29,503,172 57

The expenses of the peace establishment, for 1817, N. AME-
were estimated as follows, viz.: RICA.

Civil, diplomatic, and miscellaneous ex- penses . . .	\$1,765,513 3
Military department . . .	5,959,625 79
Indian ditto . . .	200,000
Naval ditto (in- cluding one million for permanent in- crease of navy) . . .	3,986,658 75
Making . . .	<u>\$11,911,797 57</u>

In the thirteenth sitting of congress, first session, Internal
in 1813, certain internal duties were laid on, for the taxes in
purpose of defraying the expenses of the intended war, 1813.

although the original plan was to carry on the war by
loans only, paying the interest on those loans and the
ordinary expenses of government. This was to be
done by doubling the duties on imports, and imposing
a tax on salt; by sales of public land; by direct taxa-
tion of \$3,000,000; and taxes on stills, spirits, re-
fined sugar, licences to retailers, sales at auction, car-
riages, and stamp-paper. Of these, the first two
quarters produced \$2,212,491; and the last two quar-
ters of the same year, only \$1,000,000.

Congress also imposed other duties on iron, candles,
hats, caps, paper, umbrellas, parasols, playing and
other cards, saddles, bridles, boots, shoes, beer, ale,
porter, tobacco, snuff, and segars, leather, gold and
silver plated goods, jewellery, paste-work, household
furniture, gold and silver watches.

The amount of internal duties, accruing in 1814, was . . .	\$3,262,197
Deduct duties, refunded or remitted . . .	11,793
And expence of collection . . .	148,991
The amount paid into the treasury, in 1814, was only . . .	1,762,003
In 1815, the internal duties, accruing, amounted to . . .	6,242,503
Deduct duties refunded, &c. \$126,769, and collection expence . . .	279,227
The amount paid into the treasury, in 1815, was . . .	4,697,252
The amount paid from the 1st of January to the 30th of June, 1816, was . . .	3,241,427

In 1815, at the close of the late war with England,
almost all those duties were taken off; so that what
now remains, are duties on licences for stills and
boilers, to retailers; on carriages, refined sugar, sales
at auction, stamp-paper, and bank-notes.

The direct taxes have hitherto consisted of duties on
all lands and lots of ground, with their improvements,
dwelling-houses, and slaves, valued by assessors at a
certain rate in money.

The apportionment of these taxes to the different
states, serving to show the relative importance and
wealth of each separate state, will be made clear by
the following table.

In 1798, the \$2,000,000 direct tax on dwelling-
houses, lands, and slaves, were thus apportioned among
the states:

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
United States.

New Hampshire \$77,705
Massachusetts . 260,435
Rhode Island . . 37,504
Connecticut . . 129,767
Vermont . . . 46,864
New York . . . 181,681
New Jersey . . . 98,387
Pennsylvania . . 237,178

Delaware . . . \$30,430
Maryland . . . 152,600
Virginia . . . 345,488
Kentucky . . . 37,643
North Carolina . 193,698
South Carolina . 112,997
Georgia . . . 38,815
Tennessee . . . 18,807

The number of acres valued under the act of 1798, amounted to 163,746,683, amounting to \$479,293,264
Number of dwelling-houses, above \$100, 276,695, valued at 140,683,984

Total value of lands and houses . . . \$619,977,248

The slaves enumerated were 393,219. The proportion assessed upon houses was \$471,989; on land, \$1,327,713; on slaves, \$196,610. In some of the states the valuations were not completed until three or four years after the tax was laid; from the date of its imposition to the 30th of September, 1812, a period of *fourteen years*, only \$1,757,240 of this tax were paid into the treasury; and large balances were due at the close of 1817.

In the year 1814, the lands and houses of the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, were valued at \$559,270,622; in 1799, at \$283,651,885; making an increased value, in fifteen years, of \$275,618,738, in six states. In Maryland, Delaware, North Carolina, and Tennessee, the increased value of lands, houses, and slaves, between 1799 and 1814, was \$365,000,000. In the whole United States, the increased value exceeded \$1,000,000,000.

The latest average value of land per acre in the different states, taken together, and including erections thereon, is \$10; the variations have been thus apportioned:—In New Hampshire, \$9; Massachusetts, \$18; Rhode Island, \$40; Connecticut, \$35; Vermont, \$7; New York, \$17; New Jersey, \$35; Pennsylvania, \$30; Delaware, \$13; Maryland, \$20; Virginia, \$5; North Carolina, \$3; South Carolina, \$8; Georgia, \$3; Kentucky, \$4; Tennessee, \$5; Louisiana, \$2; Mississippi, \$2; Indiana, \$2; Ohio, \$6.

It appears that there are yet unsold 500,000,000 of acres of public lands lying in the different states, although, from 1796 to the year 1815, \$8,437,531 have been received for public lands sold, and nearly \$3,000,000 were still due to the treasury on that account.

The postage of letters nets to the revenue about \$100,000.

The net amount of revenue received in 1815 was \$50,906,106; being from customs, \$37,656,486; internal duties, \$5,963,225; direct tax, \$5,723,152; public lands, \$1,287,939; postage, &c. \$275,282.

On the second of December, 1817, it appears from the president's message, that after satisfying the usual expenses of the government at home and abroad, and after extinguishing upwards of \$18,000,000 within the year, a balance of more than \$6,000,000 remained in the treasury, to be applied to the expenses of the ensuing year.

For 1818, the *estimated* receipts from imports and tonnage, amounted to \$20,000,000; internal revenues

VOL. XVII.

to \$2,500,000; public lands to \$1,500,000; bank dividends and incidental receipts to \$500,000; making a total of \$24,500,000; whereas, the amount of the usual expenses of government are only \$11,800,000. For the sinking fund \$10,000,000, leaving an annual excess of \$2,700,000; and this seems to be corroborated by the report of the secretary to the treasury.

It is asserted, on a comparison of the *Treasury Reports*, from 1790 to 1817, that the grand total of American capital is \$7,200,000,000. The banking capital of the United States is more than \$100,000,000. In many of the states there are chartered banks, for the credit, discount, and deposit of its citizens.

The bank of the United States has a capital of Bank of the U. S. \$35,000,000, and the general government is a stockholder in the amount of \$7,000,000; five, out of twenty-five directors, are appointed by the government; the remaining twenty being chosen annually by the stockholders. It was first established at Philadelphia, in 1790, and divided a capital of \$10,000,000 between 25,000 shares of \$400 each; none of the subscribers, except the government, being able to hold more than 1,000 shares. These shares are transferable, and yield a half-yearly dividend, at about the rate of from 7 to 8 per cent. per annum. It discounts the merchants' bills, within 65 days, at 6 per cent. and has power to establish branches throughout the Union, which abounds in banking schemes.

It should appear, that the physical and political capacities of the United States balance each other in the happiest manner. They will have full and almost unlimited power of internal increment in wealth; but the moment they attempt to use that power externally, and for the purposes of aggression, it will decay, if not cease altogether. A war of long continuance could not do otherwise than seriously endanger the union of the states, and the entire basis of the federal constitution. The people of the "sea-board" would be impoverished; the agriculturists might, indeed, live on the produce of their own labour, but who is to purchase the overplus of that produce? Certainly not the inhabitants of the coast, for trade, by which they subsist, would be superseded.

It must likewise be considered, that a very large proportion of foreigners have hitherto been lenders of the money borrowed by the state, and that the American citizens themselves have subscribed very little to each loan. Of \$70,000,000, only \$22,330,606 were owed by American citizens in 1803; that although a loan, in 1814, of \$25,000,000 was authorized, only \$11,400,000 could be obtained, and for that sum the government was obliged to create stock amounting to \$14,262,351; a depreciation, too, which happened after a war of only about one year's continuance. Add to this the time and the force necessary to be used in collecting any direct tax, and we may safely dismiss any fears for European safety arising from American domination.

EXCHANGE. COINS, &c.—The exchange between England and the United States is at par when, for every 100*l.* sterling,

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
United States.

Currency.
£. s. d.

Pennsylvania, Maryland, Jersey, and Delaware, give 166 13 4
Virginia and New England 133 6 8
New York and North Carolina 177 15 6
Georgia and South Carolina 103 14 0

3 o

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

The dollar varies according to the currency of each state. In Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, and Jersey, it is = 7s. 6d.; in New England and Virginia, to 6s.; in New York and North Carolina, to 8s.; in South Carolina and Georgia, to 4s. 8d.

The public accounts, formerly kept in pounds, shillings, and pence, were, in 1789, ordered to be kept uniformly in dollars, dimes, cents, and mills: the dime, being one-tenth of the dollar; the cent, one-hundredth; and the mill, one-thousandth. A mint was established, and the following coins were ordered at the same time:

The eagle, = 10 dollars, to contain 247½ grains of pure, or 270 of standard gold: the standard being 22 carats, or 4½ fine, = 27. 3s. 8d. English.

Half-eagles and quarter-eagles, of the same proportions.

Dollars, or units, to contain 371½ grains of pure, or 416 grains of standard silver, the standard being 12½ fine, or 10 oz. 14 dwts. = 4s. 3½ d. English.

Half-dollars, quarter-dollars, dimes, and half-dimes, of the same proportions.

Cents, of the value of one-hundredth of a dollar, to contain 208 grains of copper.

Half-cents of the like proportion.

The remedy of the mint is 1 in 144 parts.

GOVERNMENT.—There appear to be now nineteen United States of North America, including Indiana, and six Territorial Governments, so called, as not being yet regularly organized into states, but under the general government of the Union; distributed into the following four grand divisions:

I. THE NORTHERN, NEW ENGLAND, OR
EASTERN STATES.

Vermont,	the District of Maine;
New Hampshire,	Rhode Island,
Massachusetts, including	Connecticut.

II. THE MIDDLE STATES.

New York,	Delaware,
New Jersey,	Ohio,
Pennsylvania,	Indiana.

III. THE SOUTHERN STATES.

Maryland,	South Carolina,
Virginia,	Georgia,
Kentucky,	Tennessee,
North Carolina,	Louisiana.

IV. TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS.

District of Columbia,	Illinois Territory,
Mississippi Territory,	Michigan ditto,
Missouri ditto,	North-west ditto.

The Legislative power of the United States is vested in a President, a Senate, or Upper House, and a House of Representatives, who, in their united capacity, are termed Congress; their joint acts possessing the force of law. Each particular state is likewise governed according to a similar arrangement, having its council, or senate, its house of representatives, and its governor, or president. The Executive power is entrusted entirely to the president.

The House of Representatives for the Union, is chosen every second year, by the people of the several United States, and the qualifications for an elector, in each

state, must be, generally, the same as for an elector of the house of legislation in that state. The representative must be of the full age of twenty-five years, must have been registered a citizen of the United States seven years, and be an inhabitant of the state of which he is chosen a representative at the time of his election.

Representation and direct taxation must be apportioned duly among the several states according to the number of free persons, excluding Indians not taxed, and three-fifths of all other persons. When vacancies happen in the house of representatives, the state executive issues writs of re-election. This house chooses its own speaker, and it possesses the exclusive power of originating all impeachments.

The election of each state to this Lower House of Congress varies, in some minor particulars, according to the different laws established in those states. In some, the whole number of members sent is elected by the whole population of the state; other states are divided into election districts. The candidate must, in some states, reside in the district; in others this qualification is not necessary. In Connecticut and Rhode Island the elections are half-yearly. The voting by ballot is a late institution, but perhaps not an improvement; for not only have the beneficial effects of wealth, superior information, and intellect been annulled, but great complaints have been made of actual fraud; and it is even asserted that ballots of one kind are continually substituted for those of another, in a manner the most scandalous. In the state of Virginia, a certain property in land is required as the necessary qualification for a voter; in others, property, in very small proportions, either real or personal, is the sole requisite; and in some states, again, universal and unqualified suffrage is established to every man who has attained a certain age. In New York, Maryland, Kentucky, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, and Louisiana, the clergy are disqualified from being candidates for the lower house of congress, as well as for their own separate houses of legislation.

The Senate, or Upper House of Congress, is formed by Senate, two members from each state, chosen by its legislature for six years. The members are divided into three classes: those who are to vacate their seats at the end of the second year; those who have four years to sit; and those who have six years. In this manner one-third of the whole body is changed every second year. Vacancies are filled up by the executive power, pro tempore, until a new appointment takes place, or until that of the executive is confirmed by the legislature of the state on account of which the vacancy has occurred.

Of this Upper House, the Vice-president of the United States is president; but he has no vote in it, unless when the house is equally divided on the question before them. The other officers are chosen by the house itself, which also names a president in the occasional absence of the one appointed by the constitution. All impeachments are to be brought before this house to be tried; and each member, when sitting in his judicial capacity, is put to his oath, or (if belonging to the society of friends) to his solemn affirmation. If the impeached person happen to be the president of the United States, the chief justice of the country shall preside, and two-thirds of the members must concur to effect the conviction of the accused. But, on conviction,

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.House of
Representatives.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.

tion, judgment only extends to removal from the high office, and to a disqualification for any other office of the state; the convicted person is still left assailable by indictments, and punishment in the inferior courts of judicature, as far as any crimes may be concerned which are cognizable by those courts.

The methods of appointing the senators differ according to the laws, which are called state statutes. In some cases, the lower house of the state nominates to the upper, which, in turn approving, the appointment is made, and called a concurrent vote. Another method is, when both houses meet and choose jointly, which is called a joint vote; these two methods are practised, as well as that by ballot, and by vote, *visu voce*. In the concurrent vote, the upper house is equivalent in power to the lower; in the joint vote, the lower house, outnumbering the upper, will, on all divisions, of course carry the question, supposing the members of each to be universally influenced in favour of their own particular opinion.

The peculiar functions of the Senate are, besides the exercise of trial by impeachment, to appoint public officers, and to make treaties with foreign powers.

No pecuniary qualification is necessary for a senator; although, in many states, the electors, who vote even for inferior officers and members of inferior tribunals, must be so qualified. The reason given for this apparent inconsistency is, that as pecuniary qualifications are required in lower offices, it was supposed unnecessary to exact them from the candidates for higher places, their existence being necessarily implied.

The senators elected for the state of Maryland are elected for five years; for New York, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Virginia, South Carolina, and Louisiana, four years; for Ohio two years; and for Delaware and Mississippi three years; the whole body of the United States' senators being elected for six years. Besides this, to ensure a greater permanency in this house, and less dependency on the people, a plan of *rotation* is established in all the above-mentioned states, excepting Maryland and Kentucky; which rotation again varies according to the particular constitution of each state. It is annual in New York, Pennsylvania, and Louisiana, to the extent of one-fourth of the members; biennial to the extent of one-half in Ohio and South Carolina. In Delaware and Mississippi annual to the extent of one-third. The senators sit in Maryland for five years, and for four in Kentucky, but without rotation. In the Eastern, or New England States, no particular senate exists. In New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Jersey, North Carolina, and Georgia, the senates, or councils, are annual.

It is the duty of Congress to assemble once every year; and the 1st day of December is the day fixed for this purpose, unless another be appointed by law. Both the upper and lower houses are judges of the election returns, and the qualifications of their respective members; and the majority of each house is enabled to transact business, whilst a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of the absent members under certain penalties. Each house, too, has certain privileges, which extend to the expulsion of a member by a concurrence of two-thirds of the body. Neither house can adjourn for a longer space than three days without the concurrence of the other; nor can they remove their sittings to any other

place without a similar agreement. The members of each house receive a certain compensation for their services, paid out of the treasury. They are all privileged from arrest during their sitting, and in going to and returning from the place of it; and can in no way be questioned elsewhere for any speech or debate used in either house.

On the other hand, the disqualification of a member of either house is, that he can hold no civil office of authority under the states, in any way, during his sitting as a member; thus, the cabinet, or acting administration, is totally excluded from a seat in congress.

The power of congress consists in imposing taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; in borrowing money, regulating commerce, laying down uniform rules for naturalization; coining money; fixing the standard of weights and measures; in establishing post-offices and post-roads; in constituting inferior tribunals; in defining and punishing pirates and felonies on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations; in declaring war, granting letters of marque and reprisal, and making rules concerning captures on land and water; raising armies and supporting them, (but in no appropriation of money for a longer term than two years for these purposes); in providing and maintaining armies, and in making laws for the regulation of the land and sea forces; in calling forth the militia; in executing the laws of the Union; in suppressing invasion and insurrection; in appointing the officers of the militia; and in training the militia.

Congress likewise possesses powers of exclusive legislation in all cases over the district wherein it sits, not extending further than ten square miles, which, by cession of particular states and the acceptance of congress, may have become the seat of government; and over all places purchased by the consent of the state legislature, on which to erect national forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, &c. The permanent seat of government is now by law established at Washington, in the central district of Columbia, upon the river Potomack.

The President holds his office for four years, and his election, together with that of the Vice-president, who is chosen for the same period, is managed in the following manner:—The legislature of each state appoints as many electors for that particular state as it has senators and representatives in congress, but no public servant of the Union, and no senator or representative, can be an elector for this high office. These electors again meet and ballot for two persons, one of whom must be an inhabitant of some other state than their own. The names of the persons voted for are transmitted to congress; the president of the upper house opens this list, in the presence of the upper and lower house, and calculates the number of votes; when the person who is found to have the greatest number is appointed president, provided that number constitute a majority of all the electors entitled to vote. If there be more than one having such majority, the house of representatives shall immediately decide by ballot which is to be president. If no person have a majority, he shall be chosen, in like manner, out of the five names highest on the list. But in exercising this right, the votes of the house of representatives shall be taken by states, the representative from each state having one vote. A member or members from

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United
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RICA.Political
and Moral
State.United
States.

two-thirds of the states shall constitute a quorum for this purpose, and a majority of the votes of all the states thus represented shall determine the choice. After the office of president is determined, the person commanding the next greatest number of votes was formerly vice-president; but the ballots are now to be taken distinctly, and the electors are to distinguish by name in their ballots each person for whom they vote as president and vice-president; the same general qualifications being necessary for both offices. Congress appoints the day on which these elections take place in each state, which is to be the same throughout the Union. The president must have been a citizen of the United States at the time of federation, or a natural-born subject since that period; he must also be thirty-five years of age at the time of his election, and have resided fourteen years within the United States.

A practice has been lately introduced, which is much complained of by the aristocratic party of the United States: the democratic members of both the upper and lower houses of congress hold a separate meeting, in which they settle amongst themselves the persons they wish to be president and vice-president. These they recommend to the choice of each state, and their recommendation is generally attended to by the electors.

The president receives a stated compensation for his services of \$25,000 per annum, and this cannot be altered, either for increase or decrease, during the period for which he serves. He can exercise or receive no other office during that time, and he gives his solemn oath or affirmation on entering upon this dignity to preserve the constitution.

Public
salaries.

It may gratify the reader to see a recent table of the salaries of all the principal public functionaries of the United States.

The president of the United States receives a salary of	\$25,000
The vice-president	5,000
The secretary of state	5,000
The secretary of the treasury, war, and navy, each	4,000
The chief justice	5,000
The justice judges, each	4,000
The United States' ambassadors to the first-rate European courts	9,000
The judges of the supreme court of New York, one of the most liberally paid states in the Union, each	3,500
The governor of the state of New York	7,500
The mayor of New York	7,000
The governor of Rhode Island	800
The governor of Vermont	600
The governor of Connecticut	1,000
The judges of Connecticut, each	1,000

Powers
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President.

The president is commander in chief of the army and navy, and of the militia, when called into actual service. He has a right of requesting the opinion of the executive officers, to be delivered to him in writing, concerning their duties; and has power to pardon and relieve all criminals, except in cases of impeachment. It is his business to conclude treaties, with the advice and consent of the senate, in which two-thirds of that body must concur; and, with the same advice, he appoints ambassadors, public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other high officers

who are not particularly otherwise provided for by law. The powers of this magistrate are similar to those enjoyed by every governor of a particular state, so far as relates to that state, excepting that, in some few states, the governor cannot pardon murder or forgery. The president has power to supply every vacancy that happens in the senate, by a commission, which obtains until the next session of that body. It is his duty to afford to congress every requisite information, domestic and foreign, respecting the different states of the Union; and he can convene either or both houses, or adjourn them, upon any disagreement arising, to such time as he may think proper. To him the reception of ambassadors, &c. is deputed; and he executes the laws, and issues all commissions of the state. The president also has a power of putting his negative on any bill that shall have been passed by congress, only he must state distinctly his reasons for so doing. But this highest office of the state, as well as the vice-president, and all other of its civil officers, are liable to impeachment for treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

The judicial power of the United States is vested in Judicial power. one supreme court, and other inferior courts which congress may order and establish, as occasion requires. The judges of all the courts hold their offices during their good behaviour, and receive stipends for their services, which cannot be diminished while these services are rendered. All cases at law and in equity, provided for by the constitution, are under their cognizance; all cases relative to treaties, or to ambassadors, or other public ministers or consuls; all cases of admiralty and maritime concerns; controversies, where the United States are a party, or where one of the United States is a party against another; where a state is on one side and the citizens of a state on another; where parties are citizens of different states; where citizens of the same state are the contending parties for lands under grants of different states; and between a state, or the citizens of a state on the one side, and a foreign state or subjects on the other side. But this court does not recognize any suit at law or equity against the United States, or any one of them, by the subjects of any foreign state. The supreme court has, in all these cases, power *appellate* of judging both of law and fact. *Laws.*

The trial of all cases (impeachments excepted) is by jury. Each crime must be tried in the state where it was committed; and if committed in no state, then the trial must be at such place as congress shall appoint.

Treason against the states is confined to the fact of levying war against them, and adhering to their enemies by aid or comfort; and confession in open court, or two witnesses to the same overt act, are necessary for conviction of this crime. No attainder of blood takes place for treason, nor even forfeiture of estates, except during the life of the traitor.

The perpetration of a crime in one state cannot be punished in another; and sometimes the crossing of a ferry, or the passage over a hill, will secure the offender, however gross his crime, from punishment. There is a provision of the federal state for this contingency, which declares, that a person charged with felony, treason, &c. in any one particular state, and found in another state, shall, on demand, be delivered by the executive of that state, to which he has escaped: but this provision is said to be very insufficiently regarded.

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By a similar defect in the laws, a contract made in one state, is not compellable to performance in another; but an exception to this is made, as it should seem, for the direct purpose of protecting the system of slavery from infringement: for, by the federal, or high law of the land, any person held to labour or service in one state, and escaping from it, shall be delivered up on the simple claim of the party to whom he or she has been bound. By this law, it also follows that if the slave escapes into a state which has itself prohibited slavery altogether, yet he shall not be protected from the claim of a master residing in a state where slavery is still tolerated.

Congress has power to admit any new state into the Union, but not a new state formed within any other state; nor any state formed by an union of any two states without the consent of the legislatures of such states. Congress guarantees to every state the preservation of a republican form of government, and a protection of each of them against invasion or insurrection. Upon the vote of two-thirds of both houses, congress possesses a power of amending the constitution, or upon application of two-thirds of the legislatures of the states generally. These amendments must be ratified by three-fourths of the several states, or by the same number assembled in one convention; and to this power are annexed some provisional guarantees for securing the suffrage and individual privileges of each state.

An oath or affirmation is taken of each member of the congress, but no religious test is imposed on any occasion, or for any office throughout the republic.

The right of speedy trial is awarded to every offender; and that trial is to be by jury, and in public court. Excessive bail is not to be required, nor excessive fines, or cruel and unusual punishments inflicted. In the eye of the law, all parties are equal: all must bear arms, or pay an equivalent, at the call of the Union; and hereditary titles are prohibited.

Such is a brief outline of the fundamental laws of the land in the United States. Of the particular laws of each state it would be tedious, and almost endless to give a detail.

Literature.

LITERATURE.—It seems to be generally admitted, that literature is in no very flourishing condition in the United States; but it is asserted that the stream of knowledge compensates in its width for the shallowness of its depth, and that the learning, like the riches of the country, though differently diffused, and not to be found in accumulated masses, is not less, upon the whole, than that which is found in other empires. The fallacy of this reasoning in a metaphor, is obvious. It may, indeed, be true, abstractedly, that more individuals of the multitude possess in America a little learning and a glimpse of science; but the inferior degree of it alluded to, if multiplied by millions, will but poorly compensate for the depth of a Bacon or a Newton; and present a state of general intellect to the philosophical observer, from which he will augur many evils. On the other hand, the infancy of her empire, the constant importation of English books into the Union, and the more profitable occupations of the great majority of her citizens, may well account for these facts, without any imputation on the capabilities of her people.

The literature of the United States is chiefly concentrated in New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. Of the

public libraries in each of these cities, novels of the vilest sort are in great request; plays and farces are sought also with avidity; moral essays and history are but little perused; and the classics, metaphysics, political philosophy, &c. continue, generally speaking, in dusty repose upon the shelf. The majority of authors may be but too well denoted by this designation of their readers; and, beyond novel and farce writers, and newspaper politicians, America reckons few men who have signalized themselves in letters.

Institutions taking the name of colleges are very numerous: there are about fifty in the whole scattered throughout the territory of the United States. These establishments, however, have the name, with but few of the privileges or advantages of those so denominated in Europe. They have neither fellowships, scholarships, nor exhibitions; and the teachers, sometimes dignified by the title of professors, are allowed stipends too scanty, and allotted work too laborious, to execute, or even to carry forward any grand or original literary undertakings. Harvard college, in Massachusetts, is the most celebrated, and has thirteen professorships. Yale college, in Connecticut, and Princeton college, in New Jersey, are spoken of as the next in eminence.

It is remarkable in these, and other of the American colleges, that the Greek and Latin is generally recited in the Scotch dialect, although the students profess to speak English with the modern English accent, a proceeding which may be accounted for by the influx of Scotch professors into their universities. Princeton has 200, Yale 300, and Harvard 400 students. Students at these colleges generally finish their education at eighteen years, an age when our English university matriculations most commonly begin. It is here worthy of remark, that Washington bequeathed stock equal to \$25,000 towards establishing a university in the federal city of the Union, a bequest which, with its compound interest, is still unappropriated.

Although the institutions for completing the education of a classical scholar are poorly appointed, those of a more universal, but minor nature, where the rudiments of education are taught to all the inhabitants, are both numerous and well conducted. Almost every state has schools established for this purpose, and scarcely a native American is to be found who cannot read, write, and keep accounts. Commercial intelligence and the political news of the day are, by this means, diffused over the country in numberless newspapers, of which, and of political reviews, a larger number are printed in the United States than in the British empire. Nor should we omit to mention that, in the sale of all the public lands, a sixteenth section of every township is reserved for the support of schools, and the maintenance of the poor.

In medical science, it is affirmed that considerable progress has been made in the United States, and many professors and lecturers of eminence are reckoned at Boston, Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore.

Of the fine arts, sculpture has, as yet, not shown its head in the United States. Painting is chiefly in miniatures, portraits, and landscapes, but the works of West, Alton, Stuart, Copley, Trumbull, Leslie, are, perhaps, destined to create a better taste; many of their pictures at present adorn the public academies at New York and Philadelphia.

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Architecture boasts some very handsome specimens in the public buildings of Washington, New York, Philadelphia, and Boston. The city hall of New York is a superb edifice of white marble, constructed with a mixture of the Ionic and Corinthian orders. Its portico is supported by eight columns, fifteen feet in length, each hewn from a single block; the second story has nineteen windows, marking the number of individual states at the period of its erection.

MORALS AND MANNERS.—The great proportion of the population in the United States being of English origin, the manners, customs, tastes, sentiments, and even prejudices of the English and Americans, are, generally speaking, similar. The old colony of representing the United States as at first colonized by convicts, mendicants, and vagabonds, can hardly need refutation; though the refuge that is still afforded in America to fraudulent traders from Great Britain calls loudly for some better understanding on this subject between the respective governments. New England was almost wholly peopled by respectable English families, who fled from the civil and religious persecution of their native country; and much of puritanical precision is still preserved in their general demeanour. Many Germans are settled in Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey, and the number is perpetually augmenting; but the language and manners of the English are rapidly spreading amongst them. French protestants are found at New Rochelle, in some parts of the state of New York, and in Charleston, South Carolina. Irish catholics are found in Maryland and some parts of Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, and Kentucky; and some Irish protestants are become agriculturists in the interior of the country. Scotchmen are everywhere scattered through the United States; as are considerable numbers of Swedes and Swiss.

The number of negro slaves disgracing this land of liberty is reckoned at 1,700,000, by far the largest part of whom are in the southern states. Brutalized for successive generations, this wretched race seems incapable of suddenly enjoying the advantages of liberty; the free blacks, of whom there are counted 200,000, being said to be the most profligate and immoral of any persons in the country. A gang of these robbers sometime since set fire to whole rows of houses in New York, that they might profit by the consequent confusion. In the winter of 1816-17, a negro was publicly executed for this crime. African schools have been of late instituted by the quakers, to ameliorate and instruct these ignorant and half-savage tribes: some African churches are said to have arisen in consequence, and some black teachers and preachers, who perform their functions with ability and propriety.

Where the barbarous practice of slavery prevails, its baneful influence is felt not only by those who suffer, but by those who practise it; and hence a very striking difference is found in the manners and morals of the New England states and those of the more southern parts of the Union. The following circumstance furnishes a remarkable illustration of this fact, and of some of the feelings of American legislators toward religion:—In the state of Louisiana a bill was introduced to secure the “better observance of the sabbath: to punish unnatural crimes; to prevent the defacing of the church-yards; to oblige the shutting of the public

theatres, stores, &c.” The opposers of this bill were violent in their invectives against the party from whom it originated; and the orator who principally exerted himself on the occasion, said, in the debate, “that such persecuting intolerance might well suit the New England puritans, who were descended from the bigotted fanatics of Old England, those who were great readers of the Bible, and, consequently, ignorant, prejudiced, cold-blooded, false, and cruel; but such a measure could never be fastened on the more enlightened, liberal, and philosophic inhabitants of Louisiana, the descendants of Frenchmen.” The bill was rejected by an immense majority of the legislature.

The wealthier class of Americans rival, in elegance of manners, the same ranks in Europe; but the far greater proportion of the citizens exhibit a medium of manners and of general appearance that is becoming decidedly characteristic; they are certainly inferior to those distinguished in Europe by the title of gentry, but superior to farmers and mechanics. An independence of feeling is obvious in every thing—in their very manner of walking—and is affected much further than it exists. Well and decently dressed, but with no correct finish of appearance, they are seen passing along the streets of their cities, with their hands in their pockets, neither in haste, nor as if wholly at leisure; somewhat busy, but not eagerly, nor as if actually dependent on business.

From the nature of their commerce with each other, and the extent of their territory, the merchant, the trader, and the farmer, of the United States must necessarily be great travellers; not infrequently are their journeys from the country of the Illinois to some of the great sea-ports on the Atlantic, for the purpose of selling their own produce, or more frequently, of purchasing materials for their future occupation. On these occasions it sometimes happens that they are benighted in a neighbourhood where it is impossible to procure the accommodation of an inn; the traveller is then obliged to “camp out,” as it is termed; that is, to lie under a tree in the open air. This is described as by no means unpleasant, and by some it is even preferred to the generality of American inns, which abound in vermin, and where the traveller must consider himself fortunate if he can procure a bed to himself. The process of *camping-out* consists of first lighting a fire. With this view, a tinder-box, &c. is a necessary part of the apparatus of travelling. A blanket or mattress is then spread (if the traveller's equipment permits the carriage of one) on the windward side of the fire, so that the smoke may blow over him, and keep away the mosquitoes and other insects from molesting him. Thus prepared, he ties his horse to a tree with a thong of sufficient length to permit the animal to graze; then lying down on his bedding, with his feet to the fire, sleeps undisturbed until morning.

The constant and universal habit of smoking is very annoying to the English traveller in America. From the president of the United States, down to the lowest citizen that can afford a segar, all the Americans smoke, and many chew tobacco. This is practised, too, even on the bench of justice and in the chair of state, in the senate-house, and in the drawing-room.

Bull-baiting, boxing, and cock-fighting, are little

N. AMERICA.

Political
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known in the United States. Dancing and music are very common, even among the lowest of the citizens.

Early marriages are usual; a custom easily accounted for from the cheapness of lands, and the facility of procuring a livelihood.

Although the thirst for, and the pursuit of wealth is universal, yet there are causes which contribute to prevent its accumulation to excess in any one point—among which a strong propensity to personal extravagance, and the abolition of the English laws of descent in all their operations, occupy no inconsiderable place.

There is another feature in the American character, which arises no less from the nature of the political institutions, than from the state of the country, and its various facilities for reaching a comparative independence. As there is no family, or hereditary wealth, so there is no family authority in the United States. Children are equal to their parents, scholars to their masters, clients to their lawyers, clerks to the merchants whose affairs they keep in order, and labourers (for servants and masters there are none) to their employers. It has been said with vivacity, and with much truth, that "the master himself, if he wishes his affairs to prosper, must be the only servant in his own house." All the domestics, and even the children of the household are *free*; and to work or play, to execute the duties required, or to neglect them, is, comparatively, at every one's option. For such a state of society no precedent is to be found.

The vanity of the American character is also very prominent, and perhaps arises much from the very same causes. That the perfection of valor, wisdom, virtue, liberty and patriotism, is nowhere to be found but in America, is, amongst the Americans themselves, the universal axiom. In the administration of Washington, congress was engaged for three days in a debate on the question, "Whether America was not the most enlightened nation on earth!"

The lowest rank of the American citizens consist of those who dwell on the borders of the woods, called back-wood men. Their sole occupation is to clear a little ground, on which they raise corn sufficient for their own use, supplying their other wants by their gun. These assimilate, in appearance and manners, very nearly to the native Indians; and so addicted are they to this savage mode of life, that they readily sell their cleared lands, called "*improvements*," to any who may happen to be a little higher in the scale of human being than themselves. They then remove further into the woods, clearing more ground, and resuming their accustomed method of living. A recent traveller lodged in the hotel of one of these men: it was the third habitation he had built within one year, and he appeared again ready to sell; chimneys to his hut there was none; beds made, of unknown logs laid across each other; two chairs, one of which was broken, and a low stool, constituted all its furniture, although the family consisted of himself, a pregnant wife, a boy nearly grown to manhood, three elder girls, and a numerous infant family. A large iron pot, their guns, and a fiddle, were the whole of their domestic utensils. Birkbeck's *Notes on a Journey in America*, 8vo.

RELIGION.—America presents a very singular aspect with regard to religion. She is, in fact, the first country which has tried the great experiment of allowing unlimited freedom of opinion, so that the want of a

particular form of religion does not disqualify, as the profession of any mode of faith does not furnish a qualification, for civil office. We know not by what epithet to distinguish this arrangement; it is not *toleration*, for no parties can be said even to differ from the government, since that government establishes no religion, and, as such, has no creed, or form of worship; perhaps it ought not to be termed *indifference*, since, without implying any feeling with regard to the principles of religion itself, or toward any of its adopted forms, that subject is simply left untouched and unobstructed. It is a fundamental principle of the constitution of the United States, that no law shall ever be passed to establish, or give any political preference whatever to any particular form of religion.

In some of the states the congregation of each church contracts to support its minister as long as he continues to perform his duties, and this contract is enforced by law. In those of New England the law enacts that every individual shall subscribe to the support of his minister, although it leaves to his own choice the sect to which he may choose to belong.

The prevailing religious sects are the presbyterians, Secs. the independents, the episcopalians, methodists, and baptists. Pure episcopacy here is exercised with considerable authority. The bishop is the executive chief over all the clergy of his diocese. The discipline, however, differs somewhat from that which is observed in the church of England. The annual state convention consists of *lay delegates* as well as clergy, the bishop presiding; and the general convention, which meets triennially, is composed of all the bishops of the Union, who form the upper house, and of lay delegates and clergy from all the different dioceses, who constitute the lower house of convocation. The bishops exercise great authority over the diocesan clergy, and possess very considerable power in regulating and governing the church. The great body of the congregationalists are to be found in New England, though some of their churches are scattered in the middle and southern states, which are, however, chiefly occupied by the presbyterians. Episcopacy prevails mostly in New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina; and is supposed to be gaining ground in some parts of New England. The friends, or quakers, are most numerous in the middle states. The methodists occupy chiefly the interior of the southern states, although they have meeting-houses scattered over the greater part of the Union. The Wesleyans are chiefly, if not entirely, under a sort of episcopalian government. The baptists abound most in the western states. The Unitarians are chiefly confined to the populous cities or towns. The Roman Catholics are most numerous in Maryland, and in the large cities on the sea-coast. The Dutch reformed church is principally confined to New York and New Jersey. Jews are found in various parts, but they are not numerous. "In consequence of the entire indifference to religion on the part of the state governments," says Mr. Bristed, "full one-third of our whole population are destitute of all religious ordinances, and a much greater proportion in our southern and western districts." Thus, it must be confessed, is rather a gloomy statement. Oaths, however, are administered on the Gospels; and, we believe, it is generally required, as a sort of test, in certain cases, that the

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Religion.

N. AME-
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and Moral
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citizens should avow their belief in the existence of a Supreme Being, and a future state of rewards and punishments. After the statement of these facts, it is hardly necessary to inform the reader that morality is at a very low ebb; and that the lowest order of the inhabitants are greatly addicted to drunkenness, lying, and the most vulgar and brutal practices and amusements. Latitudinarian notions of religious obligation naturally and almost invariably engender immorality in practice and infidelity in theory.

The late increase of Sunday schools, and of missionary and Bible societies, seem to indicate a meliorating condition of the public mind in the United States with regard to religious affairs. Recently, as these excellent institutions have been introduced, their beneficial effects are already widely spread, and are continually increasing in every direction. The missionary societies are said to pay particular attention to the conversion of the native Indians.

History.

HISTORY.—Although the great events of American history will necessarily be inserted in another division of our work, as belonging to the general course of political events, which we propose to exhibit continuously from the earliest period of the history of all nations to our own age, it may be necessary, in order to render intelligible our geographical and statistical statements, to furnish the reader, in this place, with a brief sketch of those extraordinary movements in the political world which led to the recent independence of the Transatlantic possessions of Great Britain.

At the time when the revolt in question occurred, Great Britain was in the very zenith of her glory, having just previously triumphed over the united power of France and Spain, and obtained confirmation of her claim upon North America on this side the Mississippi, with the exception of the island of Orleans, in a definitive treaty of peace concluded, in 1763, at Paris. The expense of the late war had been immensely great, as the exertions which had been made against the hostile nations had been extensive and energetic; the consequence was, that the British parliament, in an evil hour, adventured upon the plan of attempting to tax the colonies. In April 1764, the parent legislature passed two acts, to impose fresh duties on their trade, and to prohibit the issue of paper-money. These excited some discontent; the Americans, and their friends at home, complained of the clause which required the duties to be paid in current coin, and of that which related to the jurisdiction of the admiralty courts; they also pleaded that the prohibition of paper-money left them no circulating medium, as former regulations had deprived them of gold and silver. Their views, however, were disproved by the fact that, within two years from the passing of this act, the course of exchange on bills drawn on England, from being at a discount between thirty and forty per cent. rose to the proper level, and, instead of banishing gold and silver, was, in reality, the efficient means of bringing a circulating medium into the colonies.

Stamp-act.

But the measure which was the most repugnant to their feelings consisted in the attempt to raise a revenue in America by the stamp-act, which had been discussed and passed the house of commons in the session of 1764, but was postponed by the minister's uncertainty how far raising a revenue by stamp duties might be convenient in the colonies. On the 22d of March, 1765,

however, it received the royal assent, after passing through the house of lords with scarcely any opposition: still it was provided that the law should not take effect till the month of November following. This proceeding immediately occasioned the utmost alarm. Upon the arrival of the news at Boston, the ships in the harbour hoisted their colours half-mast high, in token of deep mourning, and the bells were muffled and rang a funeral knell. The act was reprinted, with the figure of a death's head in the title instead of the king's arms, and it was publicly burned with the effigies of its authors and supporters. The press teemed with libels against the king and parliament, and one of the newspapers even bore for its title the figure of a snake cut in thirteen pieces, each of which bore in succession the initial letter of a colony, with the significant motto, "Join or die." Extreme dissatisfaction, in a word, manifested itself throughout every part of the continent, and the colonies having unanimously adopted a resolution to petition for a redress of grievances, and formed associations to prevent the importation and use of British manufactures till the detested act should be repealed, that desirable event accordingly took place on the 18th of March, 1766.

It was not the intention of the British parliament, ^{Duty imposed on tea, &c.} however, to desist from raising a revenue in the colonies, though it was deemed expedient to change the mode of doing so; and the following year an act was passed, imposing duties on glass, tea, paper, and painters' colours, which had again the effect of rousing a most vehement and powerful opposition, and, in 1770, parliament again retraced their steps, and took off these duties, leaving only three pence a pound on tea. This insignificant tax was, however, sufficient to awaken the jealousy and continue the irritation of the colonists, who were not diverted from a consideration of the principle which the imposition asserted, by the trifling nature of the tax itself. Measures, therefore, were adopted among themselves for encouraging their own manufactures and productions, and to retrench foreign superfluities; the importation of tea being in the mean time prohibited. In several of the governments a continual warfare was kept up with the people; assemblies were perpetually called and dissolved; grievances and remonstrances were stated and framed; and an act of parliament was passed, appointing the governors and judges to receive their salaries of the crown, with a view of making them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removable only at the king's pleasure. These, in connection with a multitude of unwelcome measures, exasperated the public feeling, and paved the way for open revolt. On the 2d of March, a fray took place at Boston, which, though at first only an affair between a private soldier and an inhabitant, not merely became serious in consequence of involving others on both sides in the dispute, but aggravating the dislike already existing against the military, produced another dispute on the 5th, which excited great commotion in the whole town. This again led to a public trial, which furnished occasion for an annual observance of the day during several successive years, in which inflammatory orations were, from time to time, delivered against standing armies, the encroachments of tyranny, &c. and in praise of freedom and colonial rights.

The year 1773 is distinguished as the period when ^{1773.} the Americans broke out into what was then considered

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open rebellion. The people were excessively irritated at the vigilance of an armed schooner, which had been placed at Providence, in Rhode Island, to prevent smuggling; and about two hundred men having entered the vessel by night, unslipped the officers and crew, and burned the schooner. The offer of a reward of 500*l.* produced no discovery. About the same time, some private letters, written by the royal officers in Boston to persons in official situations in England, recommending decisive measures against the Americans, were discovered and published. The disappointment experienced by the British government with regard to a revenue to be extracted from tea, induced them to form a plan of introducing it by means of the East India company, which was empowered to export all sorts of tea to any place duty free. Several ships were accordingly freighted, and dispatched to America; and factors in the principal ports were appointed to receive and dispose of their cargoes. The directors were to satisfy the treasury for the duties of the teas thus disposed of in America, and to indemnify themselves by demanding threepence per pound more from the purchasers, than would otherwise have been necessary. The colonists, however, immediately perceived that this was an indirect mode of opposing their resolutions and procuring a taxation, and measures were adopted to prevent the landing of the teas. A person dispatched from Philadelphia proposed to the people of Boston, that if they would engage to prevent the landing of the tea, the former city would adopt a similar measure. A proposal of the same nature was also acquiesced in at New York, and the consignees of the tea were commanded at these places to resign their offices, under threats of corporal punishment. The pilots were ordered to withhold their assistance from the ships, and, upon their arrival, they were remanded to England. One instance of an attempt to land tea being detected, seventeen chests were seized, and thrown into the river. At Charlestown, in South Carolina, the tea was landed, under the direction of the mob, and thrown into a damp cellar to perish.

November.

In the beginning of November, a meeting of the inhabitants of Boston and the neighbouring town was convened, under the tree of liberty, and the consignees were ordered to appear to resign their offices, and to engage, on oath, to return the expected teas to England, which they refused, after two applications to the same purpose. After in vain attempting to seize them, another formal meeting was held, and resolutions adopted at all events to prevent the importation of the tea. The multitudes collected on this occasion were informed that, as it was evident there must be a quarrel with the British government before their rights would be secured, the present was the most eligible period. The repeated refusal of the consignees was resolved to be a daring affront; but another assembly being held ten days afterwards, they were again desired to relinquish their appointments, on pain of being declared enemies to their country, which was again declined. The governor and the consignees now both appealed to the council, which, after some days of deliberation, at length determined on rejecting the petition of the latter, and advising the former to renew his orders to prevent all offences against the law. The day preceding, one of the tea ships had arrived, and was soon followed by two others.

VOL. XVII.

The entire population of the town was summoned to resistance, and it was voted in a large assembly, "that the tea should not be landed, that no duty should be paid, and that it should be sent back in the same bottoms." The owners and shipmasters were commanded, at their peril, to suffer the tea to be landed, or entered at the custom-house. Every precaution was, at the same time, adopted, to circulate instant alarm, if requisite, throughout the country. An armed watch mounted guard at the wharf, with proper sentinels, in sight of the king's squadron in the harbour and two regiments of infantry in the castle, and other meetings of the inhabitants were repeatedly held and adjourned; and the people, with the fullest knowledge that they were actually in an open state of revolt, determined to proceed. Another vessel had now arrived, and was wrecked at cape Cod; what cargo remained was conveyed to the castle. The masters of the different vessels were ordered to apply for a clearance, and return home, but they were informed by the collector of the customs that their ships must be first unladen; and they were desired to petition the governor for his mandate to pass the castle, who replied that he could not grant such a pass consistently with the law and with his duty to the king, unless the vessel were properly qualified from the custom-house. When this answer was reported to the public meeting, it was immediately dissolved, and the crowd proceeded to the wharf under Hancock, Adams, and other leaders. A party was seen advancing from the N. side of the town in the disguise of Mohawk Indians, headed by Captain Wood, who boarded the ships, and having opened 342 chests, committed them to the waves.

As soon as the account of this transaction reached Great Britain, the parliament resolved on punishing the delinquents, and a bill was passed on the 25th of March, 1774, called the Boston port bill, "To discontinue the landing and discharging, lading and shipping of goods, wares and merchandizes, at the town of Boston, or within the harbour," which threw the inhabitants into great consternation. The town resolved that this was an oppressive measure, and called on the colonies to concur in preventing all importations from the mother-country; and most of them determined on concurring with Massachusetts in opposing the parliamentary proceedings.

Successive acts of a hostile tendency were now passed for the purpose of intimidation, but without success. Of this nature were the act "For the better regulating government in the province of Massachusetts bay;" another for sending any person indicted for murder or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magistrates in exerting the laws, to any other colony or to Great Britain for trial; and the Quebec bill, which extended the bounds of that province, and secured many privileges to the Roman Catholics. The different colonies, however, maintained a correspondence on the subject of the unconstitutional acts of parliament, and at length concurred in holding a congress at Philadelphia, Oct. 26, 1774, to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. The proceedings were dispassionate and loyal, but characterized by firmness as well as by unanimity; and this meeting appealed both to the inhabitants of America and Britain: to the former, to persist in defending their constitutional rights;

N. AME.
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
United
States.Boston
port-bill.

Other acts.

Congress
at Phila-
delphia.

3 H

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.United
States.

to the latter, not to support their government in their attempts to enslave their American brethren. The state of affairs in Massachusetts was, in the mean time, such as to indicate a very determined hostility to Great Britain, and the gathering storm everywhere thickened around the political horizon.

At this juncture, General Gage, apprehending some popular commotion at the annual muster of the militia, seized the magazines of ammunition in Cambridge and Charlestown, and deposited them in Boston, which, in connection with the fortifications carried on between Boston and Roxbury, produced great alarm. The delegates from the towns in Suffolk county were summoned, and several spirited resolutions adopted, purporting that General Gage's proceedings, and the late acts of parliament, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, and calling for an union in their defence. They also resolved on holding a provincial congress, the suspension of commerce, the encouragement of arts and manufactures, &c. A previous assembly had been summoned to meet at Salem, and, notwithstanding a countermand by proclamation from the governor, sixty newly-elected members met; and, after forming themselves into a provincial congress, adjourned to Concord, in the vicinity of Boston. These measures, of course, exasperated General Gage, who designated them by the odious epithet of rebellion.

1775.

In 1775 the fishery bills were passed in parliament, prohibiting the colonies from trading with Great Britain, Ireland, or the West Indies, and the taking of fish on the banks of Newfoundland. The effects of these enactments were, however, considerably superseded by large supplies furnished from different places to the sufferers. Preparations were now made for a forcible opposition to these acts of parliament; the militia were assiduously trained, and encouragement was given to the manufacture of gunpowder. In the month of February, Colonel Leslie was dispatched with troops from Boston to take possession of some cannon at Salem; but the people effectually counteracted his plan, by taking up the drawbridge. Military stores and provisions were accumulated in various places, which General Gage made arrangements to destroy, particularly at Concord.

Affair at
Concord,
&c.

Eight hundred grenadiers and light infantry landed at Leechmore's point, and marched for Concord, under Lieutenant-colonel Smith; but though their measures were pursued with the utmost possible secrecy, intelligence of the whole plan was communicated to the county militia. Soon after midnight 130 of the Lexington militia had assembled to oppose them, but were dismissed with orders to re-appear at the first sound of the drum. Again they collected to the number of 70, soon after four in the morning, when the British regulars appeared; and Major Pitcairn rode up with this address on his lips, "Disperse, ye rebels!—throw down your arms and disperse!" Disobedience excited displeasure; he discharged his pistol, and ordered his soldiers to fire; when the militia retired with the loss of three or four of their body. The royal detachment then proceeded to Concord, and destroyed some military stores and provisions; and, after some other skirmishing, the king's troops retreated towards Boston. At Lexington they met with considerable annoyance; but a reinforcement received from General Gage awed

the provincials, and disabled them from doing more than maintain an irregular fire. Soon after sunset the regulars reached Bunker's hill, and the next day crossed Charlestown ferry to Boston. Thus was the first blood shed in this sanguinary war, a war so unusual in its character, and producing the important consequence of severing America from the empire of Great Britain. The die was now cast; the States united their energies, and Boston was in a few days besieged by 20,000 militia, collected from all quarters. The provincial congress of Massachusetts, which was at the moment in session, voted that "an army of 30,000 men, be immediately raised; that 13,600 be of their own province, and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island."

About the latter end of May, three generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, arrived at Boston, from Great Britain, to act in conjunction with General Gage, who issued a proclamation, proposing the alternative of peace or war, which was answered by the provincials giving orders for the occupation of Breed's hill by 1,000 men, the heights of Charlestown being deemed of great importance. Here a severe battle was fought, which has been called the battle of Bunker's hill, another eminence in the immediate vicinity, in which the British claimed the victory. The loss on both sides was very great. On the 15th of June, two days previous to this contest, George Washington was unanimously appointed by the continental congress to the chief command of the American army. This illustrious individual pursued a system of operation which has excited the admiration of all nations, and ultimately obtained a triumph which has invested his name with an undecaying splendour. He assumed the command in July 1775. In the month of March of the following year, he entered Boston in triumph, after the British general Howe had been compelled to abandon the town. In July, congress published their declaration of independence, one hundred and sixty years from the first effectual settlement in Virginia, and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth, in Massachusetts. At this period, Washington was in New York with 13,000 men, and soon after Howe landed on Staten island with a powerful force. In September, the city was taken by the British, and the Americans suffered defeats on every side, till all that remained of an army, which at the opening of the campaign amounted to 25,000, did not exceed 3,000 men, and as the term of their engagements was expired, most of them availed themselves of the opportunity of returning to their families. To complete their disasters, at this tremendous crisis, General Lee was captured by a party of British light horse. Washington, however, exerted himself on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware, and, by a sudden nocturnal movement, marched upon Trenton, having crossed the river, and took it with 900 Hessian prisoners.

The following year (1777) was distinguished by remarkable events, not the least amongst which may be reckoned the surrender of General Burgoyne, with his whole army, amounting to 5,732 men, into the hands of the Americans. He had previously left Canada with an army of 10,000, and a fine train of artillery. This was in October; but in the preceding month, the

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.United
States.Washington
assumes the
command of
the Amer-
icans.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

United States.

Treaty with France.

British had, in another direction, overpowered General Washington, and possessed themselves of Philadelphia. General Vaughan, also, having sailed up Hudson's river, burnt the Dutch settlement of Kingston, on the western side.

On the 30th of January, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded between France and America, which induced the English ministry instantly to send over commissioners to attempt a reconciliation with the revolted colonies; but their efforts were without success. Howe returned to England about this time, and the command devolved on Sir Henry Clinton.

In the beginning of the year 1780, an expedition, under the British Generals Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charlestown, which, in six weeks, was captured, General Lincoln and the whole American garrison being made prisoners. Lord Cornwallis afterwards pursued his successes, and marched victoriously through the southern states. General Arnold, in the same year, treacherously attempted to deliver up West point and the army to the British, in the absence of Washington; but the plan was frustrated by the taking and execution of Major Andre, aid-de-camp to Clinton, who was employed in the negotiation. In March 1781, a severe battle was fought between Generals Greene and Lord Cornwallis, in Carolina, in which, though the British triumphed, they suffered a tremendous loss. About the end of August, Comte de Grasse arrived in the Chesapeake, and blockaded the British troops at York town. Washington had previously moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops who were his auxiliaries, to the south; and hearing of the arrival of the French fleet, he advanced to the head of the Elk, by rapid marches, where he embarked his troops for York town. The combined forces of France and America now carried on a vigorous and close siege, till, on the 19th of October, 1781, Lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender; and, in a few months, the British having evacuated all their posts in South Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New York, a foundation was laid for the establishment of a general peace. This most desirable event took place soon afterwards, the provisional articles being signed at Paris, in November 1782, and these articles ratified by a definitive treaty on the 3d of September, 1783. Thus, after a fluctuating conflict of seven years, the independence of the United States of America was solemnly acknowledged, and a basis laid upon which succeeding events have been rearing, and future ages will doubtless complete, the superstructure of one of the most important empires of the globe.

After so extraordinary a contest, it is not surprising that some years should elapse, and some internal commotions prevail, before a generally acceptable constitution for the government of all the states in union, could be framed and adopted. The federal constitution had, however, been received by all the states, in January 1791, though at different periods and by different majorities. Delaware, New Jersey, and Georgia were unanimous. On March 3, 1789, the delegates from the eleven states which had then ratified the constitution, assembled at New York, and, on the 30th of April, Washington was inaugurated president of the United States, in the Federal Hall, and in the presence of innumerable spectators. He has been since followed in

the presidency successively by Mr. Adams, Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Madison, and Mr. Monroe; and eight other states have been added to the Union.

In the preceding sketch of the present situation and resources of the most important portion of the North American continent, our geographical details of North America, generally, will be found to embrace all the great features of the geography of the United States; what remains of this will receive our particular attention in treating of the respective states of the Union, which will be inserted in their alphabetical order in this Division. The article UNITED STATES, toward the close of the work, will afford us a convenient opportunity to mark the further progress of this colossal empire, and to exhibit a correct summary of its entire character.

CHAPTER II.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

The possessions of Great Britain in North America are of considerable extent, but of very inferior population. Of British-born subjects the number is exceedingly small, the chief part being French and natives; and, while the population of the United States rises, as we have seen, to ten or eleven millions, the whole amount of the population of our remaining colonies on the western continent has been stated as scarcely amounting to three hundred thousand.

These colonies may be most conveniently regarded as comprising the four provinces of UPPER CANADA, LOWER CANADA, NEW BRUNSWICK and NOVA SCOTIA. New Britain, or the entire district round Hudson's bay, together with the island of Cape Breton, are included in the government of Lower Canada; as are the islands of St. John and Newfoundland in that of Nova Scotia. But the troops at Newfoundland are under the military command of the Governor-General of the four provinces, who resides at Quebec.

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.—Of these possessions, Upper and Lower Canada hold decidedly and by far the most important rank; these provinces, comprehending the whole of what was originally called New France, or French Canada, as ceded to Great Britain by the French in the treaty of Paris, 1763, are bounded on the N. by Hudson's bay, East Maine and Labrador; on the S. by the United States; on the E. by Labrador, the bay of St. Lawrence and New Brunswick; and on the W. by lake Winnipeg, and its confluent streams. From its extreme boundary, the gulf of St. Lawrence in the E. to the Winnipeg lake in the W., this district stretches over the North American continent from 64° to 97° W. longitude, comprehending about 1,200 geographical miles; and its extreme breadth, from lake Erie in the S. or N. lat. 43°, to Hudson's bay, in 51°, is about 480 geographical miles. Its mean breadth, however, does not exceed 200 miles. The division of this country into the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada took place by an act of 31 Geo. III.; they are separated from each other by the river Utawas, or more accurately by a line which commences on the north bank of lake St. Francis, in the river St. Lawrence; runs thence in a northerly direction to the

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

British Possessions.

Surrender of Lord Cornwallis.

Federal constitution.

Upper and Lower Canada.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.British
Possessions.Waters,
falls &c.Falls of
Montmorenci-
rock.

Chaudiere.

Utawar river, and then due north till it reaches the boundary of Hudson's bay. All the territory to the westward and southward of this line, is comprehended in Upper Canada, having for its capital the town of York, on the river Don. Lower Canada lies on both sides of the mighty stream of the river St. Lawrence; having for its capital the city of Quebec, which may, in fact, be regarded as the metropolis of the British possessions in this part of the globe.

WATERS, FALLS, &c.—Of the waters of this portion of North America, we have already described that chain of lakes, or inland seas, which forms their principal feature, viz. lakes Winnipeg, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. The minor lakes are too numerous to detail in a general view of this continent. The river St. Lawrence, before it reaches lake Ontario, passes through those of St. Pierre, St. Louis, St. Francis, and the Lake of a thousand isles; westward of lake Superior are found many other inferior, but fine sheets of water, which are also scattered through the whole centre of the country, in a line eastward from lake Winnipeg to Quebec. To the whole aspect of Lower Canada, the St. Lawrence affords many striking and interesting scenes. For 400 miles from its mouth, this river flows between lofty eminences, covered with the foliage of immense forests, and supplying to it numerous tributary streams. It occasionally branches into several distinct currents, leaving clusters of fruitful islands between them, or large single islands, as in the neighbourhood of Quebec, and is the grand outlet to the ocean for the productions of all that extensive line of country which lies between the United States and Hudson's bay. The trade of the western territory of the United States themselves has, indeed, no equally convenient channel to the Atlantic. The Utawar, or boundary river, between the upper and lower provinces, is the largest of all the streams connected with the St. Lawrence, and flows from the central waters of the country southward into that river, connecting several of the smaller lakes. The Niagara river (chiefly distinguished by its celebrated falls) runs from the eastern border of lake Erie, and discharges itself, after a course of thirty-six miles, into lake Ontario.

In addition to the falls of Niagara, described (p. 398), Lower Canada contains those of Montmorenci, formed by a river of this name, about five miles N. of Quebec, near its junction with the St. Lawrence. The fall itself is a perpendicular cataract of about 220 feet, and the breadth of the torrent about 50 feet. The majesty and beauty of the whole scene is said to be inconceivable, except to the actual spectator as he approaches the foot of the stream. The waters of the fall, from their excessive height, appear to be of a snow-white foam, and are enveloped with vapour and mist, the cone of which is about 100 feet in height, of an apparently regular mathematical shape, with its base extending nearly across the stream.

The beautiful falls of the Chaudiere are also situated in Lower Canada, and are about four miles from the junction of the river of that name, with the mighty stream of the St. Lawrence, five miles above Quebec. The rush of the waters is heard at a considerable distance before the falls themselves are visible. They commence at a rocky point projecting across the river, and are crowned with a single cedar-tree. When in full

view, the river, which is about 240 yards in breadth, is seen to precipitate itself above 100 perpendicular feet over a red clay-slate, forming the bed of the fall, intermingled with thin layers of grey stone, which yield a brownish tinge to its waters. Part of this stream falls over a ledge of rocks, forming an oblique angle to the main channel, and producing a smaller cascade. A wall of granite about six feet in height and three in breadth, nearly on the line of the falls, bursts through the strata forming the bed of the river, and runs across them in a straight line, until broken through by the lesser fall. The scenery which surrounds the whole is grand and imposing; the stately woods and extensive streams exhibiting nature in all her primal loveliness, and almost in unequalled majesty.

The falls of Shawinongamie, in Lower Canada, occur in the river St. Maurice, and are approached by ascending up that river, the navigation being frequently impeded by dangerous rapids. The falls are first perceived rushing down about 100 feet into a dark sombre nook; but the torrent does not appear to be perpendicular in its descent. It is divided by an islet, or mass of rocks, and its total width may be estimated, perhaps, at 60 yards. The rocks at the foot of the falls are covered with trunks and large branches of trees, which are worn round and smooth, as if they were turned in a lathe, by the action of the torrent.

MOUNTAINS.—Immense branches of the Rocky Mountains stretch into the Canadian provinces from the W. They completely encircle lakes Winnipeg and Superior, and separate the waters that fall into them northward and southward, advance along the course of the St. Lawrence, and again divide the tributary streams of that river from those which fall into Hudson's bay. They are characterized by all the boldness and ruggedness of what may be called their parent stem in the W., and are interspersed with the same variety of lofty plains, immense woods, and waters of every shape and name. The mountains and highlands in the vicinity of Quebec are principally composed of a grey rock-stone on a base of lime-slate, which is sometimes impregnated with grey and black glimmer and quartz, fibrous gypsum, and pierre au calumet (so called from its being principally used as an ornament both by the French and Indians at the head of their calumets, or tobacco-pipes). Some iron-ore has been discovered in the neighbourhood of the Three rivers, where works for the smelting and manufactory of it have been formerly erected, and copper and lead are found in small quantities in Lower Canada, but the mineralogy of these provinces has been but little explored. At St. Paul's, about 54 miles below Quebec, it was once thought that some veins of silver-ore had been opened, but it was afterwards discovered to be only a superior kind of lead. The copper has appeared principally on the southwestern shores of lake Superior.

CLIMATE.—Canada, from its extreme cold in the winter months, has been called the Siberia of England; and the heat in summer is said to be as excessive as the cold is in winter. Mr. Weld asserts that Fahrenheit's thermometer has been known to stand at 96° in the months of July and August, and in winter that the quicksilver generally freezes. In November, the snow begins to fall; in December the frost sets in, and the

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.British
Possessions.

Climate.

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

—
British
Possessions.

atmosphere, by its purifying influence, is free from a cloud or vapour during several weeks. The cold weather reaches its utmost severity in the month of January, and is sometimes so intense as to seize upon any exposed part of the persons of strangers. The inhabitants themselves are compelled, by the severity of the frost, to cover almost their whole bodies with skins and furs to protect them when they go abroad upon their ordinary business. The ice begins to thaw in the river St. Lawrence about the commencement of May, and passes on into the Atlantic with surprising velocity when dissolved. Spring immediately follows this gloomy winter, and is itself as soon succeeded by summer. As a proof of the extreme fertility of the soil in summer, the wheat, which is sown in May, is said to be sometimes reaped at the latter end of July. Such a climate is likely to be capricious in its favours; and when various species of fruits have disappeared at Montreal, they have been found in full season at the short distance of Quebec.

Vegetable
productions.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—In Lower Canada, the thin soil is particularly well adapted for the growth of various kinds of grain, and the Indian maize is cultivated in abundance. Tobacco for private use is also grown here, but it is not cultivated as an article of commerce; indeed there is not sufficient for the home consumption of the inhabitants. All kinds of European fruits and culinary vegetables arrive to great perfection in Canada during the summer heats. Raspberry, currant, and gooseberry trees flourish in luxuriant fulness; the first is indigenous here, and occasionally to be found in the woods in a wild state. There is also a sort of indigenous vine, but the grapes are small and

acid. The woods and forests abound in oak, elm, beech, ash, pine, sycamore, walnut, and chestnut trees; and in almost every part of the country the sugar maple tree thrives exceedingly well. The maple, which is extracted from the sap of this tree is the only raw sugar which is used in the Canadian villages.

ANIMALS.—The zoology of Canada very much resembles that of the United States of America, and its chief singularities, according to Mr. Pennant, are the moose-deer, and that extraordinary animal the beaver. The puma and lynx are said to be found in various parts of the country, and the rein-deer is to be seen in the northern districts. Of birds, the only curious species to be mentioned is the humming-bird, sometimes found in the vicinity of Quebec. That formidable reptile the rattlesnake infests both the Canadas.

POPULATION, MANNERS, &c.—The population of this country has been a subject of much dispute. The fact is, it has been exposed at one time to the severest visitations of war, and all the discouraging circumstances arising from a change of masters; and in latter years, from emigration hither, and the peculiar attention of the British government, it has increased, as in the case of its neighbours, the United States, with an almost incredible rapidity. According to a census taken by the orders of General Murray in 1765, the number of inhabitants, exclusive of the king's troops, was 76,275; previously to this period the population appears to have been on the decline. By another census, taken in 1783-4, they amounted to 113,012, making an increase of 36,737 in eighteen years, and the entire statistical accounts of these two periods have been thus compared:

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

—
British
Possessions.

Population,
manners,
&c.

Date of census.	Inhabitants.	Acres in cultivation.	Bushels of grain sown annually.	Horses.	Oxen, cows, and young horned cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.
1765	76,275	764,604	194,724½	13,757	50,329	27,064	28,976
1783	113,012	1,569,818	383,349½	30,096	98,591	84,666	70,466
Increase in 18 years	36,737	805,214	188,625	16,339	48,262	57,602	41,490

This is the last census of which the documents have been given to the public. Mr. Heriot computed the entire population of Upper and Lower Canada, at the publication of his work (1808), at 250,000; and M. Bouchette, in 1814, estimates the native Canadians only, "descendants of the original French settlers," at 275,000; perhaps, therefore, the true population (including the British, and all who live upon the soil), may be taken from this number to nearly 300,000 souls. The generality of the French Canadian peasantry resemble the people of old France in vivacity and gaiety, and their very features strongly proclaim their French extraction. The sharp, unchangeable, angular lineaments of the French countenance, are seen set off with a blue nightcap, the hair tied in a leather queue, and a short pipe in the mouth. It is, however, observed, that the manners of those parts of Canada which border upon the United States, very much partake of the sullenness and taciturnity so characteristic of much of their inferior population. The French language is universally, but not purely spoken; and the use of English is confined to the small number of British colonists.

Literature is at a very low ebb, the bulk of the population being involved in ignorance and superstition, and the willing dupes of every sort of priestcraft. In Lower Canada, the expenses of the civil list are reckoned at 20,000*l.* per annum, one-half of which is defrayed by the British government, and the other half by the province, out of the duties arising from the importation of spirituous liquors, wine, sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco, salt, cards, &c. &c. In Upper Canada, the expense of the civil list is not computed at more than one-fourth of that of the lower province. In both provinces the military establishments, together with the repairs of fortifications, are thought to cost the British government 100,000*l.* per annum. The like sum is expended upon provisions and presents to the Indians in Upper Canada; the entire annual cost to Great Britain of maintaining this province, has been taken at about 500,000*l.* sterling.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—The commerce of the Trade and Canadian provinces has rapidly increased within the last thirty years, prior to which it was of little consideration. The mercantile men are mostly British ad-

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

British Possessions.

venturers, though several Americans of the same description have lately settled at Montreal. At Quebec there are ship-building establishments, which are supplied with iron-work from the interior, and corriage and rigging from England. The East India and British manufactured goods imported annually into Canada, average about 250,000*l.*; tea and tobacco are the principal imports from the United States, with whom the whole amount of the import trade may be taken at about one-half of that of Great Britain. The imports from England principally consist of earthenware, hardware, household furniture, woollen, linen, and cotton manufactures, haberdashery, and hosiery of all sorts,

besides stationary, leather articles, grocery, wines, spirits, all kinds of West India produce, cordage, and the coarse articles of iron manufacture. In some parts of Canada, manufactures of coarse linen goods and of woollen cloths are carried on, but Great Britain supplies most of these articles. The principal exports from Canada consist of various kinds of furs, pelts, wheat, flour, biscuit, timber, lumber of all sorts, dried fish, oil, gessing, and different kinds of medicinal drugs. The returns of the exports and imports for 1808 and 1810, extracted from Thompson's *Alcédor*, will give the most correct view of the general state of the commerce of these provinces.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

British Possessions.

General view of the exports and imports of Canada, in 1808, in sterling money.

No. of Vessels.	Imports or Exports.	Where from and to.	Articles.	Separate Amount.	General Amount.
334	Exports	From Quebec	Furs and other colonial produce	£. s. d. 350,000 0 0	
—	—	—	Wheat, biscuit, and flour	171,200 0 0	
—	—	—	Oak and pine timber, staves, masts, &c.	157,360 0 0	
—	—	—	Pot and pearl ashes	290,000 0 0	
—	—	—	New ships—3,750 tons—10 <i>l.</i> per ton	37,500 0 0	
—	—	From Labrador and Gaspe }	Fish, lumber, oil, &c.	120,000 0 0	
—	—	To U. States, per way of Lake Champlain }	Sundries, about	30,000 0 0	
—	Imports	From England	Manufactured goods 200,000 0 0		1,156,060 0 0
—	—	—	West India produce 130,000 0 0		
—	—	From U. States	Merchandise, tea, provisions, tobacco, &c.	100,000 0 0	
—	—	—	Oak, pine, timber, masts, &c.	70,000 0 0	
—	—	—	Pot and pearl ashes	110,000 0 0	
				280,000 0 0	610,000 0 0
			Balance in favour of the colony		546,060 0 0

Tonnage of shipping trading to Canada for three years.

1806	33,996
1807	42,293
1808	70,275

The number of shipping that cleared out from Quebec in 1808, amounted to 334; and were laden principally with timber, pot-ash, pitch, tar, and turpentine; wheat, flax-seed, staves, &c. The tonnage was 70,275, and the number of seamen 3,330. The greatest part of these vessels were sent by government, the usual supplies from the Baltic being in a great measure cut off by the war with Russia and Denmark, and the importations from the United States being totally stopped by the embargo. The advantage, therefore, of Great Britain deriving her supplies of hemp, as well as every other description of naval stores, from Canada, cannot for a moment be doubted. Even in time of peace, they would encourage and enrich the British colonists, and the competition in the market with the

productions of the United States, and the N. parts of Europe, would inevitably tend to lessen the expences of our navy and commercial marine. From the account of the exports and imports of Canada for the year 1810, Mr. Thompson presents us with the following data:

Exports, 1810.—170,860 bushels of wheat; 12,519 barrels of flour; 16,467 quintals of biscuit, 112 lbs.; 18,928 bushels of peas; 866 ditto of oats; 8,584 ditto of flax-seed; 33,798 pieces of oak timber, about 24,000 loads; 69,271 ditto of pine, about 50,000 loads; 137 ditto of walnut, maple, &c.; 6,977 masts and hand-masts; 678 bowsprits; 3,354 spars, principally red pine; 3,887,306 staves and heading, 3,600,000 standard; 47,515 stave-ends; 312,423 pine boards and planks; 13,623 handspikes; 30,301 oars; 167,398

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
British
Possessions.

pieces of lath-wood; 130,516 West India hoops; 80,000 shingles; 55 butt, 5,197 pipe, 1,301 half ditto, and 771 one-quarter ditto, Madeira packs; 228 tierce packs; 28,407 barrels of pot and pearl ashes, weight 106,581 cwt.; 30 hales of cotton, 8,181 lbs.; 4,628 barrels and 2 tierces of pork; 2,979 ditto of beef; 29 puncheons and 1 tierce of hams, 17,000 lbs.; 1,070 boxes of soap; 1,181 ditto of candles; 422 firkins and kegs of butter; 147 barrels, &c. of hogs' lard; 7 puncheons and 3 casks of ginseng, 2,344 lbs.

The total value of exports from Quebec, 1810, (sterling) . . . £942,324 9 3
Ditto of furs, skins, &c. from ditto, (ditto) . . . 120,503 9 7

Total exports in 1810, (sterling) . £1,062,827 18 10
Disbursements for provisions and ships' stores for 661 vessels, at Quebec, in 1810, average about 350*l.* sterling each . . . 231,350 0 0
Freights of these vessels, averaging about 216 tons each, or about 230 load each ship, at 7*l.* sterling per load . . . 1,064,210 0 0

Total (sterling) . . . £2,358,387 18 10
In the preceding account, the exports from Canada to the United States, via St. John's, and the exports from the departments of Gaspe and the bay of Chaleurs, are not included.

Imports, 1810.—Among the articles included under this head, are the increasing importations direct from Spain and Portugal, and other parts of Europe S. of cape Finisterre to Canada.

The total amount of imports into Quebec, in 1810, of articles liable to duty, was about (sterling) . . £372,837 0 0
Ditto of ditto not liable to duty, estimated at (sterling) . . . 600,000 0 0

Total imports in 1810 (sterling) . . £972,837 0 0

Shipping.—The number of ships, principally belonging to the leading out-ports in Great Britain, which have entered into the Quebec trade, exceeds the most sanguine expectations which were formed by persons well and long acquainted with the resources of that province; and the ships which have been engaged in the trade to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and their dependencies, have increased in nearly the same proportion. "It may be remarked," observes the intelligent writer to whom we are indebted for the above statements, "that in the furloughing of this trade no specie is sent out of the country, the returns being nearly all made in British produce and manufactures, and the difference either left here with the correspondents of the colonists or invested in the public funds. The employment which is thus afforded to British ships and British seamen, and the advantages which must result to the traders and manufacturers of the country, and to the various useful classes connected with ship-building, from such employment of our own shipping, cannot fail to excite astonishment in the minds of the most indifferent and inattentive observers, that these colonies should have been so long considered possessions of little value or importance, and that we at last resorted to them from necessity. Indeed, we have to

thank the northern powers of Europe, and the government of the United States, for having opened our eyes, and directed our attention to these invaluable appendages of the British empire.

	Ships.	Tons.
Vessels cleared out, which entered		
Quebec in 1810	635	138,067
Ditto, now built there	26	5,836
Average, 216 tons each	Total 661	143,893."

HISTORY.—A sketch of the history of its various modern masters may conclude our description of this part of the American continent.

The first Europeans who colonised Canada, were the French; who, as we have already seen, after several unsuccessful expeditions, planted their first settlement at Quebec in 1608. Champlain, who headed this infant colony, then laid the foundation of its capital, and has been justly denominated the father of New France. From this period, although the French settlers suffered considerably from the hostile incursions of the Iroquois and other Indians, the colony nevertheless advanced progressively in numbers and prosperity. Nothing of great importance, however, occurs in the history of this district, till the time of its memorable conquest by the English, under General Wolfe, in 1759, which was confirmed to Great Britain, by France, at the peace of Paris, 1763. From this period till 1774, its internal affairs were managed solely by the British governor. The Quebec bill then constituted a council, at the appointment of his Majesty, whose members amounted to twenty-three. In 1791, however, the governor of each province was entrusted with the chief executive power, assisted by a lieutenant-governor, an executive and legislative council, and a house of assembly. The councils are appointed by the king, and the houses of assembly by the inhabitants. In the absence of the governor, the authority graduates to the lieutenant-governor and the president of the executive council. The governor presides over the legislative council and houses of assembly, as representing the king of Great Britain; the houses are termed collectively the parliament, and every act of local legislation, and for the creating a revenue for the maintenance of the government, has immediate effect. But all acts which go to repeal, or vary the laws that were in existence at the time of the establishment of the present constitution, all acts respecting tithes, the appropriation of land for the maintenance of the Protestant clergy, the waste land of the crown, &c. are transmitted to England for the royal assent, before they can have the form of law. The legislative council of Upper Canada consists of seven members; that of Lower Canada of fifteen. These members are appointed for life, unless they forfeit their office by an overt act of treason, or by an absence of four years. The freeholders of the particular towns and districts choose the members of the assembly; that of Upper Canada consists of sixteen, and that of Lower Canada of fifty members. It must be convened once a year, and cannot continue longer than four years. All appeals from judicial sentences are first to the governor and executive council, and in the last instance, to the British parliament. The criminal law of England is established throughout the Canadas; but the French laws, in civil cases, still pre-

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
—
British
Possessions.

History.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

British Possessions.

vail, from the anxiety of the British government to conciliate the affections of the French inhabitants. All lands both in Upper and Lower Canada, under certain restrictions, are conveyed over to the guarantee, in free and common socage. The English parliament, by an act passed in the 18th year of his present Majesty's reign, possesses the power of making any regulations which may respect the navigation and commerce of Canada, and could also impose import and export duties, restricted to the use of the province. In both provinces, every religious sect is tolerated; but the Roman Catholic faith is professed by a majority of the inhabitants. By the Quebec bill of 1774, the clergy of that persuasion received a legal right to recover all dues and tithes which belonged to them from the Roman Catholic inhabitants; but, at the same time, they were not allowed to demand any dues or tithes from Protestants, or from lands held by Protestants, notwithstanding such lands were formerly subjected to the payment of dues and tithes. These tithes and church dues, however, are still collected for the maintenance of the Protestant clergy actually residing in the province, and are regularly paid into the hands of persons appointed by the governor, and kept in reserve by his Majesty's receiver-general for the above-mentioned purpose. By another act, passed in the year 1791, it was ordered, that one-seventh of the crown lands should be set apart for the use and benefit of the Protestant clergy; such allotments to be particularly specified, otherwise the grant should be entirely void. With the advice of the executive council, the governor is authorized to institute rectories or parsonages, and to endow them out of these appropriations; and to present incumbents to them who had been previously ordained, according to the rites of the church of England. In both provinces, the clergy of this church amount to only twelve persons, including the bishop of Quebec; but the clergy of the church of Rome consists of 120, a bishop, three vicars-general, and 116 curés and missionaries, all of whom are resident in Lower Canada, with the exception of five missionaries and curates. There are also a few dissenting ministers scattered through the provinces.

New Britain.

New Britain we have already observed to be included with the island of Cape Breton, in the government of Lower Canada. It comprehends the most northern parts of the British possessions toward and around Hudson's bay and the coast of Labrador. The district to the W. of Hudson's bay is more generally marked in the maps as New North and South Wales, and that to the east of this inland sea East Maine. How far the territories of Great Britain may be said really to extend westward, and whether we may not pursue them to the Pacific ocean, to which the researches and settlements of the North-west company have nearly approached, is a question by no means determined; it may be enough to observe here, that she has no European or civilized rival in this direction.

Sixty years after the intrepid navigator Hudson had first penetrated the noble gulf that bears his name, the British government assigned to a company of traders to these parts, by the style of the Hudson's bay company, the chartered possession of extensive tracts, west, south, and east of Hudson's bay. Their territories are stated by some writers to extend from 70° to 115° W. lon. and southward to about 49° N. lat., comprehending from 1,300 to 1,400 geographical miles

in length, and a medial breadth of about 350 miles. They are said annually to export about 16,000*l.* of the productions of the country, and to return about 30,000*l.* A rival body, called the North-west company, has been recently erected at Montreal. These companies establish factories or small settlements, which sometimes are garrisoned, on the most promising spots. Albany fort, Moon fort, and East Maine factory, are amongst the principal ones in their southern possessions, round St. James's bay; further south are Brunswick town and Frederic town; northward are Severn town, at the mouth of a large river of the same name, flowing from the Winnipeg lake; York fort, on Nelson's river; and Churchill fort, or Fort Prince of Wales, the most northerly of any of these establishments. Hudson's town is the furthest station of the Hudson's bay company westward, but the North-west company have penetrated considerably beyond it. The little that is known of the interior and of its general inhabitants, who have a very circumscribed and transient connection with the factories, will come more correctly under our consideration amongst the Unconquered Regions of this continent.

Cape Breton, or Sydney island, is situated in about W. lon. 60°, and N. lat. 46° N. E. of the extreme point of Nova Scotia, from which it is separated by a strait only about a mile broad. It is attached, as we have noticed, to the government of Lower Canada, and is about 100 miles in length and from 50 to 60 in breadth. Supposed originally to have been part of the adjacent continent, it was called by its present name by the French, who discovered it early in the sixteenth century, but did not take possession of it until 1713, when Fort Dauphin was erected; and in 1720, Louisbourg, one of its principal towns at the present time. It was taken by the British, in an expedition from New England, in 1745, but shortly after restored to the French, from whom it was retaken by Admiral Boscawen, when the garrison amounted to 5,600 men, protected by a fleet of 11 ships of war, which were all taken or destroyed. It was ceded finally to Great Britain by the peace of 1763. The town of Sydney has been since built, and the fishery is important, but the inhabitants do not exceed 1,000 souls. Until 1784, it was attached to the government of Nova Scotia; but it now has a distinct administration, under the name of Sydney (dependent on Lower Canada), and is said to have become, of late, a very flourishing colony. The soil is not, in general, very promising for agriculture; the climate is very bleak and foggy; several considerable lakes are found here, and some noble forests. There is a small fur trade carried on by the settlers. A remarkable bed of coal runs horizontally at from six to eight feet only below the surface, through a large portion of the island; a fire was once accidentally kindled in one of the pits, which is now continually burning. They are said to yield to government a yearly revenue of 12,000*l.* This island has been called the key to Canada, and is the principal protection, through the fine harbour of Louisbourg, of all the fisheries of the neighbourhood.

NEW BRUNSWICK.—This province, together with New Brunswick, was originally comprehended under the latter name. It appears to have been first colonized by the French, under the name of *Acadie*; but the Eng-

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

British Possessions.

Cape Breton, or Sydney island.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
British Possessions.

lish obtaining possession of it in the reign of James I. the whole district, bounded by the gulf of St. Lawrence on the N., and the province of Maine on the S., was granted, in 1621, to Sir William Alexander, afterwards Lord Stirling. At this time it seems to have received the name of Nova Scotia, but was wholly neglected until the middle of the last century, when the town of Halifax was built. On the close of the war which alienated the greater portion of her North American colonies from Great Britain, considerable attention began to be paid to those which remained to her, and Nova Scotia, in 1784, was divided, by act of parliament, into two provinces, of which New Brunswick is by far the more important, comprising the whole of the original *Acadie*, except the peninsula formed by Fundy bay southward, and bay Verte to the N.

New Brunswick is bounded on the E. by the bay of Fundy, the British province of Nova Scotia, and the Atlantic ocean; on the W. by the British province of Lower Canada; on the N. by the gulf of St. Lawrence; and on the S. by Maine, a part of the United States. The river St. Croix, which falls into the bay of Passamaquoddy, forms the southern boundary, from its mouth to its source. Its chief towns are, St. John, Frederic town, St. Andrew, and St. Ann. The principal rivers are, St. John, Magdavic, Digswasset, St. Croix, Miramichi, Grand Codiac, Petit Codiac, and Memramcook, all of which, the three last excepted, empty themselves into the bay of Fundy. The river St. John runs through a fine country of vast extent, being bordered by low grounds, locally called *interfluviæ*, as lying between the river and the mountains, and which are annually enriched by the inundations. It is navigable for vessels of 50 tons above 60 miles of its course, and for boats above 200, the tide flowing about 80 miles. Salmon, huss, and sturgeon, abound in its waters. The greater part of these lands are settled, and under cultivation. The upland is generally well timbered; the trees are pine and fir (the former the largest in British America), beech, birch, maple, elm, and a small proportion of ash. Timber and fish have hitherto been the principal exports of New Brunswick; but the gradual clearing of the country, and increase of population, bid fair to render it an important agricultural district.

The Apalachian chain of mountains penetrates the N. W. of the province, and terminates at the gulf of St. Lawrence. The sea-coast abounds with cod and scale fish, and its numerous harbours are most conveniently situated for carrying on the cod-fishery, to any extent imaginable. The herrings which frequent its rivers are a species peculiarly adapted for the West India market, and are found annually in such abundance that the quantity cured is limited only by the number of hands that can engage in this occupation. The interior is everywhere intersected by rivers, creeks, and lakes, and covered with inextinguishable forests of pine, spruce, birch, beech, maple, elm, fir, and other timber, proper for masts of any size, lumber, and ship-building. The smaller rivers afford excellent situations for saw-mills, and every stream, by the melting of the snow in the spring, is rendered deep enough to float down the masts and timber which the inhabitants have cut and brought to its banks during the long and severe winters. The capital is Frederic town, on the river St.

VOL. XVII.

John. St. Andrew's and St. Ann's are also principal towns.

NOVA SCOTIA.—This province now known by this name consists only of the peninsula formed by the bay of Fundy and the Atlantic ocean; being divided by the straits of Northumberland from the island of St. John on the N., and from New Brunswick W. by a narrow isthmus at the approaching points of Fundy and Verte bay. It is not more than 250 miles long from cape Sable to cape Canso, and about 88 miles broad, containing 8,789,000 acres of land, of which about 3,000,000 have been granted, and 2,000,000 settled and cultivated. Nova Scotia is said to contain several harbours equal to any in the world. The bay of Fundy stretches inland 50 leagues, and the ebb and flow of the tide in it throughout is from 45 to 60 feet. The chief town is Halifax, situated in about the centre of the eastern coast, and well calculated for communications inland or outward. The harbour is excellent, and the town contains upward of 5,000 inhabitants. Chedabucto harbour, at the northern extremity, and Annapolis bay, the basin of Minas, and Wiosdor bay, to the W., are also commodious harbours. Here are three considerable British forts—Fort Cornwallis, Cumberland, and Edward. The entire district is divided into eight counties, viz. Hants, Halifax, King's county, Annapolis, Cumberland, Sunbury, Queen's county, and Lunenburg, which are again subdivided into forty townships. The entire population of the province is calculated at about 50,000. Great Britain imported, previously to the new settlements, about 26,500*l.* in the colony per annum, in linen and woollen cloths chiefly, and grain. Perhaps the present average of British imports may be taken at 30,000*l.* Nova Scotia exports to England, in return, from 40 to 50,000*l.* annually in timber, and the produce of her fisheries.

There is a small Indian tribe, called the Miamis, settled to the east of Halifax; the northern side of the district is high, red, and rocky; and some of its extremities, according to Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology, are very sublime and imposing. There are some good farms in the interior; a society for the encouragement of agriculture has been established, and the whole colony is rapidly advancing in consideration. Spruce, hemlock, pine, fir, and beech abound. Nova Scotia trades in lumber of all sorts, except oak-staves; horses, oxen, sheep, and all other agricultural productions, except grain; and the northern and eastern parts of the province abound in coal. The climate, however, is unfavourable to the health of Europeans, foggy, and extremely cold in the winter months. Copper has been found in small quantities at cape d'Or, or the basin of Minas.

FISHING BANKS.—The situation of Nova Scotia, in Fishing-respect to the fisheries, is represented as scarcely inferior to that of Newfoundland. At the Sable islands, as the banks off cape Sable are called, Brown's and St. George's, are myriads of cod-fish taken annually, which constitute the staple of the province, and form an invaluable nursery for a hardy race of seamen. "Of all minerals," said Lord Bacon, "there is none like the fisheries;" but we shall have occasion to return to this subject under the head of Newfoundland. A whale-fishery has been undertaken occasionally from the port of Halifax, and in 1791 twenty-eight vessels,

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
—
British Possessions.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
British
Possessions.St. John's
and New-
foundland.

of from 60 to 200 tons burden, were engaged in this trade alone. Connected with the government of Nova Scotia, are the islands of St. John and Newfoundland.—The former is about 70 miles in length by 28 broad, and has various convenient harbours and fertilizing streams. It abounds in timber, and, at the time of its cession to England, in 1745, contained 4,000 inhabitants and about 10,000 head of cattle. It was called by the French, at this time, the granary of Canada. The island is divided into three counties—King's, Queen's, and Prince's, twenty-seven townships, and contains 1,363,400 acres. Its capital is Charlotte's town, where a lieutenant-governor resides. Salmon and fine shell-fish are caught on its shores. The inhabitants are now reckoned at about 5,000.

Newfoundland, as we have seen, was the first of our Trans-atlantic possessions, and discovered nearly, perhaps quite, as early as the American continent. After various disputes, it was ceded to the English in 1713, the French having liberty to dry their nets on the northern shore. It is of a triangular shape, about 320 miles long and broad, presenting a line of coast of upwards of 1,000 miles; the interior has been very little penetrated. On the S. W. side there are several lofty headlands, and the hilly parts of the island appear to be crowned with heath, fir, and a small pine; but the valleys are barren, and abounding with morasses; and the cod-fishing exclusively gives it consideration. Over the whole of Newfoundland a dense fog almost constantly rests, and particularly over what is called the Great Bank. This is a large accumulation of sand, stretching round the southern and western sides of the island, about 580 miles in length and 233 broad; the depth of water varying from 15 to 60 fathoms, and the bottom abounding with shell and other small fish, which form the food of the cod. A great swell of the sea and thicker fogs mark the larger divisions of this bank. Fall 300,000*l.* per annum is returned in its produce from the Catholic countries of Europe alone. In 1785, Great Britain and the United States together employed 3,000 sail of small craft in the fishery, which occupied, with curing and packing, upwards of 100,000 hands. By the treaty with France in 1763, the subjects of that country were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon were given up to the French, on condition of their erecting no forts, and keeping not more than 50 soldiers thereon, to support a police. In 1783 her former right of visiting the northern and western shores of this island were confirmed to France, and the inhabitants of the United States were allowed the same privileges, with respect to all its fisheries, as they enjoyed when they were British colonists. This seems to be the present arrangement with regard to these powers. St. John's, on the S. E. coast, is the chief town of Newfoundland; Placentia, on the S., and the ancient Bonaville, on the E., are busy towns in the fishing season, which begins about the 10th of May and ends in September; but not more than 1,000 families remain on the whole island through the winter.

The
fisheries.

The shallops, or fishing-boats used on these banks, measure about 40 feet in the keel, and are furnished with a main-mast, fore-mast, and lug-sails. They are conducted by means of one very large oar and three

smaller ones; the former being used on one side of the stern, and serving to steer as well as pull on the vessel against all the others, which are worked on the opposite side. The fishermen are each furnished with two lines, double hooked, which are cast out, one on each side of the boat, and are calculated to bring in from five to ten quintals of fish daily, though they sometimes produce from twenty to thirty quintals, for which each boat has stowage-room. About 200 quintals is thought a profitable voyage. The maws of the fish caught are sometimes used as bait, but sea-fowl, which abound in the rocks, and are caught by nets laid over their holes, are preferred, and small fish of all kinds answer still better. The herring, lance, capelin, and torn cod, or young cod, are commonly used, and the first is pickled down as a resource in case the others should fail.

The fish being brought to shore, are carried to the stage, which is built with one end over the water, for the convenience of throwing the offal into the sea, and for their boats being able to come close to discharge their fish. As soon as they come on the stage, a boy hands them to the header, who stands at the side of a table next the water, and whose business it is to gut the fish and to cut off the head, which he does by pressing the back of the head against the side of the table, which is made sharp for that purpose, when both head and guts fall through a hole in the floor into the water. He then shores the fish to the splitter, who stands opposite to him; his business is to split the fish, beginning at the head and opening it down to the tail: at the next cut he takes out the larger part of the backbone, which falls through the floor into the water. He then shores the fish off the table, which drops into a kind of hand-barrow, which, as soon as filled, is carried off to the salt pile. The header also flings the liver into a separate basket, for the making of train-oil, used by the carriers, which bears a higher price than whale-oil. In the salt pile the fish are spread one upon another, with a layer of salt between. Thus they remain till they have taken salt, and then are carried, and the salt is washed from them by throwing them off from shore in a kind of float, called a pond. As soon as this is completed, they are carried to the last operation of drying them, which is done on standing flakes, made by a slight wattle, just strong enough to support the men who lay on the fish, supported by poles, in some places as high as 20 feet from the ground: here they are exposed with the open side to the sun; and every night, when it is bad weather, piled up five or six on a heap, with a large ood, his back or skinny part appermost, to be a shelter to the rest from rain, which hardly damages him through the skin, as he rests slanting each way to shoot it off. When they are tolerably dry, which, in good weather, is in a week's time, they are put in round piles of eight or ten quintals each, covering them on the top with bark. In these piles they remain three or four days to sweat; after which they are again spread, and when dry, put into larger heaps, covered with canvass, and left till they are put on board.

Thus prepared, they are sent to the Mediterranean, where they fetch a good price, but are not esteemed in England: for which place another kind of fish is prepared, called by them mud-fish, which, instead of being split quite open, like their dry fish, are only

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
British
Possessions.Made of
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N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
British
Possession.

opened down to the navel. They are salted and lie in salt, which is washed out of them in the same manner with the others; but, instead of being laid out to dry, are barrelled up in a pickle of salt boiled in water.

The train-oil is made from the livers; it is called so to distinguish it from whale or seal oil, which they call fat-oil, and is sold at a lower price (being only used for lighting of lamps) than the train-oil, which is used by the curriers. It is thus made: they take a half tub, and boring a hole through the bottom, press hard down into it a layer of spruce-boughs, upon which they place the livers, and expose the whole apparatus to as sunny a place as possible. As the livers corrupt, the oil runs from them, and, straining itself clear through the spruce-boughs, is caught in a vessel set under the hole in the tub's bottom. See PENNANT'S *Arctic Zoology*, p. 195, &c.

CHAP. III.

SPANISH POSSESSIONS.

Spanish
possessions.

Prepared by the hints we have given of the magnificent scale of the American continent, the reader will be the less surprised at the statement that the king of Spain enjoys a dominion there exceeding in extent the empires of Great Britain and Russia in Asia. This territory comprises, between S. lat. 41°, 43°, and N. lat. 37°, 48°, a space of 79 degrees, equalling the entire length of Africa, and surpassing the breadth of the Russian empire, which includes 167 degrees of longitude, under a parallel of which the degrees are not more than half the degrees of the equator. These possessions are divided into nine principal and independent governments: five of which, the viceroyalties of Peru and New Granada, the capitanías generales of Guatemala, of Portorico, and of Caracas, are wholly within the torrid zone; the four others, the viceroyalties of Mexico and Buenos Ayres, the capitanías generales of Chili and Havannah, including the Floridas, consist of countries of which a great portion is situated within the temperate zone; which position, however, owing to accidental varieties, does not altogether determine the nature of their productions. At present we have only to remark upon the upper, or northern division of this extensive region, reserving our observations on the remaining part to the second grand section of this article.

Boundaries.

BOUNDARIES.—The Spaniards claim the whole N.W. of America, but with very little regard to accuracy or truth: and pretending a right, derived from prior discovery, to the English, they appoint a governor for the entire coast. On the western coast the Spanish boundary is fixed, by the last treaty, at cape Mendocino, situated in somewhat more than 40° of N. lat. The southern limit may be taken in lat. 7°, 30', that is, upwards of 32°, and more than 2,000 miles; a length of territory very disproportionate to the breadth, which, in its greatest extent, from the Atlantic shore of East Florida to that of California on the Pacific, does not exceed three-fourths of that distance; and in the narrowest part, on the isthmus of Veragua, is only 25 English miles; 400 geographical miles may therefore be considered as the average breadth.

This territory may be divided into three principal sections: FLORIDA on the E., GUATEMALA on the S.,

and NEW SPAIN, occupying the central position. On the N., Florida is bounded by the United States; on the S. and W. by the gulf of Mexico; and on the E. by the Atlantic ocean. Guatemala is bounded on the N. by Vera Paz, Chioppa, Guaxaca, and Honduras; on the S. by the Pacific ocean; on the E. by Nicaragua; and on the W. by Guaxaca and the Pacific ocean. The central portion, called New Spain, or Mexico, is by far the most important and considerable of the Spanish dominions either in North or South America, comprehending a surface which extends from the 39th to the 16th degree of N. lat., and in its broadest part occupying 22 degrees of longitude. It is bounded, on the northern extremity, by unknown lands; on the S. by the Spanish government of Guatemala; on the E. by the Pacific ocean; and on the W. by the gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic.

GENERAL APPEARANCE.—These regions are extremely diversified, and in many parts singularly beautiful in their general aspect. Travellers have assured us that vegetation is generally of a gigantic character, blended with inimitable decoration. Vast ridges of mountains, many of them covered with eternal snow, precipices, volcanoes, and foaming water-falls, with widely-extended plains, valleys, lakes, and rivers, present an unusually grand and picturesque combination. Nothing, perhaps, can exhibit a more striking contrast than the vastness of nature and the littleness of man in this quarter of the globe; and while our admiration is excited by the magnificence of the Creator's works, it irresistibly blends itself with the deepest feelings of contempt and commiseration as we alternately contemplate oppression and oppressed man!

GULF, BAYS, CAPES, ISTHMI.—The principal of these have come under our consideration in the general account already furnished of North America; what are peculiar to this division are the gulf of Mexico, of California, and of Florida, with some others of minor importance, the bay of Honduras, of Campeche, &c. The most remarkable headlands, or capes, are, cape St. Blas, situated near the mouth of Apalachicola river, and lying in W. lon. 85°, 85', and N. lat. 35°, 44'; cape Florida, the most easterly point of East Florida, on the W. side of the gulf, or straits of Florida, in W. lon. 80°, 37', N. lat. 25°, 44'; cape Sable, is the most southerly point of East Florida, and lies in W. lon. 81°, 49', and N. lat. 24°, 57'. The other promontories are Sandy point, cape Cross, cape Roman, cape Canaveral, Punta Larga, and the promontory in East Florida.

There are many small islands on the coast of Florida, but none of much consideration. The chief one is called Amelia island, situated near the N.W. boundary of East Florida, in the Atlantic, and extending from the mouth of the river St. Mary to the mouth of the Nassau river. On this island is built a town, called Ferdinandina, having a small fort.

MOUNTAINS.—“There is scarcely a point on the globe,” remarks M. Humboldt, “where the mountains exhibit so extraordinary a construction as in New Spain. In Europe, Switzerland, Savoy, and the Tyrol, are considered very elevated countries; but this opinion is merely founded on the aspect of the groups of a great number of summits perpetually covered with snow, and disposed in parallel chains to the great central chain. Thus the summits of the Alps rise to 3,900, and even

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
Spanish
Possession.General ap-
pearance.Gulf, bays,
capes,
islands.

Mountains.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Spanish
Possessions.

4,700 metres (12,794 and 15,419 feet), while the neighbouring plains in the canton of Berné are not more than from 400 to 600 metres (1,312 and 1,968 feet) in height. The former of these numbers (400), a very moderate elevation, may be considered as that of the most part of plains of any considerable extent in Suabia, Bavaria, and New Silesia, near the sources of the Wartha and Pilz. In Spain, the two Castilles are elevated more than 580 metres (300 toises, or 1,902 feet). The highest level in France is Auvergne, on which the Mont d'Or, the Cantal, and the Puy de Dôme repose. The elevation of this level, according to the observations of M. de Bnch, is 720 metres (370 toises, or 2,360 feet). These examples serve to prove that in general the elevated surfaces of Europe which exhibit the aspect of plains, are seldom more than from 400 to 800 metres (200 to 400 toises, or 1,312 to 2,624 feet) higher than the level of the ocean.

"In Asia, perhaps, near the sources of the Nile,* and in Africa, under the 34th and 37th degrees of N. lat. there are plains analogous to those of Mexico; but the travellers who have visited Asia have left us completely ignorant of the elevation of Thibet. The elevation of the great desert of Cobi, to the N. W. of China, exceeds, according to Father Duhalde, 1,400 metres (5,511 feet). Colonel Gordon assured M. Labillardiere, from the Cape of Good Hope to the 21st degree of S. lat. the soil of Africa rose gradually to 2,000 metres (6,561 feet) of elevation. This fact, as new as it is curious, has not been confirmed by other naturalists.

"The chain of mountains which form the vast plain of Mexico is the same with what, under the name of the Andes, runs through all South America; but the construction, I may say the skeleton (Charpente), of this chain varies to the S. and N. of the equator. In the southern hemisphere, the Cordillera is everywhere torn and interrupted by crevices like open furrows not filled with heterogeneous substances. If there are plains elevated from 2,700 to 3,000 metres (1,400 to 1,500 toises, or 10,629 to 11,811 feet), as in the kingdom of Quito, and, further north, in the province of los Pastos, they are not to be compared in extent with those of New Spain, and are rather to be considered as longitudinal valleys, bounded by two branches of the great Cordillera of the Andes: while in Mexico it is the very ridge of the mountains which forms the plain, and it is the direction of the plain which designates, as it were, that of the whole chain. In Peru, the most elevated summits constitute the crest of the Andes; but in Mexico these same summits, less colossal, it is true, but still from 4,900 to 5,400 metres in height (2,500 to 2,770 toises, or 16,075 to 17,715 feet), are either dispersed on the plain, or ranged in lines which bear no relation of parallelism with the direction of the Cordillera. Peru and the kingdom of New Grenada contain transversal valleys, of which the perpendicular depth is sometimes 1,400 metres (4,854 feet). The existence of these valleys prevents the inhabitants from travelling, except on horseback, a-foot, or carried on the shoulders of Indians (called cargadores); but in the kingdom of New Spain carriages roll on to Santa Fé, in the province of New Mexico,

for a length of more than 1,000 kilometres, or 600 leagues. On the whole of this road there were few difficulties for art to surmount.

"The table-land of Mexico is in general so little interrupted by valleys, and its declivity is so gentle, that as far as the city of Durango, in New Biscay, 140 leagues from Mexico, the surface is continually elevated from 1,700 to 2,700 metres (5,576 to 8,856 feet) above the level of the neighbouring ocean. This is equal to the height of Mount Ceniz, St. Guhard, or the Great St. Bernard. That I might examine this geological phenomenon with the attention which it deserves, I executed five barometrical surveys. The first was across the kingdom of New Spain, from the South sea to the Mexican gulf, from Acapulco to Mexico, and from Mexico to Vera Cruz. The second survey extended from Mexico by Tula, Queretaro, and Salamanca, to Guanajuato. The third comprehended the intendancy of Valladolid, from Guanajuato to the volcano of Jorullo at Pascuaro. The fourth extended from Valladolid to Toluca, and from thence to Mexico. Lastly, the fifth included the environs of Moran and Actopan. The number of points of which I determined the height, either barometrically or trigonometrically, amounts to 208; and they are all distributed over a surface comprehended between 16°, 50' and 21°, 0' N. lat. and 102°, 8' and 98°, 28' W. lon. from Paris. Beyond these limits I know but of one place of which the length was accurately ascertained, and that is the city of Durango, elevated, according to a deduction from a mean barometrical altitude, 2,000 metres (6,561 feet) above the level of the sea. Thus the table-land of Mexico preserves its extraordinary elevation much farther N. than the tropic of Cancer.

The principal chain of mountains in the Spanish do-Principal minions of North America, called Topia, or the Sierra chain. Madre, or mother chain, commencing in the vicinity of Gundalaxara, extends north to New Mexico 150 leagues: it is overspread with a tolerably abundant vegetation of trees, which, the pines in particular, attain an extraordinary height and thickness. It contains also a quantity of silver, yielding a mark for each quintal of earth. Numerous rivers flow from this celebrated ridge. To the southward of the Topian ridge another commences on the east in the neighbourhood of Mexico. In the kingdom of Guatemala, in the district of Sonsonate, the great chain of Apanec runs many leagues E. and W.; but few other names of mountains have reached us. The Carratagua may be mentioned as running N. and S., and spreading so as to divide Vergara from Panama—that is, North from South America. The Puebla, or Popocatepetl, or mountain of smoke, so called from its being a volcano, has been considered as the highest in North America, and Orizava the highest in Mexico. The snowy top of the latter is visible from the capital, a distance of sixty miles; and D'Auteuche affirms that its cone form may be detected at sea at the distance of fifty leagues. Since the year 1565 it has exhibited no signs of inflammation, and though surmounted with a snowy covering, its sides are adorned with beautiful trees.

Volcanoes are very abundant in the mountainous masses of these districts: five of them are to be found in Mexico, Puebla, and Vera Cruz, whose summits are enveloped in perpetual snows. Immense forests of trees cover the sides of this great chain; the pine and

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Spanish
Possessions.

* According to Bruce (vol. iii. p. 642, 652, and 717), the sources of the Nile, in Gogon, are more than 3,700 metres (10,500 feet) higher than the level of the Mediterranean.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
Spanish
Possessions.

Rivers.

fir occupy the upper regions, and the tropical productions luxuriate in the lower. In these mountains are also found the Mexican oak, which grows to maturity only at from 2,600 to 9,750 feet of elevation; pines and firs are to be found to the height of 13,000 feet, and grow as low as 6,000 feet. The banana-tree grows in a state of perfection no higher than 4,600 feet. Its fruit forms chief part of the food of the natives.

RIVERS.—The *Rio Bravo del Norte*, or Northern Star, holds an unquestionable pre-eminence amongst the rivers of Spanish North America. According to Agüedo, it divides the province of Coahuila from that of the Texas. There are considerable doubts at present with regard to its source. Humboldt says it rises in Sierra Verde, on the E. of the lake of Timpanogos, and its course is estimated at 512 leagues. It receives in its course the waters of the Rio Conchos from the S. W., and the Rio Pácoro from the N., and forming the S. W. boundary of Louisiana, enters the gulf of Mexico in about W. long. 97°, and N. lat. 26°.

The *Rio Colorado*, or Red river, is a river of California, which flows into the gulf of that name. Its appellation is derived from the colour of its water, which is to be ascribed to the rains falling upon a soil of red clay. Its course, which is generally from N. E. to S. E. or W., may be estimated at 600 miles, and it is capable of a navigation to a considerable extent. The river Gila flows into it, between which and the Colorado, previous to their junction, the country is described to be an upland desert; afterwards, and on the opposite side, it is considerably cultivated and fertile.

The *Arkansas*, another noble river, we have before named, is a branch of the Mississippi, and falls into it by two mouths. Its course, including its meanders, is computed by Major Pike at 1,921 miles from its junction with the Mississippi to the mountains, and thence to its source 192. The cotton-wood abounds on this river.

La Platte proceeds from the same chain of mountains with the Arkansas, whence issue also the Red river, the Yellow-stone river, and the great southwestern branch of the Missouri. The *St. Antonio* rises about a league to the N. E. of the capital of the province of that name, and furnishes a good navigation for canoes to its very source; it is joined by the *Mariana* from the W., and discharges itself into the *Gua-dalepe*, 50 miles from the sea. There are others in the same direction of inferior note.

The *Hiapi* is a fine river, which rises in the province of Tauramara, and leaving or percolating the grand chain of mountains, runs in a north-westerly direction for about one-half of its course, then turns to the S. W., and enters the gulf of California at the village of Huiribis. On its banks are abundant growths of Indian corn, French beans, peas, and lentils. There are also several inland rivers, which originate in the Topian ridge, at present little explored; of these the *Nazco*, or *Naseo*, is the chief, whose course appears to be about 200 miles, and whose banks are stated to produce excellent grapes. The *St. Jago*, or *Rio Grande*, called by D'Anville the *Baranca*, proceeds from a small lake near Mexico, and pursues a north-western progress of about 450 miles, passing through the large lake of Chapala. In about the same latitude is the *Panuco*, which has its source in the metallic mountains of Potosi, and flows into the gulf of Mexico. The Tampico is properly the estuary of the rivers Montezuma and

Panuco, although the Spanish charts apply this term to the Panuco. The river *Tula*, or *Montezuma*, is remarkable for conducting the waters of the lakes of Mexico into the Atlantic; its rise is on the western side of the Mexican chain.

More southerly the river diminishes in magnitude; but on the opposite side the *Atravado* is considerable; it originates in two fountains; the one in the mountains of Zongolica, the other in those of Mirteca, which unite in the vicinity of Cuyoatepec, and receive in their course many tributary streams. The river *St. Juan* is notorious for the proposed communication between the two oceans, while others deem the *Chagre* the more adapted to the purpose.

The *Apalachicola*, which rises in the United States, and forms the boundary between the two Floridas, is the most considerable river of East Florida. Near cape St. Blas it falls into the gulf of Mexico.

St. Mary's River is known chiefly as forming a part of the northern limit between Georgia and Florida. It runs into the Atlantic ocean in St. Mary's bay, in W. lon. 81°, 41', N. lat. 30°; 33'.

St. John's River rises in a swamp in the southern part of East Florida, and runs in a northerly direction. It afterwards turns its course to the E. and joins the Atlantic in W. lon. 81°, 42', N. lat. 30°; 22'. It is situated within 10 leagues of the capital of East Florida, and is a fine broad river, but the mouth is obstructed with a bar of sand.

The rivers of West Florida are the *St. Andrew's*, and the *Rio Perdido*, or *Lost river*, so called by the Spaniards, because it loses itself for some distance under ground, and afterwards re-appears and empties itself in Perdido bay, into the gulf of Mexico. The Rio Perdido was formerly considered as the boundary between the Spanish and French dominions in North America, and is now the limit between the Mississippi territory and West Florida, by the treaty of 1783.

LAKES.—Of Florida the principal lake is *Lake George*, or the *Great Lake*, which is formed by the river *St. Juan* flowing into an extensive valley; its breadth is about 15 miles, and its surface is adorned with many islands, beautiful in appearance and fertile in character. It is said to be from 15 to 20 feet in the depth of its waters.

Other lakes have been mentioned, as the *Lake Manaco*, and one which, if it be not nameless, must derive its distinguishing appellation from the bay of Apalachia, near which it is situated. In New Spain the principal lake is that of *Mexico*, near the capital. In New Galicia there is a large expanse of water, containing several islands, called *Lake Chapala*, the dimensions of which have not been yet correctly ascertained. There is also a smaller lake, known by the name of lake Cayman, in New Biscay; and lake Pascuero, near Valladolid. Several others found in this part of the American continent are of not sufficient magnitude or importance to merit a particular enumeration.

SWAMPS.—Both the Floridas contain large tracts of swampy marsh land, which are often extremely fertile. Among these ought to be particularly specified the swamp of Ekefansk, called by the unpronounceable word Onaquaphenogaw by the natives, which constitutes one of the most remarkable features of East Florida, for to this province it may be referred, although it is situated partly in Georgia and partly in Florida. In circumference it may be reckoned about 300 miles, and in the

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.—
Spanish
Possessions.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Spanish Possessions.

Climate and soil.

Minerals.

rainy season resembles an extensive lake, having several large spots of land, which being nearly surrounded with water, may be distinguished by the name of islands. These islands are fertile; and one of them is represented by the Indians as a celestial abode, peopled by a race who enjoy all the pleasures of savage life in perfection, and whose women are imagined to be the children of the sun. These islands are said, with less of romance, to be inhabited by some native Indian tribes who fled here for refuge, after having been nearly exterminated in some predatory wars with the Creeks. Some rivers, particularly the St. Mary, spring from this celebrated swamp.

CLIMATE AND SOIL.—In the interior of the Floridas the air is generally salubrious, and in no part can it be deemed very unhealthy. The heat, however, in summer is intense; and the winters are proportionally severe, so much so that the rivers are frequently frozen. The climate of New Spain varies to an astonishing degree, embracing not only either extremes, but almost every intermediate temperature. In a journey of only a few hours across the ridge of the Cordilleras, the traveller is exposed to these variations. On the sea-coasts the atmosphere is sultry; and the ports of Vera Cruz on the E. and Acapulco on the W. are considered as particularly insalubrious. The excessive heats spread through the southern parts, and there is scarcely, if any exemption from them during any part of the year. The plains, however, extending along the sides of the Cordilleras may be considered in general as healthy, and the climate mild. In the vast plain which crosses the entire province of Mexico, and which is in height about 2,700 yards above the level of the sea, the inhabitants enjoy an eternal spring. The climate of the interior is so temperate and agreeable, that the natives sleep almost uncovered in the open air. Similar variations of climate are observable in Guatemala. The provinces on the western coast are, in general, the most salubrious: an observation which may, in fact, be extended to the whole continent of North America.

The soil of the Floridas, on the sea-coast, is both sandy and barren, but fertile and good on the banks of the rivers and in the interior. The soil of New Spain varies according to the situation. In some parts it is cold and clayey; on the eastern coast it is swampy and marshy; while on the west and in the interior it is very rich. A general appearance of fertility overspreads the soil of Guatemala, with the exception of the tracts which border on the volcanoes, of which there are twenty at least.

MINERALS.—New Spain is richer in the treasures of the mineral kingdom than any other portion of the globe; but, owing to a want of skill, the Spaniards have never fully availed themselves of their natural advantages. It is supposed, that the various mining stations of gold and silver in New Spain amount to upwards of 450. According to Mr. Humboldt, there are, in these stations, nearly 3,000 actual mines, of which the principal are Guanajuato, Zacatecas, San Luis Potosi, Mexico, Guadalupe, Durango, Sonora, Valladolid, Oaxaca, Puebla, Vera Cruz, and Old California. The veins of gold and silver are found chiefly in the primitive and transition rock. The most productive silver-mines of New Spain are situated at an elevation of from 4,900 to 9,840 feet above the level of the sea; and the three mines of Guanajuato, Catorce,

and Zacatecas, supply half as much again as all the rest together. The silver exported from New Spain to India and Europe amounts, per annum, to 1,650,000 lbs. in weight. Gold is generally obtained by washings in the sands of torrents. It is found abundantly in the alluvial grounds of Sonora; and grains of a very large size have been detected in the sands of Hiasqui and Pimeria. The mines of Oaxaca yield quantities of gold in veins; it is also found in most silver-mines, mixed with the silver, crystallised and in plates. The amount of gold produced in New Spain is equal in value to a million of piastres, or 218,333 *l.* sterling; the produce of silver to twenty-two millions of piastres, or 4,812,500 *l.* sterling. Native silver is sometimes found in masses in the mines of Batopilas. The celebrated silver-mines of Potosi, in South America, are said to be surpassed by the mines of Guanajuato, which produce twice their quantity of gold and silver. In Valenciana, the largest of the Guanajuato mines, the great vein is 22 feet in breadth, the pits extend to the breadth of 4,900 feet, and the lowest is 1,640 feet deep. The number of labourers employed in these mines alone amounts to about 2,700, independently of 400 women and children, and the sum total of the expence annually laid out in working them is estimated at about 187,580 *l.* sterling.

The proprietors reap an actual net profit of from 82,500 *l.* to 123,759 *l.* per annum, after the deductions of the necessary expences and the king's fifth. The mine of Soubreite, in Zacatecas, yielded, in a single year, a profit of more than 833,400 *l.* sterling. In San Luis Potosi, the mine of La Purissima Catorce affords a profit annually of at least 43,700 *l.* As the process of smelting is not much used in the mining establishments, owing to the deficiency of fuel, most of the silver is separated from the ore by means of mercury: the quantity made use of in the process of amalgamation is upwards of 2,000,100 pounds troy weight. In the mines of Valladolid and New Mexico, copper is found, of which the ancient Mexicans made their tools and utensils. Tin is discovered in grains in the clayey soil of Zacatecas and Guanajuato. Iron also exists in various parts of New Spain in great abundance, but neither iron, tin, nor copper are brought in large quantities to market, as these metals are in little request. New Leon and Santander produce lead; and Mexico antimony, zinc, and arsenic. Mercury is the production of Mexico and Guanajuato, but the mines are wretchedly managed, and the mercury for the purpose of amalgamation is sent to the colonies of Spanish North America from the mother-country. Coal, which is seldom found in North America, exists in New Mexico; and salt is afforded by the lakes. New Spain also produces diamonds, topazes, emeralds, and various other gems; asphaltus, amber, jasper, alabaster, and the loadstone. The mines are wholly the property of individuals, but the affairs of the mining interest are directed by a council-general, and the thirty-seven districts depend upon the president and members of the council. There exist a few silver-mines in the province of Nicaragua, in Guatemala, and gold is found in lumps in the provinces, and also in the sands of the rivers and torrents. The mountains of Honduras also possess some mines of gold and silver, which are very productive. It is said that there are several others in the neighbourhood of Valladolid. The province of Costa Rico, or the Rich Coast, derives its name chiefly

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Spanish Possessions.

N. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.—
Spanish
Possessions.Vegetable
productions.

from its numerous valuable gold and silver mines; perhaps also, in part, from a pearl-fishery, which once existed here. The gold and silver mines of Veragua are very rich, but they are not wrought, owing partly to the rugged nature of the country, and partly to the great expence that must be incurred in carrying the ore to be smelted.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—The chief productions of West Florida are indigo and rice; and in East Florida the land sometimes produces in a single year three crops of Indian corn. A chain of hills runs across the interior of this province from N. to S., whose sides are covered with vast forests, and whose vallies afford the richest pasture-land. Oranges and lemons spring up without any cultivation, and are superior to the same species of fruits in Europe. White and red oak trees, together with the magnolia, the cypress, the red and white cedar, the mulberry, the pine, the hickory, flourish prodigiously, and form most delightful shades. The vine also grows here, and produces excellent fruit. These provinces likewise produce an abundance of Indian figs, chestnuts, palmis, walnuts, peaches, plums, coconuts, and melons. The best vineyards in America is to be found in the two Floridas. Olives, which are indigenous, are plentiful. The native Indians derive their principal nutriment from the cabbage-tree: it is wholesome and agreeable food. Flax, hemp, and cotton are produced in abundance; and among the exports cochineal forms a valuable article.

The objects of agriculture in the southern part of New Spain are principally wheat, maize, cotton, indigo, pine-apple, sugar, tobacco, the agave, and cochineal plant. Maize, or Indian wheat, is a plant of the utmost importance to the colonies, and, being indigenous, thrives better here than elsewhere. It yields a hundred and fifty fold, and grows to the height of nine feet. It flourishes more in the southern than in the northern provinces, and forms the chief article of food to the native inhabitants, to the mules, so much employed, and to the poultry. It is eaten boiled and roasted, as well as in the shape of bread. The Indians, by means of fermentation, also make beer from it, and several intoxicating liquors; and, previous to the arrival of the Spaniards, the Mexicans made sugar of the stalks. In the most favourable situations it annually yields three crops. Wheat, with other European grains, was first introduced by the Spaniards, and has become one of the principal articles of commerce. The potatoe-root was also introduced by the European settlers, and thrives well. The capiscum, the tomatoe, rice, turnips, cabbages, sallads, onions, are cultivated with success. European fruits are grown in abundance: plums, apricots, figs, cherries, peaches, melons, pears, and apples. The climate of New Spain is so favourable for the production of the vine and olive, that the Spanish Government discourage its culture; on account of these plants being the staple commodity of the commerce of the Peninsula; nevertheless they are to be found in California, and some of the northern provinces. There are every species of tropical fruits in New Spain, guavas, ananas, sapotes, and nameis. Lemon and orange trees, of every species, abound. The sugarcane is successfully cultivated, and sugar already constitutes one of the chief articles of export. Cotton and coffee are both articles of commerce. Cocoa and chocolate are celebrated, but the best chocolate is obtained

in Guatemala. The natives and Spaniards have extensive plantations of agave, for the purpose of forming their favourite beverage, called *pulque*, procured by wounding the plant. Spain imports the finest vanilla from Mexico. Sarsaparilla and jalap are also lucrative articles of its export trade. The indigo from the Spanish colonies is principally raised in Guatemala. Cochineal is one of the most singular products of this continent, and is chiefly managed by the Indians, who are very skilful in the mode of collecting the harvests of this extraordinary dye.

Some parts of the country of Guatemala, especially the province of Chiapa, abound with vast forests of cedar, cypress, fine oak and walnut trees. There are also all sorts of copal, and aromatic balsams, and rich gums. Fruits of almost every kind, too, adorn this province, as well as wild cochineal, maize, corn, cacao, and cotton. Other parts of Guatemala abound in all species of odoriferous plants, flax, hemp, balsams, cotton, sugar, long-pepper, turpentine, liquid amber, and Nicaragua wood, which is used in dyeing.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, &c.—In the woods and wildernesses are found wild animals of various descriptions, amongst which are to be enumerated the cougar, or American tiger, the puma, the panther, racoon, buffalo, the bison, the tiger-cat, the wild boar; together with the fox, hare, rabbit, goat, otter, flying squirrel, the opossum, armadillo, and numerous tribes of apes and monkeys. The alligator, or American crocodile, frequents the large rivers and lakes of the Floridas. There are also various species of snakes and serpents; and the insects are both numerous and curious. The silkworm is reared in some of the provinces, but its elegant productions are not much cultivated, as the increase of that article would interfere with the commerce of the East Indian possessions of Spain.

Large flocks of sheep and herds of cattle are fed in Florida. The swine are much valued for the delicacy of their flavour, which is said to result from their feeding upon the chestnuts and acorns of the forest. The horse, the mule, and goats, are also common. The birds which most abound are the heron, crane, wild goose, duck (wild and tame), turkey, and domestic fowls, partridges, pigeons, the muscow, hawk, thrush, and jay. The coasts and rivers furnish fish of every description; shell-fish, particularly oysters, are to be found in the shallows, and along the southern beach of Florida; white amber is sometimes found. The pearl-fisheries of the spacious gulf of California are not carried on at present with as much spirit and activity as formerly, but pearls of very great value have been found upon its coasts; and have been esteemed as equal, if not superior, to the celebrated produce of Ormus and Ceylon.

POPULATION.—The population of the Spanish provinces in North America is about 7,000,000, of which the Indians are estimated at upwards of one-half; the remainder consists of European Spaniards and creoles, among all these the small-pox is well known to commit dreadful ravages. The black vomit is also very destructive; and yet upon the whole the population increases. The Spaniards from the mother-country hold the chief public offices of the government, whether civil or military, a monopoly of power which the creoles regard with great jealousy. The whites in New Spain are also generally placed in charge of the mines; and their manners and customs differ little

N. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.—
Spanish
Possessions.Vegetable
productions.Quadrupeds, Birds,
Fishes, &c.

Population.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Spanish Possessions. Religion.

from those of their European brethren. The country of the Floridas is thinly populated, and requires great exertions, as in the United States, to cultivate the swamps.

RELIGION.—Roman Catholicism is the well-known religion of this district; the benefited clergy and dignitaries are generally European Spaniards or creoles, and consist of an archbishop of Mexico, and eight bishops of Puebla, Guadalajara Valladolid, Durango, Monterey, Oaxaca, Sonora, and Merida, with about 14,000 clergy, parish priests, missionaries, monks, lay-brothers, and servants. Pike has recently informed us that New Spain is divided into four archbishoprics, Mexico, Guadalajara, Durango, and San Luis Potosi; and that there is no place where the inquisition is so oppressive and cruel, and none where the human mind is so crushed and abused. The revenues arising from the archbishopric of Mexico and the bishoprics, are valued at about 118,000*l.* per annum, out of which the archbishop receives yearly 27,000*l.*

Of the Spanish settlers, it has been estimated that one-fifth are ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns, to the great detriment of the country, both with regard to its habits and its faith. Industry is prevented, and the Christian religion exhibited to view in the distortion of frenzy, and in all the offensiveness of disease. The original Mexican inhabitants had a very different religion, consisting of fasts, penances, and voluntary tortures. Captives in war were regularly massacred as an acceptable service to their deities, and human sacrifices presented without hesitation or pity. Clavigero has related that two hundred and thirty-two human victims were sacrificed at the consecration of two of their temples. There can be no doubt that cannibalism was practised among them; parts of the body of their captives, not devoted to the gods, were feasted upon as a luxurious banquet. Their supreme deity was the evil spirit, called, in their barbarous language, *Klaccatcolotlo*, or the "rational owl," who took pleasure in exciting alarm and spreading misery. The number of their deities was thirteen, among whom were the sun and moon. *Mexitli*, the god of war, received their chief adorations, and cherished, in his devoted worshippers, the fiercest and most relentless passions of human nature. They had numerous idols of clay, wood, and stone, and one of them was composed of seeds pasted together with human blood.

Revenue, trade, and commerce.

REVENUE, TRADE, AND COMMERCE.—The revenue of these colonies consists in the duties paid on all gold and silver extracted from the mines, on the sale of quicksilver, and upon all exports and imports. The manufactures are principally of cottons, woollens, soap and soda, plate, powder, segars, and snuff. There are also some manufactories of crockery-ware and glass. The coining of metals, the manufacturing of powder and tobacco, is carried on by the government under a royal monopoly. Beautiful toys of bone and wood are made by the Indians. Cabinet-ware and turnery are executed with great skill by Spanish artisans. Carriages are also made in New Spain; but most of these vehicles, which are used by the nobility and gentry, are supplied by the London manufacturers.

The commerce, as a whole, has been lately considerably augmented, both by the great agricultural improvements, and by the formation of good roads in the

interior. The domestic trade is pretty brisk, in maize, ingots of metal, transferred from the mines to be coined or assayed, hides, flour, tallow, woollens, iron, mahogany, and mercury. Also in the native productions of cocoa, chocolate, copper, variegated woods, cottons, wines, fermented liquors, tobacco, sugar, rum, pelique, wax, and powder for the mines.

The foreign trade consists in coin, plate, ingots of gold and silver, cochineal, sugar, flour, indigo, provisions, hides, pimento, vanilla, jalap, sarasapilla, mahogany, logwood, cabinet-woods, soap, and cocoa. The imports of Europe are cottons, linens, woollens, silk goods, paper, brandy, rum, mercury, steel, iron, wines, wax, vinegar, raisins, almonds, olives, oil, saffron, corals, thread, crockery-ware, and cordage, together with a variety of minor articles, in fruit, medicines, and toys. The imports from the East Indies, at the port of Acapulco, are linens, calicoes, silks, muslins, cottons, spices, gums, and jewellery. New Spain, in return, exports to the East Indies, coined silver, iron, cochineal, cocoa, wine, oil, wool, and hats. The imports from the other Spanish American colonies to Acapulco principally consist of Jesuits' bark, Chili, or long-pepper, oil, Chili wine, copper, sugar, cocoa, and chocolate; in return for these articles, New Spain supplies them with woollens of her own manufacture, cochineal, tea, and some East Indian commodities. But, notwithstanding this home and foreign commerce carried on by New Spain, Mexico affords but little towards the support of the mother-country. In fact, not one of the Spanish American settlements, excepting the vice-royalties of Peru and Mexico, make any regular remittances of money to Old Spain. Humboldt states, from the public accounts, that New Spain only remits annually to Spain about a million and a quarter of money.

HISTORY.—The eastern line of coast belonging to History. these colonies was originally discovered at the close of the fifteenth century, by Sebastian Cabot, commonly said to be the brother, but, probably, the son of John Cabot, the discoverer of Newfoundland; it received its name from Juan Ponce de Leon, a Spanish adventurer, who landed here from Porto Rico, in April 1513, when the first bloom of spring spreading an attractive richness and beauty over the country, he was induced to apply to it the descriptive epithet of *Fairo*, or Florida. The English were the first to assert a claim upon this country, which they founded on the discoveries of Cabot, who, although a Venetian by birth, was in the actual service of the British government, by whom he was at the time employed for the purposes of discovery. In 1524, Francis I. king of France, sent Verazano, a Florentine, to examine the American coast; and the same monarch, in 1534, gained a permanent footing northward by means of Cartier, the commander of his fleet, who discovered the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, and the following year, having penetrated 300 leagues, erected a fort, and assigned the name of New France to the neighbouring territory. In 1564, the French were expelled from this neighbourhood by the Spaniards, who were not, however, able to obtain a solid establishment in the country until the year 1605, when they fortified St. Augustine. In 1702, the English, under Colonel More, the governor of Carolina, attacked this capital, but were soon compelled to raise the siege. A similar attempt was made in 1740, by

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Spanish Possessions.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
— Spanish Possessions.

General Oglethorpe, who was also forced to retire, so that the Floridas continued in the possession of Spain until the year 1763, at which period, in consequence of the reduction of the Havannah by Lord Albemarle, Spain ceded the provinces of East and West Florida to Great Britain, in exchange for that settlement. Spain, however, forcibly repossessed herself of these countries, during the struggle of Great Britain with her American colonies; and, by the treaty of 1783, they were finally assigned to her. The United States have been lately said to have purchased them, and an American general, in the year 1818, seized upon Pensacola; but whether with the sanction of his government, is not at present ascertained.

With regard to the political history of Mexico, or New Spain, it will be sufficient to present the reader with a few general facts, in the way of outline; minter details belong to another place. Hernando Cortez, a native of Spain, was the first adventurer who explored this portion of the North American continent, in the course of the year 1519. Montezuma, at that time emperor of Mexico, hearing of the arrival of the Spaniards, immediately dispatched ambassadors with magnificent presents, with the view of inducing Cortez to quit the coast, instead of pursuing the resolution he had adopted of marching into the interior. The Spanish commander, however, refused compliance with this request, and having first laid the foundation of Vera Cruz, on the 10th of August, 1519, set out from Zempoalla, an Indian town, by whose cacique he had been joined, with about 500 Spanish soldiers, and 600 troops furnished by the cacique. Having advanced to the province of Tlascala, he subdued it after an obstinate contest of fourteen days, and not long after came in sight of the capital from the Chalcó mountain. When Cortez entered Mexico, he was received in the most courteous manner by Montezuma, notwithstanding which he forcibly seized upon the emperor's person, conveyed him to the Spanish quarters within the city, and put him into confinement for six months. Every effort was made, both by his subjects and Montezuma, to accomplish his release, but in vain. Cortez having occasion to leave Mexico, stationed a garrison there, consisting of 150 men, to guard Montezuma; but no sooner was he fairly departed than this garrison was attacked, the news of which hastened back the Spanish chief, when, assisted by 2,000 Tlascalan warriors, he entered the city without opposition, but was subsequently assaulted with so much vigour, that he had recourse to the stratagem of presenting the emperor to his people, for the purpose of conciliating them. But this measure totally failed; and the attack being renewed, the unfortunate monarch was mortally wounded by an arrow from the hand of one of his own subjects. After the death of Montezuma, the Spaniard found himself under the necessity of retreating, by a stolen march effected by night, into the territories of the Tlascalans. Six months after this evacuation of Mexico, he was enabled again to take the field with about 600 Spanish infantry, 40 cavalry, nine pieces of cannon, and with Indian allies amounting to 10,000, most of whom were Tlascalans. He put his army in motion on the 28th of December, 1520, and in a few days made his appearance before the capital, resolving to perish or conquer. He fixed his head-quarters at Texcoco, on the banks of the lake, about 20 miles distant, where he

VOL. XVII.

was joined by 200 infantry, eight horses, and supplies of ammunition from Hispaniola; he was assisted also by thirteen small vessels on the lake of Mexico, as well as by 150,000 Indian allies. By means of these forces he was enabled to invest the city on every side. The new emperor, Guatimozin, made a gallant, but ineffectual resistance: in spite of all his exertions, the city was taken on the 21st of August, 1521, after a siege of seventy-five days. The whole Mexican empire immediately yielded to the victorious Spaniards, and Cortez was constituted governor, with the title of Captain-general of New Spain. This country has continued under the dominion of European Spain from that period to the present, and has been invariably ruled by a Spanish viceroy.

ATTEMPTED REVOLUTION IN THE SPANISH PROVINCES.—Whether the existing struggle between the arbitrary power of Old Spain and the ill-defined objects of the patriotic cause in her American provinces, will ever merit attention among the dignified pursuits of history, is a question we cannot here presume to solve. In the present equivocal state of the contest, and amidst many contradictory accounts of its progress, it may be satisfactory to our readers, however, to be put in possession of the principal facts of its origin.

Of the population of the Spanish colonies, the European Spaniards, and the Creoles, horn of European parents in America, principally claim our attention in this sketch. The authority which the former had maintained in these colonies for the space of 400 years, together with the recollection of their original conquest, had not ameliorated in the minds of any of their subjects those prejudices which were transmitted from their ancestors; and it is easy to guess how the colonists would be governed, when the supreme power was vested in nine European Spaniards and a viceroy, clothed by law with the prerogatives of the king of Spain; only accountable, when their commission expired, to the council of the Indies at Madrid, a distance of 2,600 leagues from the scene of action. Numberless were the grievances arising from the union of oppression and monopoly, which had become necessary to the support of each other; and the detail Mr. Walton gives of this system of exclusion on the part of Old Spain, would alone satisfactorily account for the minds of the creoles being gradually given up to a spirit of disaffection.

The Spaniards found no difficulty in keeping the Creoles in subjection, whilst the latter imagined that their protection against the Indians, negro slaves, and the mixed casta, could only be secured by the union of all Europe. Humboldt attributes the passive state of the Spanish colonies, during the succession-war in Spain, to this principle. The creole population, however, had now much increased, and the Indians had been so decidedly subdued, that it was not to be expected that the same degree of apathy and supineness should continue, when the shock of the Spanish throne discovered in them its weakness, and opened to them a prospect of amending their situation.

Notwithstanding all the obstacles that can be opposed to it, human society will naturally approximate towards civilization: a remark which will illustrate the conduct both of the Creoles and the Indians in this contest. However degraded the mental state of the latter, their entire numbers have been estimated at 7,000,000, and having little to lose, the chances of advantage promised to make them a powerful instrument in the

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.
— Spanish Possessions.

Attempted revolution in the Spanish provinces.

Original condition of the Creoles.

3 K

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

Spanish
Provinces.

Thirst of
knowledge.

hands of any faction who could furnish them with commanders to undertake a war against the mother-country.

A desire of knowledge had been kindled by the establishment of universities at Mexico and Lima. The works of the French philosophers, on their arrival in the colonies, were eagerly sought for, and excited a literary interest unparalleled in their history. It is easy to force the consequence in a country whose institutions tended to support every argument of those bold assertors of anarchy and atheism; when even the free and majestic fabric of our invaluable constitution has been felt to tremble under their assault.

"The words European and Spaniard have become synonymous," says Humboldt, "in Mexico and Peru. The inhabitants of the remote provinces have, therefore, a difficulty in conceiving that there can be Europeans who do not speak their language; and they consider this ignorance as a mark of low extraction, because, everywhere around them, all, except the very lowest class of the people, speak Spanish. Better acquainted with the sixteenth century, than with that of our own times, they imagine that Spain continues to possess a decided preponderance over the rest of Europe. To them, the Peninsula appears the very centre of European civilization;—it is otherwise with the Americans of the capital. Those of them who are acquainted with French or English literature, fall easily into a contrary extreme, and have a still more unfavourable opinion of the mother-country than the French had, at a time when communication was less frequent between Spain and the rest of Europe. They prefer strangers from other countries to the Spaniards; and they flatter themselves with the idea, that intellectual cultivation has made more rapid progress in the colonies than in the Peninsula."

Effect of the
invasion of
Spain by
the French.

The whole population of South America were startled upon the first hearing of the invasion of Spain by the French; of the captivity of their king, and the resignations of Bayonne; but this was succeeded by a universal burst of loyalty, a detestation of the French, and a desire to support the Peninsula against their manifest tyranny and usurpation. The confidence with which the Americans looked for a speedy and honourable issue to the Spanish cause, is a strong argument for the veracity of Humboldt's description. The bulk of the people flattered themselves with the expectation that the patriotic armies would soon reach Paris, take Buonaparte prisoner, and conduct him in triumph to Madrid; while the Spanish authorities and the higher classes alone entertained the shadow of a doubt of the event.

The French invasion, therefore, would have cemented the union between Spain and her colonies if she had acted wisely. By a reciprocity of benefits it might have been prolonged for ages. The discontented Creoles had been long contemplating a revolt; but the general feeling was so universal and decided for the support of Spain, that not a single voice was heard to the contrary.

Tidings of the general insurrection in Spain reached Mexico on the 29th July, 1808; and the enthusiastic sensation produced had not at all subsided when the arrival of two deputies from the junta of Seville was announced, who were come to claim the sovereign command of Spanish America for that corporation, which had assumed the title of Supreme Gubernative Junta

of Spain and the Indies. It appears probable, from existing documents, that Mexico would have acceded to the demands of the junta, if dispatches had not arrived from London during the deliberation of the constituted authorities, in which the deputies of the junta of Asturias announced their installation, and warned the Mexicans against the pretended claims of the Andalusian junta; a competition which had a powerful effect upon the mind of the Americans.

Their enthusiasm for the mother-country was not at all abated by the resignation of the royal family. The acclamations of "Ferdinand VII." were as unbounded as sincere; but the colonists hesitated to acknowledge the claim of Old Spain to choose representatives for them in the Peninsula. In Mexico, the cabildo, or town corporation, had suggested the expediency of forming a junta, which should govern in the name of Ferdinand VII.; and the viceroy was inclined to it, but he was without a fixed plan. An old man, and past his vigour, he now felt a sacrifice to his want of promptness; for the Spaniards, who opposed the measure, resolved to depose him, and at the head of the conspiracy placed one of their wealthiest merchants. The soldiers who were to command the guard on the appointed day, were bribed to their purpose; and, followed by about 200 Spaniards taken from the shops of Mexico at midnight, they entered the palace of the viceroy without resistance, and seizing him and his lady, committed the former to the prison of the inquisition, and the latter to a nunnery. The audiencia, or supreme court of justice, privately approved the conspiracy, and the imprisonment of the viceroy was announced to the public, who, at the same time, were informed that they had elected a successor. Although the Creoles had no personal attachment to the late viceroy, yet the power which the Spaniards thus assumed in his deposition, was very displeasing to them, though, for the present, it was not manifest by any overt act.

The deposed viceroy was brought to Spain upon a charge of treason, accompanied with the detail of these transactions; and arrived in the Peninsula during the period when the central junta conceived themselves in such perfect security at Seville, that they gave the French, who had begun to look upon all as lost, an opportunity to recover their confidence, and to make large additions to their army. The junta congratulated themselves upon the captivity of the viceroy, without searching into the cause of that event. They did not consider how contemptible that government must be, where so few persons, without any legitimate authority, could remove the chief magistrate, and take upon themselves to substitute another. They felt their inability, and were glad of an opportunity of displaying their power.

Dispatches, however, began to arrive with every packet, with intelligence of the general dissimulation of the Americans. Their love for the mother-country had begun to abate, when they found themselves constantly eluded with vain promises; and though the declaration of their original attachment was sincere, feeling themselves unkindly treated, it gradually died away. By way of palliative, the central junta issued a proclamation, in which the colonies were declared equal to the mother-country, and the Spanish Americans told expressly, that "they belonged to nobody; and were masters of their own fate."

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

Spanish
Provinces.

Enthusiasm
for the
mother
country.

Viceroy of
Mexico de-
posed.

Dissolution
in America.

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
—
Spanish
Possessions.

During the early fluctuations of the Peninsular war, the Spanish Americans, prevented by the remoteness of the situation from viewing the varied scene, fully anticipated the restoration of Ferdinand VII. Even when they received intelligence that the French had entered Madrid; that the central junta had fled to Andalusia; that the troops had turned upon their generals, and massacred several of them; that Morla and others had become traitors; and that confidence had ceased, having no one to depend upon—all this could not shake the idea of Spanish superiority in the minds of the colonies: these reverses were attributed to treachery; and, notwithstanding the great transition from hope to disappointment, not the least complaint was uttered: subscriptions were universally raised among the principal inhabitants, whose endeavours to support the mother-country increased in proportion as her need of them increased.

The Austrian war again assured them that Spain would be triumphant, and the victory of Talavera appeared to demonstrate it; but it was only as a flash of lightning, which for a moment illuminates the horizon, and leaves the spectator in tenfold darkness. The next arrivals brought the information of the total defeat of the Spanish armies; of the power of the central government being protested against by the juntas of Seville and Valencia, and declared illegal by a manifesto of the patriotic Romanas. The discontented parties in the Peninsula sedulously forwarded and diligently dispersed in the colonies every circumstance that they conceived likely to diminish their zeal and prejudice their minds.

Conduct of
the regency.

The new regency appointed upon the dispersion of the junta of Seville, drew upon themselves the hatred and scorn of the colonists by their first act with regard to them; for they prevailed upon the merchants of Cadiz to sanction them by a manifesto before they thought it safe to announce their installation; which act, though it gave satisfaction to the Spanish factors, disgusted the rest of the community.

Effects.

The intelligence was first received at Caracas, which province was the first to revolutionize. The same effect was produced at Buenos Ayres about a month after, when the same tidings arrived. The whole of the South continent was in a state of exultation: the old Spaniards were much alarmed, and manifested their fears by tyranny and oppression, instead of meeting the natives and endeavouring to heal the wound in a spirit of conciliation. A number of people who had assembled unarmed to petition the governor of the province of Socorro, in the kingdom of Fé, was fired upon by the military. The sanctuary of a convent could not protect the governor from the infuriated mob, who rose in a body to resent the atrocious outrage. In the capital of Santa Fé a scene of the same nature occurred, from a native being insulted by an European. Quito was converted into an acedemia; a junta was appointed at Cartagena, which wrested the authority out of the hand of the governor; Lima was menaced, and every circumstance portended a general rebellion.

General at-
tempts to
revolu-
tionize.

Had these effects arisen from any premeditated plan, the commanders of each province would have encouraged their followers with the strength thus derived; but the cause lay deeper than any plan could reach, for the same ideas appeared to pervade those provinces which had very little communication with each other; and the inhabitants of Caracas and Buenos Ayres

were not acquainted with each other's steps till some months after each had commenced the revolution.

The declarations that were published nearly at the same period in distant places, bear a very striking resemblance to each other, which proves them to be the real and universal expression of the public mind. "The supreme government of the Peninsula (they said) has been declared infamous and treacherous; the members of it are even accused by the people of Spain of having betrayed the country into the hands of the enemy. Can we then trust to the suspicious offspring of such a corrupted stock? Shall we wait till they choose to make their peace with Bonaparte, by betraying us into his hands? It was owing to our decided determination that the orders sent from Bayonne by the French ruler were not put into execution by our European governors. They were then ready to submit to his treachery; they will scarcely be less so now, when they have lost all hopes of succeeding in the Peninsula. But setting all this aside, how can the ephemeral governments of Spain pretend to rule us, when they are manifestly incompetent to direct the people among whom they dwell! If they represent Ferdinand VII. let them exercise their power over those who have elected them; we will do the same in our own country—we will create a government in the name of our beloved sovereign, and that we will obey. Our brethren of the Peninsula shall have our aid, our friendship, and our good wishes." The language is similar in all the early proclamations of the insurgents of Spanish America. That they did not at first contemplate a total alienation from the mother-country is certain.

N. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
—
Spanish
Possessions.
Declina-
tion.

When informed of the insurrection in Caracas, the regency immediately declared them rebels, and blockaded their ports; and the governors of the surrounding districts were commanded to intercept all their supplies. The declaration itself was couched in that gross and most insulting language, which only made the people despise a government that was threatening to avenge themselves upon two millions of souls fighting at their own doors for every thing that they esteemed valuable, and separated from their tyrants by the Atlantic ocean, whilst it was constrained to shield itself under the mercantile interest in the Peninsula. The regency was in reality a mere automaton, made to move or stand still at the command of the merchants of Cadiz, and this decree was the effect of their insatiable covetousness. A single fact gave sufficient proof of this to the Spanish Americans.

Revolution
of the
regency.

Soon after it had been installed, the minister of the Indies had recommended to the regency the conciliatory step of allowing the colonies a free trade, and was warmly seconded by his under-secretary, a man whose ardent and patriotic mind had rendered him discerningly eminent during the Spanish revolution. In the plotting and despicable manner of the old court, the order was privately printed, signed by the minister, and forwarded to America, that it might be out of the power of the government to rescind it, when it should be discovered by the merchants. In spite of all these precautions, the transaction got wind, and the fury excited at Cadiz was ungovernable. The members of the regency were alarmed; they boldly taxed the minister and his under-secretary with having promulgated a forged order; both were taken into custody, and detained till a counter-order was procured, after

N. AME- which they were liberated without undergoing any
RICA. examination.

Polifid- The grand struggle in America now approached with
and Moral all its horrors. The Spanish government, except in
State. one instance, had increased the disaffection by every
— new movement. That one was the act of the central
Spanish junta in placing the archbishop of Mexico at the head
Ponencia- of the civil department of that kingdom; for, though
Mexico. born in Europe, the wisdom and lenity of his govern-
ment had rendered him a favourite of the Creoles, and
under his administration the kingdom had possessed
the semblance of peace.

News now arrived that the central junta had conferred
its highest honours upon the Spaniards of the city of
Mexico. The most virulent foes of the Creoles, the
members of the high court of justice, were made tempo-
rary governors of the kingdom, until the viceroy Ve-
negas, appointed by the new regency of Cadiz, arrived,
and the archbishop, who was the bond of union between
them and the old government, was superseded: this
last stroke was too much.

The state of civilization to which the kingdom of
Mexico has arrived, renders it, according to Humboldt,
in every respect worthy to be placed at the head of
the Spanish colonies; and Hidalgo, a vicar of the
interior of this province, was the first to apply the
torch to the kindling materials of revolt. He possessed
a valuable living at Dolores, a considerable town in
the province of Valladolid Mechoacan; his natural
abilities were great, and well cultivated; and he had
contrived to establish mines and manufactures of some
considerable consequence to his neighbourhood. Hav-
ing extricated himself from the power of the inquisition,
before whom he had been already cited as a suspicious
person, and secured the attachment of the Indians to
his person, he communicated his designs to three cap-
tains of cavalry, stationed in the neighbourhood of Do-
lores, named Allende, Aldama and Abasolo, of the regiment
De la Regna, and who were natives of the place.
These officers promptly joined in the views of Hidalgo,
whom they much esteemed.

Allende proceeded to Querataro, one of the most im-
portant towns of Mexico, where he had great success
in procuring adherents, until the Spaniards discovered
a degree of excitation amongst the creoles, and deter-
mined to proceed in regard of the corregidor of Que-
rataro, as those in the capital had done towards their
viceroys. They arrested, and conveyed the corregidor
to Mexico, where this magistrate clearing himself of
all suspicion of his fidelity, the great was industriously
circulated, as a proof of the tyranny to which all the in-
stitutions of the country were exposed, and as pre-
sents a new reason for urging the creoles to throw off
the yoke.

The arrival of Venegas at Vera Cruz, was the sig-
nal of explosion; and Hidalgo and his coadjutors con-
cluded upon an immediate and decisive step. On the
17th of September, 1810, the vicar assembled the
Indians to a sermon, in which he dwelt upon the pusil-
lanimity of the Spaniards in the Peninsula, and the
danger, through their being delivered over to the
English or French, of the final extirpation of their holy
Catholic religion. The Indians, accustomed to be
blindly led by their priests, trembled at this representa-
tion; and when Hidalgo, at the conclusion, invited
them to arms, they obeyed with enthusiasm. Hidalgo,

supported by Allende, now conducted the multitude to
the town of St. Miguel el Grande, and gave them per-
mission to attack and plunder the habitations of the
Spaniards; the whole population of the kingdom of
Mechoacan quickly recognized his authority; three
regiments of veterans espoused his cause, and the
town of Salamanca fell into his hands. The Indians
joined him wherever he came. He was supplied with
5,000,000 of dollars by the town of Guanajuato, not
far from which was the richest gold-mine in Mexico,
and nothing appeared to be wanted by the revolutionists
but experienced generals and strict discipline.

Instead, however, of marching at once to Mexico, Fully of
Hidalgo, now committed a fatal error by proceeding
to Valladolid, which he entered on the 20th of October,
and was immediately joined by two regiments of
veteran cavalry; his military chest was also enriched
by 1,500,000 dollars from the royal treasury. The
whole province of Guadalupe and the city of Zaca-
tecas were at this time at his command, and imagining
that the viceroy would not venture to give him battle,
and that the number of disaffected in the capital would
oblige it to surrender as soon as he appeared, he
marched to Toledo, while the royal army retreated to
Lerma.

During the time that Hidalgo was proceeding towards
Mexico, another corps was advancing through Apis-
co to Cuernavaca to occupy the adjacent coast of the
Pacific ocean.

The capital being now in imminent danger, and His suc-
cesses. neither the troops nor the people firm in the royal
cause, Venegas resolved upon one of those happy ex-
pedients for its preservation, which had perhaps been
tried in vain in any other country of the world. He
procured from the archbishop and the inquisition, a
sentence of excommunication against Hidalgo and all
his troops and abettors; it made little immediate
impression in the revolutionary camp, but it com-
pletely awed the disaffected in the town. The insur-
gents had reached the mountain of Las Cruces, a few
miles from Mexico; the pass was defended by a few
Spanish troops, who were easily dislodged, and they
arrived before its walls. But Hidalgo's great failing
was want of decision: he now summoned the viceroy
instead of storming the city, and declaring that his
only desire was to see a junta established for the
government of the kingdom, and to send immediate
supplies of money to the Peninsula, he neither con-
ciliated the populace nor intimidated the authorities of
the place. Information now reached him of some ad-
vantages gained by the vice-royal army in his rear,
and he had no alternative but a retreat from an ill-sus-
tained situation, which he accomplished in great dis-
order. The Spanish general Calleja had taken the
town of Dolores, where the revolution commenced,
and massacred all the inhabitants. He met the in-
surgents at Aculeo, and entirely defeated them; he
then marched to Guanajuato, which he entered on the
25th of November, and wreaked his vengeance on the
miserable inhabitants. Another body of Spaniards,
under General Cruz, entered the town of Irapuato,
devoting it to horrible carnage. The personal fate
of Hidalgo was now quickly decided. He had pro-
ceeded to the *provincias internas* with a numerous
army, who still retained their attachment to him, when
he received an offer of alliance from the governor of

N. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.
—
Spanish
Ponencia.

The first
Mexican
leader.

Querataro
disaffected.

First ex-
plosion.

Drat.

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Spanish Possessions.

Drath.

Continuance and extension of the war.

that district, and consented to a meeting, at which he and his principal friends were hastily seized, and executed immediately.

But detached corps of the Creoles and Indians were already scattered over the whole kingdom. The Mexican insurgents adopted the guerilla mode of warfare, and daily improved in skill and hardihood. Large and well-organized corps were formed, and commanded by leaders more skilful than Hidalgo. A revolutionary government was maintained at Zitacuaro, by a lawyer named Rayon, who, when that town was likely to be taken by the viceroy's troops, contrived to escape, and joined another large party of insurgents commanded by the priest Morelos. This chief afterwards obtained considerable advantages, and made himself master of the whole coast to the S., while his comrade, Sanchez, with 30,000 men, extended the revolutionary authority over the plains of Puebla, and throughout the mountainous districts of Orecava.

The city of Orecava itself also fell into the hands of the insurgents, and the communication with Vera Cruz was entirely cut off. According, however, to late accounts from Mexico, the northern features of the war seem to have turned considerably in favour of the old government. The consequences which have ensued from it in Venezuela and the Southern continent, will meet our attention in the sequel of this article.

CHAP. IV.

UNCONQUERED REGIONS AND NATIVE TRIBES.

Unconquered regions, &c.

A glance of the eye over the map of North America immediately suggests the melancholy sentiment, that there are but two empires in general operation to check the progress of ambition: the one, the frosty barrier which nature presents to the rapacity of man, and which renders conquest either hopeless or useless—the other, the tardy movements of discovery and adventure, which have not brought to light nations weak enough to be subdued, or wicked enough to sell the birthright of their liberties.

If it seem, at first sight, contradictory to this representation, to speak as we are about to do, of some few native tribes, known but un subdued, be it observed, that their (at present) independent condition may be considered as resulting from the very partial information that has been obtained of their magnitude and political capacities, and the circumstance of many of these tribes perpetually receding into the more distant regions, to escape the servitude which is the price of their acquaintance with the civilized world.

The first of the countries which we propose to consider under our general designation, is that which is situated on the north-eastern side of the American continent, and known by the name of *LABRADOR*. It was discovered by a Portuguese navigator, from whom it derived its present appellation, and who found its coasts inhabited by *Iskimos*, while the interior contained what Europeans have termed American savages. The *Iskimos* are, in reality, the same people with the Greenlanders. Their manners are offensive, and they make use of sledges drawn by dogs. They are, in general, a peaceable people, but, like all other barbarous tribes, vindictive and furious when much excited. The moun-

Labrador.

taineers form a distinct class, having very much the general character of gypsies. They reside in wigwams, or tents, covered with deer-skin and the rind of the birch-tree. The rein-deer constitutes their principal food, and they also pursue foxes, martins, and beavers. The interior is at present but little explored; but, so far as it is known, it contains some appearances of fertility, and besides several species of trees, as elders, firs, birch, &c. produces wild celery, scurvy-grass, and Indian salad. The Moravian missionaries, who formed some settlements in this country about the year 1766, discovered what has been termed the *Labrador star*, an iridescent feline. The eastern coast presents a desolate appearance: rocky mountains rise suddenly from the borders of the sea, with spots of black peat earth scattered with dwarf shrubs. Rivers and lakes are numerous, but springs uncommon. Multitudes of islands, occupied by sea-fowl, particularly eider-ducks, and by deer, foxes, and hares, abound on the coasts. The birds are also numberless. The animals of Labrador are chiefly of the fur kind. There are both white and black bears, besides rein-deer, beavers, porcupines, and wolverines. The fish are principally salmon, trout, pike, harbel, and eels.

THE COUNTRY ABOUT HUDSON'S BAY, the eastern part of which is termed East Maine, and the western districts New North and South Wales, constitutes another of the Unconquered Regions of America. Several different tribes of natives resort to the factories of the Hudson's-bay company, but their characteristics have not been hitherto ascertained or defined. The *Iskimos* are indigenes in the northern part. The chief rivers of this district are the Sakashawiu, or Nelson, and the Severn: the latter is broad and deep, but its course is not very considerable, being estimated at only 400 English miles. To the southward the principal rivers pass under the names of the Albany, Moose, Abith, and Harriana, but they are all obstructed by shoals and cataracts. The climate is excessively severe: in the winter the ice on the rivers attains to a thickness of eight feet, and the rocks are sometimes rent asunder with the most tremendous noise. The sun is invested with a large conical light of a yellowish hue both at his rising and setting; and what have been termed mock-suns are frequent. The aurora borealis exhibits a most splendid appearance in this latitude, and the stars emit a fiery beam over this icy and cheerless region. The quadrupeds and birds are the same with those of Labrador and of Canada. Of trees, the dwarf larch, called here the juniper, is found: the wisha capuchin, called American tea, is drank in infusion.

Mr. Pennant remarks, that "multitudes of birds Natural retire to this remote country, to Labrador, and New-history. foundland, from places most remotely south, perhaps from the Antilles; and some even of the most delicate little species. Most of them, with numbers of aquatic fowls, are seen retreating southward, with their young broods, to more favourable climates. The savages, in some respects, regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their goose-month from the vernal appearance of geese from the south. All the grouse kind, ravens, cinereous crows, titmouse, and Lapland finch, brave the severest winter; and several of the falcons and owls seek shelter in the woods. The rein-deer pass in vast herds towards the north in

N. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Unconquered Regions, &c.

Country round Hudson's bay.

N. AME-
RICA.

Polished
and Moral
State.
—
Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.

Western
coast.

Central
districts.

October, seeking the extreme cold. The male polar bear roves out at sea, on the floating ice, most of the winter, and till June; the females he conceived in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their course to the sea in search of their consorts. Several are killed in their passage, and those which are wounded show vast fury, roar hideously, and bite and throw up into the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to sea. In June the males return to shore, and, by August, are joined by their consorts, with the cubs, by that time of a considerable size."

THE WESTERN COAST was originally discovered by the Russians, and is generally of a very alpine character. St. Elias, as it was termed by the Russian navigators, may be seen, it is affirmed, 60 leagues off shore. La Perouse states, that in lat 58°, 37', at Port des François, the primitive mountains of granite or slate rise immediately from the sea, the summits of which are covered with snow, while glaciers of great extent abound in the cavities. The lofty mountains, which this navigator reckons at upwards of 10,000 feet in elevation, terminate at Cross sound. The most extraordinary practice to which the natives are addicted is that of sitting and distending the under lip, in such a manner as to beautify the females with two mouths. The inhabitants of the districts towards the north seem to be Eskimos. Mackenzie, in his recent journey, found some of the native tribes of a low stature, with round faces, high cheek-bones, black eyes and hair, and a swarthy yellow complexion. Nearer the Pacific they were distinguished by grey eyes, tinged with red.

The traveller just mentioned performed two journeys, of a very laborious kind, into the interior or central parts of North America, which were previously little known, excepting by the exploratory attempts of Mr. Hearne, an officer of the Hudson's-bay company, who performed his journeys in the years 1769—1772. He explored a group of lakes called Doodah, and by other names, near Chesterfield, or Bowdoin's inlet; and to the westward of this district the large lake called Athapuscow. He discovered the Copper river in lat 62°, and expresses his opinion that it flows into some inland sea, resembling that of the Hudson. He found it full of shoals and falls, so as not to be navigable even for a boat. The Eskimos here were of a dirty copper colour, and shorter than those of the south. Numerous sea-fowl were observed, and in the ponds and marshes, swans, geese, eiders, and plovers. The quadrupeds are musk cattle, rein-deer, bears, wolves, wolverines, foxes, alpine hares, squirrels, ermines, and mice. In visiting one of the copper-mines, a hill about 30 miles S.E. of the river, he discovered that the copper was in lumps, and beaten out by two stones, with the assistance of fire. The lake Athapuscow is replete with islands, full of lofty trees resembling the masts of ships. The northern shore is rocky and mountainous; the southern more level and agreeable. The wild cattle and moose-deer abound. Mr. Mackenzie began his journey in June 1780, on the south of the Lake of hills, and proceeded along the Slave river to the lake of that name, identical with the Atha-

puscow of Hearne; whence he advanced to the shores of the Arctic ocean. From the report of the savages, it seems there is another considerable river on the western side of the Rocky mountains, which flows also into the Arctic. His second journey commenced on the 10th of October, at Fort Chipewian, and proceeding up the Peace river in a south-westerly direction, he attained an elevated point, which he calculates at 817 yards, situated beyond the Rocky mountains. On the opposite side he passed down the rivers Oregon and Columbia. On the west of the Peace river, or Unjiga, he observed some beautiful scenery, consisting of hill and dale, scattered over with herds of elk on the uplands and buffaloes on the plains. He saw also the grizzly bear; beavers were common, and tracks of moose-deer were distinctly noticed. Among the birds were blue jays, yellow birds, and very beautiful humming-birds. The cold was extreme. Towards the Pacific the natives are fairer than in other parts of the continent, and they often attain a great height. Their eyes are dissimilar to those of other Indians, being grey, with a red tinge. The men only wear a robe of the bark of the cedar-tree, with borders of red and yellow thread; the women have in addition a short apron. The Unjiga he calculates at from 4 to 800 yards wide; the Oregon, where he reached it, is about 200 yards in width.

The clans of native tribes are almost innumerable; of Native these the most noted are the Five Nations, as they are termed by English writers, or the Iroquois by the French, consisting of the Mohawks, Oneydoes, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas; besides these, in different treaties, we find introduced the names of the Onondas, the Tuscaroras, the Wyandots, the Chippawas, the Chickasaws, Shawanons, the Natchez, and several others. The Natchez, next to the Mexicans, constituted the principal tribe, but are now said to be extinct. They were worshippers of the sun, and peopled the immediate vicinity of the mouths of the Mississippi.

The Killistons, Knistineaux, or Kistinons, extend the Killis over a considerable territory in the central part of North America. Their language is similar, or rather identical with that of the inhabitants of the coast of British America, on the Atlantic, excepting the Esquimaux. This country may be considered, with the exception of the Esquimaux, lying between Hudson's bay and straits, and a line drawn along the coasts of Labrador and the gulf of St. Lawrence to Montreal; thence to the source of the river Unjiga, and W. along the high land between lake Superior and Hudson's bay; thence to the middle of the lake Winnipeg, and along the river Sas-Katchiwine to Fort George; thence by the head of the Beaver river to the Elk river, up to its discharge in the Lake of hills; then easterly to the lake à la Crosse, and to Churchill, by the Mississippi. They are generally well proportioned and active; of a copper colour, with black hair, cut into various fantastical shapes. They are very much inclined to pluck their hair from every part of the body. Their eyes are black and penetrating; their countenance in general pleasing, and they exhibit no little show of vanity in the decoration of their persons with rings, bracelets, &c. Vermilion is in great request, but their dress is usually simple, varying with the seasons, consisting of dressed moose-skin, beaver, prepared with fur, or European

N. AME-
RICA.

Polished
and Moral
State.
—
Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.

woollens. Their head-dresses are of the feathers of birds, particularly the eagle and the swan. They also make use of the teeth, horns, and claws of animals to adorn both the head and neck. Mackenzie says, that of all the nations he had seen on that continent, the Knistinnax women were the most comely. He adds, "They are naturally mild and affable, as well as just in their dealings, not only among themselves, but with strangers. They are also generous and hospitable, and good-natured in the extreme, except where their nature is perverted by the inflammatory influence of spirituous liquors. To their children they are indulgent to a fault. The father, though he assumes no command over them, is ever anxious to instruct them in all the preparatory qualifications for war and hunting; while the mother is equally attentive to her daughters in teaching them every thing that is considered as necessary to their character and situation. It does not appear that the husband makes any distinction between the children of his wife, though they may be the offspring of different fathers. Illegitimacy is only attached to those who are born before their mothers have cohabited with any man by the title of husband.

"It does not appear that chastity is considered by them as a virtue; or that fidelity is believed to be essential to the happiness of wedded life. Though it sometimes happens that the infidelity of a wife is punished by the husband with the loss of her hair, nose, and perhaps life, such severity proceeds from its having been practised without his permission: for a temporary interchange of wives is not uncommon; and the offer of their persons is considered as a necessary part of the hospitality due to strangers.

"When a man loses his wife, it is considered as a duty to marry her sister, if she has one; or he may, if he pleases, have them both at the same time.

"When a young man marries, he immediately goes to live with the father and mother of his wife, who treat him, nevertheless, as a perfect stranger, till after the birth of his first child; he then attaches himself more to them than his own parents; and his wife no longer gives him any other denomination than that of the father of her child.

"The profession of the men is war and hunting, and the more active scene of their duty is the field of battle and the chase in the woods. They also spear fish, but the management of the nets is left to the women. The females of this nation are in the same subordinate state with those of all other savage tribes; but the severity of their labour is much diminished by their situation on the banks of lakes and rivers, where they employ canoes. They are, at the same time, subject to every kind of domestic drudgery: so that when the duties of maternal care are added, it will appear that the life of these women is an unintermitted succession of toil and pain. This, indeed, is the scene they entertain of their own situation; and under the influence of that sentiment, they are sometimes known to destroy their female children, to save them from the miseries which they themselves have suffered."

They have numerous feasts, and when a chief proposes to make one, he sends quilts, or small pieces of wood, as tokens of invitation. The guests bring with them each a dish or platter, and a knife, and they are

Feasts, and
general
manners.

received and disposed, according to their ages, on each side of the chief; when the pipe is lighted, and an equal distribution is made of whatever is prepared. During the meal, the chief sings, and accompanies his song with some musical instrument. Whoever finishes his meal first is considered the most distinguished person; and if any person cannot eat the whole of his allowance he procures assistance from some of his friends, whom he rewards with ammunition and tobacco. Previous to the feast, a small quantity of meat or drink is sacrificed into the fire, or on the earth, as a sacrifice. Great care is taken to hush the babies, it being considered a profanation for the dogs to touch them. The public feasts are similar, but with additional ceremonies. Particular circumstances, as illness, long fasting, &c. promote occasion for entertainments, when the person intending to give the feast announces his intention, on a certain day, of opening the medicine bag, and smoking out of his sacred stem. This declaration is deemed a sacred vow that cannot be broken.

There are stated periods when they engage in solemn ceremonies of long continuance. At these times dogs are offered in sacrifice, particularly such as are very fat, and of a white colour. They offer likewise considerable portions of their property. The scene of these ceremonies is an open enclosure, on the bank of some river or lake, in the most conspicuous situation; and one of their customs is very remarkable, and equally laudable: if any tribe, or even a stranger, should be passing by, and be in real want of any thing that is displayed as an offering, he has a right to take it, so that he replaces it with some article he can spare, though the value of what he substitutes be very inferior; but to touch or take away any thing without such necessity, is considered a sacrilegious act, and highly insulting to the great *Muter of life*, as they express it, who is the sacred object of their devotion.

There are no fewer than thirty villages of Christian Indians in New Mexico, who are trained to industrious habits, and of various tribes. Their clothing is the skin of wild goats; their women wear mantles of cotton or wool. Their mode of travelling is on horseback. The only access to their huts, which are square, with open galleries on the top, is by a ladder, which is removed during the night.

The Comanches, called also Padducars, are an erratic tribe, and very powerful, subsisting entirely by the chase. Their wanderings are, however, confined to the frontiers of New Mexico on the W.; the nations on the lower Red river on the S., the Pawnees and Osages E., and the Uthals, Kyaways, and various others, little known, on the N.

On the Missouri, there are a variety of savage tribes; On the of which the principal are the Osages, on a river of Missouri, that name, and who could send a thousand warriors into the field. They raise considerable quantities of corn, beans, and pumpkins, which they economize so as to make it last them from one year to another. The agricultural labour, as in other instances, is performed by women. The Kyaways wander on the sources of the river La Plata; they possess immense herds of horses, and are armed with bows, arrows, and lances. The Uthals frequent the sources of the Rio del Norte, and are somewhat more civilized than the Kyaways, and have more intercourse with the Spaniards, though they are frequently at war with them.

N. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.Indians
in New
Mexico.

N. AMERICA.

Political
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State,
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Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.Califor-
niaans.

Nootka.

The former of these tribes are supposed to be about a thousand, and the latter two thousand warriors strong. The Kanzas dwell on a river of the same name. At the confluence of the Flat or Shallow river with the Missouri, are found the Ottos, and about forty leagues up the river are the Papis, and still higher the Mahas and Poncas. The Aricaras and the Mandans inhabit the right bank of the Missouri. The nation of the Scioux are numerous, and divided into a multitude of tribes, which are not unfrequently in a state of hostility towards each other.

The Californians are remarkable as skilful fishers; but they have a superstition that the fisher must not taste his own prey, lest he should, in consequence, become exposed to danger at sea. Their mode of catching the sea-otter is curious. Advancing into the ocean in a frail canoe, calculated only to hold an individual, who is provided with a long rope having two hooks, he commences his attack by fixing the hooks into the foot and leg of one of the young, which usually surround the female otter. He then gives out the rope, occasionally checking it, which produces painful struggles and roaring. This induces the mother to attempt extricating the young animal, by which it is very rare indeed for her to escape, being caught by one of the hooks, when she is killed by a blow on the head. They are also dextrous hunters, and make use of arrows, slings, and cudgels. So ambitious are they of fame, that they will sometimes hang themselves when rallied upon their ill success. They are said to be cowardly, but they are ferocious, and in their domestic management, tyrannical. The women provide the food, while the men are loiterers; and not only ill treatment, but murder abounds among them. They all paint in a ridiculous manner, and with a view to render themselves terrible to their enemies. They are generally almost, if not entirely, naked; but the women wear a small apron, and the skin of an animal. Their head-dress is a helmet of rushes; the men have feathers. One district is mentioned in which the practice of polygamy is disallowed. Adultery is common, but is subject to punishment. A woman will abandon her infant if sick or feeble, and no inquiries are made. They have magicians, called *qnamas*, who are regarded as oracles, and, from the dread they inspire, easily obtain subsistence from the savages. These wretches distinguish themselves at the festivals, which are assemblies held, in fact, for the purpose of gratifying every irregular appetite. The principal festival is at a new moon, in the seed-time, and lasts twenty or twenty-five days. They have dances and wrestling matches.

There are, moreover, several savage tribes at Nootka island. The Alibabans were a considerable tribe on the river Alibama, in Georgia. Formerly, there existed, also, a remarkable nation which approached the Mexicans in character, and who resided on the east of the Mississippi. There were four hundred priests deominated *sans*, who submitted to the *grand sans*, their chief, who wore the image of the sun, their divinity, on his breast. Whenever the grand sun died, they interred his wives and some of his vassals with him.

We deem it sufficient at present thus to have named some of the principal aboriginal tribes of North America; a more distinct classification, and more ample information belongs to other articles, particularly that of INDIANS, where we shall, from time to time, fill up

our general outline of this vast continent by more particular details.

There is one country, that of GREENLAND, the mention of which has been reserved to the last under this subdivision, because of the uncertainty of its geographical classifications. Whether it be insular or continental has not yet been ascertained; but probably it ought to be regarded as forming a natural appendage to the northern American continent. It was discovered by the Icelanders in the tenth century; and, according to the most accurate maps, its extent is eight degrees of longitude, in lat. 60°, or 200 geographical miles. The western coast was recently explored by the English navigators, particularly Davis. It is a dreary region of rocks, ice, and snow; though in some of the more southern parts, junipers, willows, and birch-trees make their appearance. The highest mountains are on the western coast, and one which is termed the Stag's Horn, consisting of three lofty pinnacles, may be seen forty, or even sixty leagues. The rocks are full of clefts, and generally very perpendicular, filled with spar, quartz, talc, and garnets. The lapis olaris is very useful here, and in the northern parts of America, for lamps and culinary utensils. The natives are a branch of the Eskimos, or American Samoeds; short, with black hair, small eyes, and flat faces, and in number not exceeding at present (in consequence of the ravages made by the small-pox) 10,000. The animals are reindeer, foxes, bears, and dogs resembling wolves. The wolverene is rare, but is found in the southern districts. Hares, too, rather abound. Several species of seals are met with on the shores, as well as the walrus. Fishes are pretty numerous: the same may be said of birds.

The climate is wretched in the extreme. Almost a perpetual winter reigns over the trackless wastes of ice and snow, with a short interval of summer, which is very warm. Between cape Farewell, in lat 59°, and the banks of Newfoundland, in the 60th degree N. lat. the immense blocks of ice which characterise the Arctic seas, begin to abound, and along the western coast of Greenland, in Davis's straits. Here they tower upwards in sublime variety; and while the icebergs of the neighbourhood have been compared to floating towns and cities, this mighty rampart presents, as it were, whole districts of magnificent erections in a state of congelation. The icebergs are no where more numerous than opposite these shores, from whence they are carried, by the north-east currents, through the straits, and dissolve in the warmer latitudes. See the article ARCTIC SEAS, where the present state of their geography is amply discussed.

This country was religiously established, at an early period, by Denmark, whence was sent the last of seventeen bishops, in the year 1406. During that century the Arctic ice increased to such a degree, that the colony was shut up as by a prison-wall of it in one direction, which joined in another to impassable mountains. Several churches and monasteries were erected in this colony, which extended over a surface of about 200 miles. In 1721, a Norwegian clergyman, of the name of Egede, proceeded to the western shore, where he preached to the natives till 1735; and his example has since been imitated. Thirty years afterwards the Moravians formed settlements, the principal of which were called New Herrnhuth and Lichtenfeld.

N. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
—
Uncon-
quered
Regions, &c.
Greenland.

S. AME-
RICA.

SOUTH AMERICA.

§ 1. *Principal divisions and progress of its discovery.*Principal
divisions.
Extent.

SOUTH AMERICA is that part of the American continent extending from 9° N. to 60° S. latitude, being of an average breadth, separately considered, of from 1,400 to 1,600 miles. To the E. it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; to the W. the Pacific, or Great South sea, by which it is separated from Asia. The isthmus by which it is divided from North America is about 500 miles long. At Darien, or Panama, some writers describe it as only thirty-four miles over; and, allowing for the rivers communicating with the seas on either side, this is probably a correct estimate. This isthmus, with the North and South Continents, forms the gulf of Mexico, in and near which lie the West India islands; the whole of which, together with the southern continent, have been denominated by several European writers, and particularly the Spanish, the West Indies, in contradistinction to the eastern parts of Asia, called the East Indies.

Discovery.

This immense continent, and the islands here alluded to, were unknown to the ancients until, as we have seen in the former part of this article, they were discovered, in the fifteenth century, by Christopher Columbus, in the course of his four memorable voyages.

General di-
vision.

The greater part of the Southern continent, which is, from its size, as it were, comparatively unpeopled, is possessed by the Spaniards, its original discoverers and conquerors; after whom, however, the French, invited by its riches, established themselves in different parts, as also did the English, the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the Danes. The parts possessed by all these latter powers, except the Portuguese, are exceedingly inconsiderable, and are included chiefly in those maritime districts known by the title of Guiana, or Guineæ. They have frequently changed their proprietors, either by treaty or by conquest. The other two great portions of the continent are well known under the titles of Brazil and Spanish America.

Spanish
America.

SPANISH AMERICA.—Spanish America is divided into three great viceroyalties, namely, that of Granada, in the N.; of Peru, in the W.; of La Plata, in the S. E.; and into a captainship-general, or presidency, of Chili, in the S. W.

The viceroyalty of Granada is bounded on the S. E. by the plains of San Juan; W. by some mountains and woods, which are very thick and of great extent; and N. by some extremely craggy mountains, which extend as far as the sea-coast, being 80 leagues long from north to south, and somewhat less wide from east to west. It is subdivided into three kingdoms, viz. the kingdom of Terra Firma, having four subordinate governments and one alcaide; the kingdom of Granada, having sixteen governments and twenty-three corregimientos; and the kingdom of Quito, having six governments and nine corregimientos.

The viceroyalty of Peru has had various limits, according to the difference of the governments. At present its jurisdiction extends to the three audiences of Lima, Charcas, and Chili, separating that of Quito, which is dependent upon the government of Santa Fé de Bogotá. It contains, besides the four governments of Guarochini, Tarma, Guanacavecha, and Cuzco, forty-six corregimientos. To this viceroyalty has lately been

added that of the Río de la Plata, which originally consisted of eleven governments and twenty-two corregimientos. The viceroyalty of Peru, therefore, now begins from the gulf of Guayaquil to the south, that is, at cape Blanco, and from the corregimiento of Truxillo, which extends as far as Tumbez, in S. lat. 3°, 25', as far as the desert of Atacama, the N. boundary of the kingdom of Chili. It is thus 432 leagues in length from N. to S., and comprehending the kingdom of Chili as far as the lands of Magellan, that is, as far as S. lat. 57°. Its measure from pole to pole is upwards of 1,069 leagues. It has for its limits on the E. the mountains which divide it from the kingdom of Brazil, on the celebrated line called Of Demarkation, or Alexandrian, drawn by Pope Alexander VI., determining the extent of the empire between the Spaniards and Portuguese of the New World. It is bounded W. by the Pacific, or South sea, and its greatest extent here is 558 leagues.

The captainship-general and presidency of Chili, lately been made subordinate to the viceroyalty of Peru, is bounded on the S. by the straits of Magellan; on the N. by Peru; on the E. by the provinces of Tucuman and Buenos Ayres; on the N. E. by Brazil and Paraguay; and on the W. by the South sea. It extends from N. to S. 472 leagues, and contains the kingdom of Chili, the governments of Concepcion, Valdivia, Valparaiso, Chiloé, the Malvine isles, and the isles of Juan Fernandez, and fourteen corregimientos. Its political divisions consist of the part occupied by the Spaniards, and that which is inhabited by the Indians. The Spanish part is situated between S. lat. 24° and 37°, and is divided into thirteen provinces, viz. Copiapo, Coquimbo, Quillota, Acucagua, Melipilla, and St. Jago (which contains the capital city of the country of the same name), Rancagua, Calchagua, Maile, Ytata, Chillan, Puchacay, and Huilquelemu. The Indian country is situated between the river Biobio and the Archipelago of Chiloé, or S. lat. 36° and 41°. It is inhabited by three different nations, the Araucanians, the Cunches, and the Huilliches.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.—This portion of the continent, known under the general title of Brazil, is situated in the torrid zone, extending from the mouth of the large river Maragnon, or Amazonas, to that of La Plata, from 2° N. to 35° S. of the equinoctial line. It is of a triangular figure; two of its sides, the N. and E. being bounded by the sea; and the third, which is the greater, is the above-mentioned line of demarcation between this kingdom, which belongs to the crown of Portugal, and the dominions of the king of Spain.

It is divided into fourteen provinces, or captainships, which are, Rio Janeiro, Todos Santos, Ilheos, Parayba, Pará, Maranhão, Espirito Santo, Itamaraca, Seára, Porto Seguro, Pernambuco, Sergipe del Rey, San Vicente, and Rio Grande; and in these are twelve cities, sixty-seven towns, and an infinite number of small settlements and villages, divided into four bishoprics, suffragan to an archbishop; and, besides these, there is the district of San Pablo de los Mamelucos, which is governed after the manner of a republic, with some subordination to the crown of Portugal. Also there are the districts of Dele and Petaguary, which being in the centre of the captainship of Seára, belong to the barbarians, and to some Portuguese who are independent of the jurisdiction of Rey.

S. AME-
RICA.Principal
divisions.

S. AME-
RICA.Principal
discovery.
Guiana,
&c.Progressive
geography.

GUAIANA, or that part belonging to other European powers, is comprehended within the country bounded E. and N. E. by the Atlantic ocean; N. and partly W. by the river Orinoco; W. by the kingdom of Granada; and S. by the large chain of mountains which separates the waters running into the Orinoco and Atlantic ocean from those running into the Amazonas.

The whole of these extensive regions were discovered about the same period. Granada was discovered and conquered about the year 1523, by Gonzalo Ximenez de Quesada, who named it after the kingdom so called, in Andalusia, his native place. Peru was also discovered about the year 1526, by Francisco Pizarro, marquis of Los Charcas and Atavillos, in the reign of the Indian emperor Atahualpa, sometimes improperly called Atahualba. This same discoverer began its conquest in 1531. It was formerly called Biru, from the name of a cacique, or prince, of one of its states on the coast of the Pacific. Some assert, that the word Peru comes from Bera, a river which enters itself into that sea, and which was the first river passed by Pizarro. Others give its origin from a promontory of the same coast, which at that time was called Pelu.

In Chili, the Incu Yupanqui, eleventh emperor of Peru, had carried his conquests as far as the river Maule, in S. lat. 34°, 30', when that country was first discovered by Diego de Almagro, a Spaniard, in the year 1535; and he began its conquest, which was afterwards followed up, in 1541, by the celebrated Pedro de Valdivia, who founded its first cities, and afterwards met with a disgraceful death at the hands of the Indians, having been made prisoner by them in the year 1551. These Indians are the most valorous and warlike of all in America; they have maintained, by a continual warfare, their independence of the Spaniards, from whom they are separated by the river Biobio.

Brazil was discovered by Vincente Yanes Pinzon, in 1498; afterwards by Diego Lopez, in 1500; by Americus Vesputius, or Americo Vesputio, in 1501; and by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, in 1502, who was by chance sailing for the East Indies. He gave it the name of Santa Cruz, in memory of the day on which it was discovered; this, however, it did not retain, and it has been called continually Brazil, from the abundance of fine wood of this name found in it. On the death of Don Sebastian, this kingdom, then forming a part of the dominion of Portugal, came to Philip III. by inheritance, as belonging to the crown of Castile. The Dutch, under the command of the prince of Nassau, made themselves masters of the greater part of it; but this loss was again recovered by the Spanish and Portuguese, after a bloody war of many years duration, when it was restored to the dominion of the latter by a treaty of general peace. The French, in 1584, established themselves in Parayba, the Rio Grande, and Canabata, from whence they were driven out by the Portuguese, in 1600. In 1612, however, they returned to construct a fortress in the island of Maranhão, with the name of St. Louis, which was taken by the Dutch, and afterwards by the Portuguese, in 1646. From that time this kingdom has belonged to the crown of Portugal, and has given title to the heir-apparent, who is called prince of Brazil.

The greater part of the province of Guaiana is unknown, from its having been visited scarcely by any other travellers than the Capuchin missionaries, and by these very triflingly; the information we possess, in conse-

quence, respecting the Caribee Indians is very confused. The colonies of Surinam, Demerary, Berbice, Essequibo, and Cayenne are in this province, and are possessed by the English, the French, and the Dutch. Sir Walter Raleigh was the first to make this province known in any considerable degree to Europe. He visited it in the year 1595, and sailed up the Orinoco about 600 miles. The English buccaniers next resorted thither, who, together with some of their French associates, were established at Surinam, under the protection of Great Britain, in 1650. This settlement was taken by the Dutch in 1667, and confirmed to them in exchange for New York in 1674. Various colonies were gradually settled by other European powers, which have been distributed into Spanish Guaiana, Dutch Guaiana, French Guaiana, and Portuguese Guaiana, the native tribes still retaining a large district of the interior. But the portions in the actual possession of the English, Dutch, and French are so inconsiderable and ill-ascertained, that they can, in truth, be hardly considered as any proprietors of the Southern continent of America, which, as it has been seen, is principally possessed by its discoverers, the Spaniards and the Portuguese, a list of whose names, with a chronological account of their several voyages, is herewith subjoined from Mr. Thompson's admirable English edition of Alcedo's Dictionary of America and the West Indies, and which will form a convenient summary of the progressive geography of this continent.

A Chronological List of the most celebrated discoverers of America:

Years

- 1492.—Christopher COLUMBUS, a Genoese, who, on the 11th October, first discovered the island which is called San Salvador, one of the Lucayns, and afterwards the following:
- 1497.—The island of Trinidad, coast of Nueva Andalusia.
- 1498.—The island of Margarita.
- 1502.—Porto Bello, Nombre de Dios, the Rio de San Francisco, with the other coasts and islands. This great man, alas! worthy of a better fortune, died on the 20th May, 1506, in Valladolid; having required in his will that his body should be carried embalmed to the island of St. Domingo, one of the larger Antilles.
- 1497.—Americo Vesputio sailed on the expedition, in which he discovered the coast of Paris, and from him the whole of the New World takes its name.
- 1498.—Also the Antilles, the coast of Guinam, and that of Venezuela.
- 1501.—The coast of Brazil, the bay of Todos Santos, and the east coast of Paraguay.
- 1503.—A second time the coast of Brazil, the river Curubata, that of La Plata, and the coast of Los Pampas, in Paraguay.
- 1493.—Vincente Yanes Pinzon, a Spaniard, discovered Tombal, Angra, the Rio de las Amazonas and its islands, the Pará, or Maragnon, and the coast of Paris and Caribana.
- 1501.—Rodrigo Galvan de Bastidas, a Spaniard, discovered the islands Verde, Samba, the city of Calamari, now Carthagena, the gulf of

S. AME-
RICA.Principal
discovery.

S. AME-
RICA.

Years
Progress of
discovery.

- 1511.—Juan Diaz de Solis, a Spaniard, discovered part of the course of the river Plata, in Paraguay.
- 1512.—Vasco Nunez de Balboa, discovered the South or Pacific sea, through the isthmus of Panama. Juan Ponce de Leon discovered Florida.
- 1514.—Gaspar de Morales discovered, in the South sea, the islands of Las Perlas and those of Rey.
- 1515.—Pedrarias Dávila discovered the coast of Panamá, the cape of Guerra, cape Blanco, and the west coast of Darien, as far as the point of Garnachine.
- 1517.—Francisco Hernandez de Cordova discovered Yucatan.
- 1518.—Juan de Grijalva began the discovery of New Spain.
- 1519.—Hernando de Magallanes, a Portuguese, discovered the port and river of San Julian, and on the 6th of November of the following year, 1520, the strait to which he gave his name. He also discovered the land of the Patagones, that of Fuego, and the Pacific sea. He was the first who went round the world from the west to the east, in which voyages he spent three years and twenty-eight days, returning to Europe in the same ship, which was called the Victory.
- 1522.—Gil Gonzalez Dávila discovered through New Spain the South sea, and Andres Nino 652 leagues of coast in the North sea.
- 1524.—Rodrigo Bastidas discovered Santa Marta.
- 1525.—Francisco Pizarro, Hernando de Luque, and Diego de Almagro, joined company in Panama, and discovered the river of San Juan, the country of Esmeraldas, and the coast of Manta.
- 1526.—Francisco Pizarro discovered the land of Tumbez.
- Francisco de Montejo discovered Yucatan.
- Sebastian Gobato, a Venetian, discovered the coast and land of Pernambuco, and 200 leagues further on of the river Paraguay, and that of La Plata.
- 1531.—Garcia de Lerma, a Spaniard, discovered a great part of the large river Magdalena, in the new kingdom of Granada.
- Diego de Ordez discovered the grand river Orinoco, and the country of the Caribes.
- Nuno de Guzman discovered New Galicia, called Xalisco.
- 1533.—Francisco Pizarro, marquis of Los Charens and Atavillos, discovered the island of Puna, Tumbes, Truxillo, the coast of Peru, as far as Guanuco and Caxamarca.
- 1535.—He discovered the river Rimac, Pachacamar, and the coast of Lima.
- 1533.—Pedro de Alvarado and Hernando de Soto discovered Cuzco and Chimo.
- 1534.—Sebastian Venalcabar discovered Quito, the Pastos Indians, and other parts of Popayan.
- 1535.—Diego de Almagro discovered Atacama and Chili.
- Pedro de Mendoza, a Portuguese, discovered

Years

- the rest of the river La Plata, and the famous mountain of Potosi.
- 1539.—Pedro de Valdivia discovered the rest of the kingdom of Chili, the country of the Aracancos, Chiloe, the land of the Patagones, and the coast of Magellan to the west.
- 1540.—Gonzalo Pizarro discovered the rivers Napo and Coca, and the province of the Canelos. Panfilo de Narvaez discovered New Mexico. Francisco de Orellana discovered the grand river Maragoun, or of the Amazonas.
- 1543.—Domingo de Irala discovered the rivers Paraguay and Guarani.
- 1566.—Alvaro de Mendana discovered the Solomon isles.
- 1576.—Francis Drake, an Englishman, discovered Cayenne and the coast of Guaiana.
- 1578.—He discovered the islands of the straits of Magellan, the whole of the coast of Chili, the islands of Mocha, other islands, and the coast of Peru.
- 1585.—He discovered the coast of the Rio del Hacha and of Coro.
- 1601.—Juan de Onate discovered the rest of New Mexico.
- 1616.—Jacobo de Maire, a Dutchman, discovered the strait, which still preserves the name he gave it.
- 1617.—Fernando Quiros discovered the unknown land to the south near the Antarctic Pole.
- 1619.—John More, James Hermit, and John Hugo Scapensham, Dutchmen, discovered the islands of Staten-Land, Port Mauritius, and the island called Hermit.
- 1670.—Nicolas Mascardi, a Jesuit, discovered the city of Cesures, in the kingdom of Chili.
- 1764.—Byron, an Englishman—Islands in the Pacific ocean.
- 1766.—Carteret, an Englishman—do.
- Wallis, an Englishman—do.
- Pages, a Frenchman—do.
- Bougainville, a Frenchman—do.
- 1769.—Cook, an Englishman, made discoveries in the Pacific.
- Surville, a Frenchman—do.
- 1771.—Marion and Du Clesmeur, Frenchmen—do.
- Hearne, an Englishman—do.
- 1775.—Cook, Clerk, and Gore, Englishmen—do.

§ II. Geographical details of South America generally.

GULFS, STRAITS, &c.—No country in the world is Gulfs, more famous for its enormous gulfs than South America. The gulf of Mexico is of itself an extensive Gulf of sea, which almost intersects the two continents. Mr. Mexico Thompson, an author to whom we have just alluded, has published a tract, wherein he attempts to explain how this gulf has been formed by the natural ablation of ages. He shows that there is a constant stream running from the bottom of New Holland, round the Cape of Good Hope, and across the Atlantic, into this gulf, whence it runs up the side of North America, forming the gulf-stream, and so onwards to the north, beyond Newfoundland, &c. He points out the peculiar circumstance of this stream's following the exact course of the sun's ecliptic, and

S. AME-
RICA.

Progress of
discovery,
&c.

S. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

ending, with respect to the gulf, exactly in that point where the continent is narrowest, namely, at the isthmus of Darien, or Panama. The cutting across this isthmus has been a subject of great interest with politicians, and nature will probably effect what human skill and labour could never hope to accomplish; for, it is a fact but little known, yet decidedly true, that the sea on the side of the gulf is about twenty-five feet higher than the waters on the opposite side, in the South sea. When Bonaparte had thoughts of going to India through Egypt, he sent some cognoscenti to survey the passage of the Red sea, who pronounced the waters of this arm of the ocean to be about twenty-seven feet higher than the waters of the Mediterranean. The coincidence is strong and striking, and argues, amongst other speculations of extraordinary interest, the great probability that the waters of this gulf will, in the course of time, work their own way into the Southern, or Pacific ocean.

Bay of Panama.

In W. lon. $79^{\circ} 19'$ N. lat. $9^{\circ} 30'$, of this sea, is the fine bay of *Panama*. The port is formed by some islands, at the distance of two leagues and a half from the town, where vessels may be sheltered from the winds. The tides are regular, and the high-water is every three hours, when it runs to a great height, and falls with such rapidity, as to leave three quarters of a league dry when down.

Valdivia.

The harbour of *Valdivia* is the safest, the strongest from its natural position, and the most capacious of any of the ports in the South sea. The island of *Manzana*, situate just in the mouth of the river, forms two passages, bordered by steep mountains, and strongly fortified. As this is a port of the most importance of any in the Pacific, a governor is always sent from Spain, who possesses reputation as a military officer, and is under the immediate direction of the president of the kingdom. He has under his command a considerable number of troops, who are officered by the five castellans, or commanders of the castles, a sergeant-major, a provost, an inspector, and several captains. For the pay of the soldiers 36,000 crowns are annually sent hither from the royal treasury of Peru, and the provisions requisite for their subsistence from the other ports of Chili.

San Miguel.

San Miguel is also a fine gulf in this sea, in the province of *Terra Firma*. It is very great and beautiful, having its mouth, or entrance, closed in by a shoal called *El Bayo*, there being only a narrow channel left for the course of vessels. Within it are many small rocks or reefs, and there runs into it a large river, which flows down from the mountains of the same province.

Buena Ventura.

The port of *Buena Ventura* is in the district of the province of *Chico*, also on the South sea, where there is a small settlement, subsisting only by means of the vessels which arrive at it; since it is of a very bad temperature, and difficult to be entered, and since the road to the city of *Culi* is so rough, as to be passed only upon men's shoulders; a circumstance arising from the inaccessible mountains which lie in the route. It is thirty-six leagues from *Cali*, and is the staple port of this place, *Payapan*, *Santa Fe*, &c. W. lon. $76^{\circ} 43'$ N. lat. $3^{\circ} 51'$.

Chaco.

In *Chiloe*, an island dependent upon the government of *Chili*, there are two very good ports, of which *Casco*, in S. lat. $41^{\circ} 50'$, is the best. *Castro*, the capital city, is also a good port, which lies between two small rivers, and is inhabited by some good and opulent

families, and enjoys a pleasant and healthy temperature. It is also called *Chiloe*, and is of a regular and beautiful form; has, besides the parish church, a convent of monks of *St. Francis*, and a bishop auxiliary to that of *Santiago*. It was sacked by the Dutch in 1643; is 42 leagues S. of the city of *Osnoro*, in S. lat. $42^{\circ} 40'$.

But no bay on the western side of this continent deserves more to be noticed than that of *Conception*; *Conception* is large, noble, and convenient. Its only defence is a battery, on a level with the water, which defends its anchoring-ground.

On the coast of *Terra Firma* is the gulf of *Cumana*, *Cumana* so called from the capital on its shores. This bay runs 10 or 12 leagues from W. to E. and is one league broad at its widest part. It is from 80 to 100 fathoms deep, and the waters are so quiet as to resemble rather the waters of a lake than those of the ocean. It is surrounded by the *serranias*, or lofty chains of mountains, which shelter it from all winds, excepting that of the N. E., which blowing on it, as it were, through a straitened and narrow passage, is accustomed to cause a swell, especially from ten in the morning until five in the evening, after which all becomes calm. Under the above circumstances, the larger vessels ply to windward; and if the wind be very strong, they come to an anchor on the one or other coast, and wait till the evening, when the land breezes spring up from the S. E. In this gulf there are some good ports and bays, viz. the lake of *Obispo*, of *Juanantar*, of *Gurintar*, and others.

The river of *Guxayquil*, in S. lat. $2^{\circ} 27'$, is so called *Guxayquil* from the gift of its name, which is famous for its shifting sand-banks, on which, as the river recedes, alligators are left in great numbers. Vessels require to be steered by an experienced pilot, after leaving their guns in the island of *La Puna*.

Gulf Trieste, in the Atlantic, and in the province of *Triste*. *Caracas*, is 16 leagues wide from the point of *Cayalceda* to the S. S. E. as far as cape *Muerto* to N. N. E. and about nine leagues in depth. It was discovered, and thus named by *Columbus*, in his fourth voyage, in 1498, in memory of the misfortunes he suffered here.

In the gulf of *Cumana*, in the province of that name, are several convenient and secure ports and bays, and indeed, the whole coast is covered with them, as the sea is here remarkably calm, and peculiarly so in the celebrated gulf of *Cariaco*, as also in the gulfs of the lake *Cariaco*, of *Obispo*, *Guanantar*, and *Gurintar*. Within enormous shot of the shore of the gulfs lies the city of *Cumana*, in a semicircular form, where all kinds of vessels may be built: on its beach a saline ground supplies sufficient salt for the use of the city and the neighbouring settlements. It lies in the middle of the plain of its name. At the back begins the *serrania*, which, for more than eight leagues, is sterile and impassable, on account of brambles and thorns. The soil towards the front of the city is composed of pebble, gypsum, and sand, which, during the prevalence of the wind *brisa*, occasions an excessive heat, and is very offensive to the eyes; had sight here being a very common malady. Nearly in the centre of the town, upon an elevated ground, stands the castle of *Santa Maria de la Cabeza*, which is of a square figure, and commands the city. In the lofty part of the *sierra* are seen three round hills; upon the highest of which stands a castle called *San Antonio*, and upon the lowest a fort called *La Cande-*

S. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

S. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

Todos Santos.

Porto Seguro.

Rio de Janeiro.

Maranhão.

Straits of Magellan.

Le Maire.

loria. There is upon the beach another castle, which is denominated the fort of Santa Catalina. The same is at the mouth of the river, just where a sand-bank has of late been formed, so as to block up the entrance of the river, and to render it dangerous for large vessels. The fort is at some distance from the gulf; and as a wood has of late sprung up between this and the shore, it is not possible to see the water from the fort.

Todos Santos is one of the best of the numerous bays on the coast of Brazil. It is three leagues from the entrance from the bar of San Antonio to the strait of Tapage; 12 leagues in diameter and 36 in circumference. It is convenient, secure, and full of islands. All its vicinities are covered with sugar engines and estates, the productions of which are conveyed in large barges by the rivers; and for this employ there are no less than 2,000 of the above craft in constant employ, so great is the traffic of the bay. It lies in W. lon. 38°, 42'. S. lat. 12°, 42'.

Porto Seguro, also on the same coast, takes its name from the security it afforded to Pedro Alvarez Cabral, when he discovered it, and found it a shelter from tempests. The capital is situate on an eminence, and defended with good fortifications, and a castle, well furnished, in which the governor resides. The town is small, but handsome, rich, commercial, and well peopled. Amongst the inhabitants are some noble and distinguished Portuguese families. Its climate is hot, but healthy. It is 92 miles S. of San Jorge, and 286 N. N. E. of Espirito Santo. W. lon. 39°, 37'. S. lat. 16°, 57'.

The harbour of Rio de Janeiro is one of the finest known, having at its entrance a bar, at the extremes of which rise two rocks. This bay is 24 leagues in length and eight in width; in which are many islands, some cultivated and having sugar-engines, and the most celebrated of them being that called De Cobras, off which the ships cast anchor. On the opposite side of the city, a natural wall of rocks, called Los Organos, extends itself as far as the sea; they are of different heights, forming a perfect line of defence, independently of the neighbouring fortresses.

The bay of Maranhão affords a very convenient harbour, commanded by the capital St. Louis, at the mouth of the river St. Mary. This bay is 492 miles N. W. of cape St. Roque.

The straits of Magellan, at the southern extremity of this continent, are amongst the most celebrated in the world, both for their length and the difficulty of their navigation. From cape Virgin Mary, in the Atlantic, W. lon. 68°, 22'. S. lat. 52°, 24', to cape Pillar, in the Pacific ocean, W. lon. 75°, 10'. S. lat. 53°, 45', they have been estimated at 342 miles in length, and are of varying breadth, bounded northward by Patagonia, and on the S. by Terra del Fuego. They derive their name from Hernando de Magallanes, who discovered them in 1520; they were subsequently passed by Drake, Byron, Wallis, Carteret, and Boagainville. In the same neighbourhood,

The straits of Le Maire form a safer passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, westward of Terra del Fuego, and bounded on the E. by Staten-Land. They were first passed by Le Maire, after whom they are called, in June 1615, who was also the first that doubled cape Horn.

Beside these, some geographers have called the passage formed by the eastern mouth of the Maragnon, and the island of Morajo, by the name of the straits of

Magueri; and various minor passages formed by the numerous islands round the shores of this continent, have been dignified with this appellation.

CAPES.—There are scarcely any capes or promontories in this extensive country that have not the same names as the chief rivers or gulfs which surround them. Though they are innumerable, there are scarcely any deserving particular notice. Amongst the few that are worth enumerating is point *Natú*, or *Chama*, on the W. point of the celebrated isthmus of Paama, from whence the coast tends W. to Hagnera point seven leagues. All ships bound to the N. W. and to Acapulco make this point. Lower down is the promontory of *Ballea*, on the coast of Peru, to the S. S. E. of the cape Borrachos, and N. N. E. of Palmar. Mariners should remember that the soil round this point is sandy and level, and the water very shallow. In Chili we find the point *Cancro*, extending itself with a gradual slope into the sea; here the E. winds are very prevalent, endangering navigation. *Ballea*, another point on this coast, is well marked by navigators. It lies between the river and ravine of Checopa, in the province of Quillota. *Villica*, or *Qerdal*, in the province of Valdivia, is 80 miles S. of that place; in S. lat. 41°, 6'; and is also a noted landmark. In the province of New Granada, cape *Gaie*, between the point Aguja and the river Del Hacha, obtrudes itself on our notice, being seen an immense distance from land.

MOUNTAINS.—If any feature distinguishes more than mountains, another the continent of South America from the other quarters of the globe, it is the extraordinary chain of mountains which intersect it from south to north, commonly called the *Andes*; all the other mountains being properly considered, by some writers, but as different branches or ramifications of these, the main chain of which, running along the western coast, extends on both sides of the equator to near the 30th degree of latitude. It is of unequal height, sinking in some parts to 600 feet from the level of the sea, and, at certain points, towering above the clouds to an elevation of almost four miles. The colossal Chimborazo lifts its snowy head to an altitude which would equal that of the Peak of Teneriffe, placed on the top of Mount Etna. The medium height of the chain under the equator may be reckoned at 14,000 feet, while that of the Alps and Pyrenees hardly exceeds 8,000. Its breadth is proportionately great, being 60 miles at Quito, and 150 or 200 at Mexico, and some districts of the Peruvian territory. This stupendous ridge is intersected in Peru and New Granada by frequent clefts, or ravines, of amazing depth; but to the north of the isthmus of Panama, it softens down by degrees, and spreads out into the vast and elevated plain of Mexico. In the former provinces, accordingly, the inhabitants are obliged to travel on horseback or on foot, or even to be carried on the backs of Indians; whereas carriages drive with ease through the whole extent of New Spain, from Mexico to Santa Fe, along a road of more than 15,000 miles. The equatorial regions of America exhibit the same composition of rock that we meet with in other parts of the globe. The only formations which Humboldt could not discover in his travels, were those of chalk, red-stone, grey wacke, the topaz-rock, of Werner, and the compound of serpentine with granular limestone, which occurs in Asia Minor. Granite constitutes, in South America, the great basis which sup-

S. AMERICA.

Geographical details.
Maguari.
Capes.

The Andes.

S. AME-
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ports the other formations; above it lies gneiss, next comes micaceous schist, and then primitive schist. Granular limestone, chlorite schist, and primitive trap, often form subordinate beds in the gneiss and micaceous schist, which is very abundant, and sometimes alternates with serpentine and sienite. The high ridge of the Andes is every where covered with formations of porphyry, basalt, phonolite, and greenstone; and these, being often divided into columns, that appear from a distance like mined castles, produce a very striking and picturesque effect. At the bottom of those huge mountains occur two different kinds of limestone: the one with a siliceous base, enclosing primitive masses, and sometimes cinabar and coal; the other with a calcareous base, and cementing together the secondary rocks. Plains of more than 600,000 square miles are covered with an ancient deposit of limestone, containing fossil wood and brown iron ore; on this rests the limestone of the Higher Alps, presenting marine petrifications at a vast elevation. Next appears a lamellar gypsum, impregnated with sulphur and salt; above this, another calcareous formation, whitish and homogeneous, but sometimes cavernous. Again occurs calcareous sandstone, then lamellar gypsum mixed with clay; and the series terminates with calcareous masses, involving flints and hornstone. But what may perplex some geologists, is the singular fact noticed by Humboldt, that the secondary formations in the New World have such enormous thickness and elevation. Beds of coal are found in the neighbourhood of Santa Fé, 8,650 feet above the level of the sea; and even at the height of 14,700, near Huancayo, in Peru. The plains of Bogota, although elevated 9,000 feet, are covered with sandstone, gypsum, shell-limestone, and even, in some parts, with rock-salt. Fossil shells, which, in the old continent, have not been discovered higher than the summits of the Pyrenees, or 11,700 feet above the sea, were observed in Peru, near Mucumpampa, at the height of 12,800; and again at that of 14,120 besides, at Huancavelica, where sandstone also appears. The basalt of Pichincha, near the city of Quito, has an elevation of 15,500 feet; while the top of the Schneekoppe, in Silesia, is only 4,225 feet above the sea, the highest point in Germany where that species of rock occurs. On the other hand, granite, which in Europe crowns the loftiest mountains, is not found, in the American continent, above the height of 11,500 feet. It is scarcely known at all in the provinces of Quito and Peru. The frozen summits of Chimborazo, Cayambe, and Anisana, consist entirely of porphyry, which, on the flanks of the Andes, forms a mass of 10 or 12,000 feet in depth. The sandstone near Cuenca has a thickness of 5,000 feet; and the stupendous mass of pure quartz, on the W. of Cuzamarca, measures, perpendicularly, 9,600 feet. It is likewise a remarkable fact, that the porphyry of those mountains very frequently contains hornblende, but never quartz, and seldom mica. The Andes of Chili have a distinct suture from those three chains called the Maritime mountains, which have been successively formed by the waters of the ocean. This great interior structure appears to be coeval with the creation of the world. It rises abruptly, and forms but a small angle with its base; its general shape being that of a pyramid, crowned at intervals with conical, and, as it were, crystallized elevations. It is composed of primitive rocks of quartz, of an enormous size, and

almost uniform configuration, containing no marine substances, which abound in the secondary mountains. It is in the Cordillera of this part of the Andes that blocks of crystal are obtained, of a size sufficient for columns of six or seven feet in height. The central Andes are rich beyond conception in all the metals, lead only excepted. One of the most curious ores in the bowels of those mountains is the paco, a compound of clay, oxyd of iron, and the muriate of silver, with native silver. The mines of Mexico and Peru, so long the objects of envy and admiration, far from being yet exhausted, promise, under a liberal and improved system, to become more productive than ever. But nature has blended with those hidden treasures the active elements of destruction. The whole chain of the Andes is subject to the most terrible earthquakes. From Cotopaxi to the South sea, so fewer than forty volcanoes are constantly burning; some of them, especially the lower ones, ejecting lava, and others discharging the muriate of ammonia, scorified basalt, and porphyry, enormous quantities of water, and especially moxa, or clay mixed with sulphur and carbonaceous matter. Eternal snows invest their sides, and forms a barrier to the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Near that confine, the torpor of vegetation is marked by dreary wastes. In these wide solitudes, the condor, a fierce and powerful bird of prey, fixes its gloomy abode; its size, however, has been greatly exaggerated. According to Humboldt, it is not larger than the hammer geyser, or alpine culture of Europe; its extreme length being only three feet and a half, and its breadth across the wings nine feet. The condor pursues the small deer of the Andes, and commits very considerable havoc among sheep and heifers; it tears out the eyes and the tongue, and leaves the wretched animal to languish and expire. Estimating from very probable data, this bird skims whole hours at the height of four miles; its power of wing must be prodigious, and its pliancy of organs most astonishing, since in an instant it can dart from the chill region of mid-air to the sultry shores of the ocean. The condor is sometimes caught alive by means of a slip-cord; and this chase, termed *carrer baltres*, is, next to a bull-fight, the most favourite diversion of the Spanish colonists. The dead carcase of a cow or horse soon attracts from a distance crowds of these birds, which have a most acute scent. They fall on with incredible voracity, devour the eyes and the tongue of the animal, and plunging through the anus, gorge themselves with the entrails. In this drowsy plight they are approached by the Indians, who easily throw a noose over them. The condor, thus entangled, looks shy and silent; it is most tenacious of life, and is therefore made to suffer a variety of protracted tortures. The most important feature of the American continent is the very general and enormous elevation of its soil. In Europe the highest tracts of cultivated land seldom rise more than 2,000 feet above the sea; but in the Peruvian territory extensive plains occur at an altitude of 9,000 feet; and three-fifths of the viceroyalty of Mexico, comprehending the interior provinces, present a surface of half a million of square miles, which runs nearly level, at an elevation from 6,000 to 8,000 feet, equal to that of the celebrated passages of Mount Ceus, of St. Gothard, or of the Great St. Bernard.

We proceed to give a more detailed description of some of the more notable mountains of this continent.

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Chimborazo.

The name of *Chimborazo*, a mountain in the Paramo, or desert of Riombarba, in the kingdom of Quito, signifies, mountain "of the other side." It is the loftiest in the world, being situate in S. lat. 1°, 21', 18", according to the observations of M. de la Condamine. Its sides are covered with a kind of white sand, or calcined earth, with loose stones, and a certain herb called pajon, which affords pasture for the cattle of the neighbouring estates. The warm streams flowing from its N. side should seem to warrant the idea that within it is a volcano. From its top flow down many rivers, which take different winding courses; thus the Guarranda runs S., the Guano S. E., and the Machala E. On its skirt lies the road which leads from Quito to Guayaquil; and in order to pass it in safety, it is requisite to be more cautious in choosing the proper season than were the Spanish conquerors of this province, who were here frozen to death. This mountain was visited, on the 23d of June, 1797, by Humboldt; who, with his party, reached its E. slope on that day, and planted their instruments on a narrow ledge of porphyritic rock which projected from the vast field of unathomed snow. A chasm, 500 feet wide, prevented their further ascent. The air was reduced to half its usual density, and felt intensely cold and piercing. Respiration was laborious, and blood oozed from their eyes, their lips, and their gums. They stood on the highest spot ever trod by man. Its height, ascertained from barometrical observation, was 3,485 feet greater than the elevation attained, in 1745, by Condamine, and 19,300 feet above the level of the sea. From that extreme station, the top of Chimborazo was found, by trigonometrical measurement, to be 2,140 feet still higher.

Cotopaxi.

In Quito is also the mountain desert of *Cotopaxi*, in the province of Tacumja, in S. lat. 4°, 11'. It is of the figure of an inverted truncated cone, and was discovered, in 1802, to be only 260 feet lower than the crater of Antisana, which is 19,150 feet above the level of the sea. On its summit, which is perpetually covered with snow, is a volcano, which burst forth, in 1698, in such a dreadful manner as not only to destroy the city of Tacumja, with three-fourths of its inhabitants, but other settlements also. It likewise vomited up a river of mud, which so altered the face of the province, that the missionaries of the Jesuits of Maynos, seeing so many carcases, pieces of furniture, and houses floating down the Maragnon, were persuaded amongst themselves that the Almighty had visited this kingdom with some signal destruction: they, moreover, wrote circular letters, and transmitted them open about the country, to ascertain what number of persons were remaining alive. These misfortunes, though in a moderate degree, recurred in the years 1742, 1743, 1766, and 1768. From the E. part of this mountain the Napo takes its rise; and from the S. the Cotoche and the Alaguna, and several other rivers of less note.

Potosi.

The celebrated mountain of *Potosi* has on its skirts the city of its name. This mountain is well known throughout the world for the immense riches extracted from its inexhaustible silver-mines, an account of which will be seen under that head. The distinguishing feature of the mountains of Chili, especially that of Copapo, is, that they consist in a great degree of petrified teeth, or bones of animals, coloured by metallic vapours. Copapo, according to the Indian tradition, owes its name to, and is indicative of this circumstance.

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The turquoise, or stones found on its mountains, are usually of a greenish blue, and very hard, being known by the name of the turquoise of the old rock. Some authors, not altogether out of union with the above account, describe the mountain as consisting of a marble, striped with vari-coloured bands, of a very beautiful appearance. It is situate in S. lat. 26°.

With regard to these mountains, it appears to be a general principle that they are highest at the equator; and that their height decreases in a gradual ratio, as they are distant from the lofty chain of the Andes—proving a certain peculiar connection between them all, never yet attempted to be shown. The following is the comparative height of the mountains in Spanish America, in relation to those of some other parts of the world.

Names of the mountains, and in what countries they are situated.

	Height in feet.	Height in yards.	Height in miles and yards.
<i>In Spanish America.</i>			
Cotopaxi, in the province of Quito, in Peru	19,999	6,645	3 and 1,563
Chimborazo, in Peru	19,370	6,440	3 — 1,160
Curambour, is under the equator Descabrado, in Chili, fifty miles from the sea	18,000	6,000	3 — 700
Caracas, in Peru	18,000	6,000	3 — 700
Finchicha, in Peru	14,820	4,940	3 — 1,420
	14,380	4,800	3 — 1,240
<i>In Europe, and other parts.</i>			
<i>The Peak of Teneriffe, one of the Canary islands</i>			
Mount Blanc	15,506	5,152	3 — 1,612
Mount Etna, in Sicily	13,245	5,061	2 — 1,361
Mount Elmus, in Sicily	12,000	4,600	2 — 400
<i>Geneva, in the canton of Bern, in Switzerland</i>			
Summit of Bart	10,110	3,370	1 — 1,610
Summit of Granatun	9,945	3,215	1 — 1,585
The Blue Mountains, in Jamaica	8,874	2,958	1 — 1,198
Peak end of the Table Mountain, Cape of Good Hope	7,463	2,494	1 — 754
	5,503	1,193	—

RIVERS.—As the mountains of America are much superior in height to those of the other divisions of the globe, so are the rivers of much greater magnitude and importance than those of the Old World. Some of them are indeed so large, that they might much more properly be denominated seas: the *Mogdalena*, for instance, rushes into the ocean with such a volume of waters, that it holds itself independent of the Atlantic, and refuses to embody itself with the sea till after a distance of twenty leagues from its disengagement, and as far as this the water is perfectly pure, and sweet to drink. This river, whose mouth is about 63 miles to the N. E. of Carthagena, in N. lat. 11°, 2', was discovered in 1525, by Rodrigo Bastidas, on the day of St. Mary Magdalena, and was first navigated in 1531. It rises in the province of Popayan, from two fountains, which are in the mountains to the W. of Timana, through which it passes; it then traverses and irrigates the province and government of Neiva and follows its course from S. to N., running upwards of 300 leagues before it enters the sea, and first receiving the waters of many other rivers, with which its stream becomes much enlarged: some of these tributary streams are of themselves abundant rivers, and such are the Cauca, Cesar or Pompaton, Carari, Mucates, De la Miel, Zarate, and others. It is navigable from its mouth as far as the town and port of Houda, the same being a distance of 160 leagues. Its shores are covered with thick woods, in which dwell some barbarian Indians, who are ferocious and treacherous.

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Here also breed immense tigers, and the river swarms with an incredible multitude of alligators, as well as with every kind of fish. By this river you pass to the kingdom of New Granada, and on it is brought every kind of merchandize, and a great traffic earned on by means of large flat-bottomed boats, which are here called *chumpiras*; but the navigation is rendered exceedingly irksome, not only on account of the heat, but through the great number of mosquitoes with which it is infested.

Maragnon.

The *Maragnon* is the largest river not only of those known to America, but in the whole world. It is said to rise from the lake Lauricordia, in the province of Tarma, in the kingdom of Peru, in S. lat. 10° , 29'; but its most remote source is the river Beni, which rises in the cordillera De Acama, about 35 miles from La Paz, in the province of Sicacaca. It runs from N. to S. as far as the province of Yaguasongo, in the kingdom of Quito. From thence it forms the strait of Guaracayo, follows its course from W. to E. running a distance, from its rising to where it enters the sea, of 1,800 leagues. The mouth, or entrance of this river, is about 180 miles wide; the tide-water ends at Obidos, which is about 400 miles from its mouth. The river at this place is 905 fathoms wide, and the violence with which this river flows is so powerful, that it repels the waters of the ocean, and retains its own stream pure and unimpregnated for a distance of eighty leagues within the sea; a circumstance the more wonderful, inasmuch as from the above distance of Obidos to its mouth, 400 miles, it has a fall of only four feet. Innumerable are the rivers which it receives in its long-extended course.

The first who discovered the mouth of this immense river, was Vicente Yonez Pinzon, in 1498. It was afterwards reconnoitred, in 1511, by Francisco de Orellana, lieutenant of Gonzalo Pizarro; in 1560, by Pedro de Urua, by order of Don Andres Hurtado de Mendoza, marquis of Canete, viceroy of Peru; in 1602, by the father Rafael Ferrer, of the abolished order of Jesuits of the province of Quito, and missionary amongst the Cofanes Indians; and in 1616, by order of Don Francisco de Borja, prince of Esquilache, viceroy of Peru; also, in 1725, by Juan de Palafox, in company with others Donuogo Breda and Andres de Toledo, of the order of San Francisco. Besides these, Pedro Texeira, a Portuguese, undertook, in the name of Santiago Raimundo de Noroua, governor of San Luis de Maranhim, the further navigation of this river, arriving by the Napo as far as the port of Poyamino, in the province of Moxos. In 1639, Don Gerónimo Fernandez de Cabrera, count of Chinchon, and viceroy of Peru, sent as far as Paru, the fathers Christoval de Acuna and Andres de Artieda, Jesuits of the province of Quito, and also the father Samuel Fritz, a German, and of the same extinguished company, a great missionary and profound mathematician. He it was that took the most exact observations as far as Paru, in his voyage made in the years 1689 and 1691, and who gave to the world the first geographical chart of the Maragnon, made and published in Quito, in 1707. Subsequently to this, another map was published by Don Carlos de la Condamine, of the royal academy of sciences at Paris; he being one of the persons commissioned to make astronomical observations under the equinoctial line. This last map is the most correct, and was made in the voyages he took in the Maragnon, in the years 1743 and

1744, although it was much amended and enlarged by another map which had been formed by the father Juan Maguin, of the aforesaid company, and then missionary of the city of Borgo, of the province of Maimas, and an honorary academician of the sciences at Paris.

The shores and innumerable islands of this large river were peopled and inhabited by many barbarous nations of Indians, which have, for the most part, at the present day, either become extinct, or retired to the wilds of the mountains. The name of *Amazonas* is derived to this river from some warlike women who attacked and opposed the Spaniards on their first arrival, and more especially the discoverer Orellana. Some hold this as fabulous, but others maintain that there not only were, but are at this time, such women as those of whom we speak; and these people recount of them the same stories that are told of the Asiatic Amazons in the *Termodnote*.

The fact, however, is, that the women here called *Amazonas* were nothing more than women who assisted their husbands in battle; a practice very prevalent amongst the greater part of the nations of the barbarian Indians. Such was the case when Gonzalo had to encounter women in the kingdom of Tunja, Sebastian de Benalcazar in Popayan, Pedro de Valdivia in Chili, as also other conquerors in different provinces. The *Amazonas* of the Maragnon, of which we treat, and who made front against Orellana, were of the notion of the Omoguns, dwelling in the islands and on the shores of the river. The historians who paint the government and customs of this fictitious race, are nothing but idle dreamers and fabulists, publishing wonders to accredit their voyages and histories.

From the mouth of the river, as far up as the Yavari, on the south shore, and as far as the settlement of Loreto de los Tiguas on the north, including the river itself, and the adjacent territories, the Portuguese possessions are considered at the present day to extend; and from thence upwards is claimed by the crown of Spain. The latter power has founded many settlements of Indians, who have become Christians; as also certain reducciones, which form the mission called De Minas, the same leaving had its origin, and having since flourished, under the discipline and management of the regulars of the company of Jesuits of the province of Quito, until that order was supplanted, in 1767, by the present Don Joseph Dillupo, who sent various priests in the place of the former; these banishing the Jesuits from the dominions of the king. Other missionaries were also sent of the religious orders of San Francisco, to the shores of the rivers Manu, Putumayo, and Carqueta.

Throughout the whole country washed by this mighty river, from the point or strait of Manasterice to its mouth, there is to be found no kind of stone, gold, or other metal. Its current has great violence and rapidity, and its depth is unfathomable. The swellings and freshes are usually very great; and when these happen, the country is inundated for many leagues, the whole of the islands are covered with water, and are made to change their situation, or new ones are formed by the fresh channels, which the river in its boundless impetuosity is accustomed to procure itself.

In the parts called Pongo de Manasterice and Ponzis, its stream is confined in a narrow channel of about three leagues across. The water here is pure and well tasted, but very turbid and thick, owing to

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the number of trees and pieces of earth which it draws down with it in its course; and these impediments render its navigation here somewhat dangerous to canoes, although not so to the larger vessels, or piraguas, of the Portuguese. This river is navigable from the city of Jaen, in the kingdom of Quito, as far as its entrance into the sea, which is nearly its whole course. The climate of the countries that it irrigates, from the province of Yaguarsongo to its mouth, is hot, moist, and unhealthy, especially on its shores, which have also the disagreeable molestation of musquitoes of a thousand kinds, as well as of many other venomous insects.

The communication between the Spanish colonies on the borders of the river had always been attended with considerable difficulty and danger, on account of the pirates who infested the south and north seas, and intercepted their navigation. The galleons, richly laden with the treasures of Peru, &c. were captured in great numbers by these daring freebooters. Things were in this situation when an account of the successful attempts which had been made to explore the course of the Amazonas reached the court of Madrid, and gave rise to the project of transporting thither, by means of the numerous navigable rivers which flow into it, the riches of New Granada, Popayan, Quito, Peru, and Chili itself. After proceeding down the river, galleons were to be stationed in the harbour of Parí, in order to receive the treasures; and these being joined by the Brazil fleet, it was supposed they might navigate in security, in latitudes little known and frequented by these formidable pirates. The revolution, however, which placed the duke of Braganza on the throne of Portugal, put an end to these important projects.

The Orinoco, which rises from the lake Ipará, in Guiana, runs more than 600 leagues, receiving in its extended course an exceeding number of other rivers, which swell it to an amazing size, and it proceeds to empty itself into the sea, opposite the island of Trinidad, by seven different mouths, forming various isles, namely the Orotomecas, or Palomas, so called from a barbarous nation of Indiana of this name inhabiting them.

The Orinoco bears the name of Iscaute until it passes through the country of the Tames Indians, where it receives by the west side the rivers Papamene and Placencia, and acquires then the name of that district, which it changes at passing through the settlement of San Juan de Yema into that of Guayare, and then to that of Barragan, just below where it entered by the abundant stream of the Meta, and before it is joined by the Cazanarc, of equal size. It receives on the north side twelve large rivers, and several of less note; and, being rendered thus formidable, it at last becomes the Orinoco. Its shores and islands are inhabited by many barbarous nations of Indians, some of whom have been reduced to the Catholic faith by the Jesuits, who had founded some flourishing missions, until the year 1767; when, through their expulsion from the Spanish dominions, these Indians passed to the charge of the Capuchin fathers.

The Orinoco is navigable for more than 200 leagues for vessels of any size, and for canoes and small craft from its mouth as far Tunja, or San Juan de los Llanos. It abounds exceedingly in all kinds of fish; and on its shores, which are within the ecclesiastical government of the bishop of Puerto Rico, are forests covered with

a great variety of trees and woods, and inhabited by strange animals and rare birds; the plants, fruits, and insects being the same as those on the shores of the Maragón. This last-mentioned river communicates with the Orinoco by the river Negro, although this was a problem much disputed until acknowledged by the discovery made by the father Ramel Román, the Jesuit, in 1743.

The Orinoco has seven mouths, the principal of which was discovered by Columbus in 1498, and Diego de Ordez was the first who entered it, he having sailed up it in 1531. The soundings between Fort San Francisco de la Goiana and the channel of Limón is sixty-five fathoms, measured, in 1734, by the engineer Don Pablo Diaz Faxardo, and at the narrowest part it is more than eighty fathoms deep; in addition to which, in the months of August and September, the river is accustomed to rise twenty fathoms at the time of its swelling or overflow, which lasts for five months; and the natives have observed that it rises a yard higher every twenty-five years.

The flux and reflux of the sea is clearly distinguishable in this river for 160 leagues. In the part where it is narrowest stands a formidable rock, in the middle of the water, of forty yards high, and upon its top is a great tree, the head of which alone is never covered by the waters, and is very useful to mariners as a mark to guard against the rock. Such is the rapidity and force with which the waters of this river rush into the sea, that they remain pure and unconnected with the waters of the ocean far more than twenty leagues distance. Its principal mouth, called De Navios, is in N. lat. 8°, 9'.

There is a peculiar phenomenon in this river, namely, that it rises and falls once a year only; for it gradually rises during the space of five months, and then remains one month stationary; after which it falls for five months, and in that state continues for one month also. These alternate changes are regular, and even invariable. Perhaps the rising of the waters of the river may depend on the rains, which constantly fall in the mountains of the Andes every year about the month of April.

The river *La Plata* ranks in size next to the Maragón, and gives its name to some very extensive provinces to the south of Brazil. It was discovered by the pilot Juan Diaz de Solís, in 1515, who navigated it as far as a small island in S. lat. 34°, 23', 30", and who, having seen on the shores some Indian cabins, had the boldness to disembark with ten men; when they were all put to death by the native inhabitants. Five years afterwards there arrived here Sebastian Gaboto, who passed from the service of the English to that of the Spaniards, by the former of whom he was sent to the discovery of the strait of Magellan. But he, finding himself impeded in his views by an insurrection of his people, was under the necessity of entering the river *La Plata*: by this he navigated as far as the island discovered by Solís, to which he gave the name of San Gabriel. Seven leagues above this island he discovered a river called San Salvador, and another at 30 leagues distance, which the natives called Sarcana, where he built a fort, which he named the tower of Gaboto. He then pursued his voyage as far as the conflux of the rivers Paraná and Paraguay, and, leaving the former to the W. entered by the second,

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and had a battle with the Indians, in which he lost twenty-five men, but succeeded in routing the infidels, taking from them many valuables of silver, which these had brought from Peru; and he thus, supposing that there was an abundance of this metal in the territories washed by this river, called it *Rio la Plata* (river of silver), whereby it lost the name of *Solis*, first given it by the discoverer.

This river receives in its extensive course the waters of various other very considerable streams, so that it is accustomed to have such excessive high floods as to inundate the country for many leagues, fertilizing it, however, in the same manner as the Nile. When this rise occurs, the Indians take their families and effects, and retire to their canoes, where they live till the waters subside, and that they can return to their habitations. When it runs into the sea, its current, also, is so rapid and violent, that its waters, which are clear and salutary, maintain themselves sweet, without mixing with the waters of the ocean, for many leagues from its entrance. It abounds with an incredible multitude of fish, and on its shores are many most beautiful birds. The distance from the conflux of the Paraguay and Paraná to its mouth, is about 200 leagues by the course of the river, the whole space being filled with the most delightful islands, and being navigable for the largest vessels.

The country on either side of the river is most extensive and level, but so scantily supplied with fountains, lakes, or streams, as to render travelling very precarious. It produces every species of American and European fruit, as also grain and seeds, cotton, sugar, honey, &c. but what is its chief recommendation, is its excessively large breeds of cattle, inasmuch as it abounds in excellent pastures, from the llanuras extending for upwards of 200 leagues. The first heads of cattle brought from Europe have increased to such a degree, that it is impossible for any one to define those which belong to himself; from whence it arises that all are in common, and every one takes such as he may want, the number being so extraordinary, that, for lading all the vessels which come to Spain, many thousand animals are killed merely for the sake of their hides, the flesh being left to be devoured by the wild beasts and the birds of prey. Those who want milk, go out and profit by as many cows as they require, driving home with them the calves: nor is there a want of an equal abundance of horses which are common to all, with no other expence or trouble than that of catching them: the birds and animals of the chase are also equally numerous, and the partridges, which are as large as the hens of Europe, are not unfrequently knocked down with sticks. In short, there is nothing wanting in this country but salt and fuel: the first, however, is brought in vessels, and, for the second, large plantations of peach-trees are made, which, from the richness of the soil, produce extremely well.

This river is at its mouth about 60 leagues wide; being formed by the cape San Antonio on the S. part, and that of Santa Maria on the N. From thence, as far as Buenos Ayres, it preserves its name, being afterwards called the Paraná. Although, as we have before observed, it is, the whole of it, navigable, it has many shoals and rocks, on which many vessels have been wrecked, especially during the prevalence

of some very impetuous winds, which they here call *pamperos*; and which blow from W. to S.W., acquiring from the shore so much the greater force in proportion to the smallness of the obstacles they find to impede their course; for they sweep over llanuras of 200 leagues without being interrupted either by mountains or trees. On some occasions, though not very frequently, a regular hurricane takes place here; which, if it take its course along the river, no vessel can resist, but its masts are immediately snapped in twain, as has happened to some ships even when their top-masts and yard-arms were struck. In this river the storms are more frequent than at sea. It lavas the cities of Buenos Ayres, the colony of Sacramento, which belongs to the Portuguese, and Monte Video. It has some very good ports, and its mouth is in S. lat. 35° 30'.

The fine river *Paraguay*, has its remote springs to the W. of the heads of the *Arimas*, in lat 13°, and after a S. course of 600 leagues, enters the ocean under the appellation of the *Rio de la Plata*. The heads of the Paraguay are 270 miles N. E. from Villa Bella, and 164 miles N. from Cuaiaba, and divided into many branches, already forming complete rivers, which, as they run S. successively unite, and form the channel of this immense river, which is immediately navigable. In the upper part of this river, and near its W. branch, called the *Jarabamba*, was formerly a gold-mine, which was worked with considerable profit.

The confluence of the *Jauru* with the Paraguay is a *Jauru* point of much importance: it guards and covers the great road between Villa Bella, Cuaiaba, and their intermediate establishments, and in the same manner commands the navigation of both rivers, and defends the entrance into the interior of the latter captainship. The Paraguay from this place has a free navigation upwards, almost to its sources, which are about 70 leagues distant, with no other impediment than a large fall. These sources are said to contain diamonds.

Between the Paraguay and the Paraná there runs Paraná from N. to S. an extensive chain of mountains, which have the appellation of *Amambay*; they terminate to the S. of the river *Iguatiny*, forming a ridge running S. and W. called *Maracaver*. From these mountains spring all the rivers which, from the *Tsquari* S. enter the Paraguay, and from the same chain also proceed many other rivers, which, taking a contrary direction, flow into the Paraná; one of them, and the most S. being the *Iguatiny*, which has its mouth in lat. 23°, 47', a little above the Seven Falls, or the wonderful cataract of the Paraná. This cataract is a most sublime spectacle, being distinguished to the eye of the spectator from below by the appearance of six rainbows, and emitting from its fall a constant cloud of vapours, which impregnates the air to a great distance.

From the river *Xerxy* downwards, the *Paraguay Xerxy* takes its general course S. for 32 leagues to the city of Assumption, the capital of Paraguay, and the residence of its governor. This city is situated on an obtuse angle made by the E. bank of the river; the population is by no means trifling, and there are some Portuguese among the inhabitants. The government is of vast extent, and its total population is given by different authorities at from 97,000 to 120,000 souls. Eleven leagues to the S. of Coimbra, on the W. side of the Paraguay, is the mouth of *Bahia Negra*, a large sheet

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Apure, &c.

of water of six leagues in extent, being five leagues long from N. to S. : it receives the waters of the wide-flooded plains and lands to the S. and W. of the mountains of Albuquerque. At this bay the Portuguese possessions on both banks of the Paraguay terminate.

To the above rivers we may add the names, although our limits will not permit an equally diffuse description, of the *Juncos*, a river giving the name to that captainship, in Brazil, being so called from its being discovered on the first of January, 1516, and which forms a large and convenient bay, much frequented by merchant vessels; the *Apure*, which, after running 300 leagues through the kingdom of Granada, enters, by three mouths, into the Orinoco, with such force that the latter resigns its current to the influence of the *Apure* for upwards of a league; the *Paraná* running 300 leagues through the province of Paraguay, for upwards of 125 leagues of which it is navigable; the *Negro*, also tributary to the Orinoco, which it enters at a disembogement a league and a half wide; the *Valdivia*, in the kingdom of Chili, which is so large, clear, and deep, that vessels of the greatest burden come close up to the city, three leagues from its mouth; the *Bubio*, and the *Maule*, both in the kingdom of Chili, whose shores abound no less in natural curiosities, and in gold and silver minerals, than they are noted for the famous battles fought between the Spaniards, and the native Araucanians, both of whom have still several forts remaining on their banks. In the *Maule* is found a clay as white as snow, smooth and greasy to the touch, extremely fine, and sprinkled with brilliant specks. It is found on the borders of rivers and brooks in the province of Maule, in strata which run deep into the ground; and its surface, when seen at a distance, has the appearance of ground covered with snow, and is so unctuous and slippery that it is almost impossible to walk upon it without falling. It does not effervesce with acids, and instead of losing in the fire any portion of its shining whiteness, it acquires a slight degree of transparency. It is believed to be very analogous to the kaolin of the Chinese; and that, combined with fusible spar, of which there are great quantities in the same province, it would furnish an excellent porcelain.

Deserts.

DESERTS.—The deserts of South America are vast and numerous, and are commonly known under the titles of *paramos*, *llanos*, and *savannahs*. The former are dreary wastes, consisting of table lands, resting upon mountains, several of them of greater altitude than the highest mountains of the Old World; the *llanos* are plains of the level country, of many leagues in extent, and with the *savannahs*, are sometimes entirely barren and sandy, and sometimes in part covered with the rankest vegetation, particularly on the verge of the valleys or ravines. These deserts are common to every part of South America, and there is no province without them. Those in the neighbourhood of Caracas and of La Plata are the most extensive. In the latter, the traveller will sometimes see large flocks of cattle, of all descriptions, hurrying to some distant lake, to which they are led by instinct, to quench their parching thirst, and with such force do the poor animals plunge into the water, that those who arrive first are sure to be drowned, being so pressed upon by those that follow, that they cannot regain the shore; so that it is no unusual sight to see the borders of these lakes completely whitened with their bones.

LAKES.—The lakes of this country are rather larger than numerous; for the waters that are so called by geographers are, many of them, nothing but overflows of the immense rivers with which this continent is intersected, appearing in the winter, and being perfectly dried in the summer, when they form many of the *savannahs* of which we have just spoken. Amongst the regular and more important lakes, however, we shall particularize the following:

The lake of *Maracibo* took its title from a cacique Maracibo, of this name, who was living at the time of the entrance of the Spaniards. It is about 132 miles long from N. to S. and 90 wide at the broadest part, though Coletti reduces it to 33, and is formed by many rivers. This fresh-water gulf is navigated by frigates, hulanders, and other vessels; and even the largest might plough through the bottom, if the bar at the entrance would permit. In it are two small islands, the one called *De las Palomas*, the other *De la Virgen*. In the high sea-tides the waters of the gulf of Venezuela enter this lake, and then they are somewhat brackish. Its first discoverer was Bartholomew Sailer, a German, lieutenant of the General Ambrosio de Alfinger, who entered it in 1529, and who, from having found a number of houses built in the same manner as they are at Venice, gave it the name of Venezuela, a title which was afterwards extended to the whole of the province. At the present day there are not more than four very small settlements; and the beams of timber on which the houses are built are converted into stone as far as they are immersed in the water.

The extraordinary lake of *Valencia* is of an oblong form, and, although receiving the waters of twenty rivers, has no visible outlet. It has been diminishing for twenty years, and its waters are still receding, leaving behind them a rich and productive soil, but an unhealthy air; and the cultivators are, in some parts, under the necessity, from the want of water, of draining off the neighbouring streams to irrigate their plantations. The eastern side is laid out in tobacco-grounds, which occupy 15,000 people, who are paid by the crown. The water is thick, and nauseous to drink.

The lake of *Parime*, in Guianá, is an oblong sheet of water, 100 miles long and 50 broad, in an island of which is a rock of glittering mica, celebrated as having been the seat of El Dorado, a supposititious city, the streets of which were paved with gold, alluded to by Milton in his *Paradise Lost*.

CLIMATE.—The climate of this extensive country is Climate of course variable, according to the relative situation of the vast regions of which it is composed. It is, however, for the most part, except in the mountainous regions, of a mild and benign temperature, though the mighty influence of such a chain of snow-clad heights as the Andes and their branches has contributed to render it, upon the whole, colder than parallel latitudes in the west. In Peru, the Andes mountains being on one side and the South sea on the other, it is not so hot as tropical countries in general; and in some parts it is disagreeably cold. In one part are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, having their summits covered with snow; on the other, volcanoes flaming within, while their summits, chasms, and apertures, are involved in ice. The plains are temperate, the beaches and valleys hot; and lastly, according to the disposition of the country, its high or

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low situation, we find all the variety of gradations of temperature between the two extremes of heat and cold. It is remarkable that in some places it never rains, which defect is supplied by a dew that falls every night, and sufficiently refreshes the vegetable creation; but in Quito there have prodigious rains, attended by dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The city of Lima, though very healthy and pleasant, is infested by swarms of flies and mosquitoes all the year round. The infirmities most frequently experienced here are putrid fevers and convulsions, which are called *pasmus* and *encuro*. It is very subject to earthquakes, by which it has been frequently destroyed: the strangest of these occurred in the following years, viz. in 1582, 1586, 1609, 1630, 1655, 1578, 1687, 1690, 1697, 1699, 1716, 1725, 1734, 1743, 1746; and in this last, in particular, it was completely demolished.

The maximum height of Reaumur's thermometer, in the province of Cumana, is 27° , the minimum 17° , in the month of July. In the paramos alone some change is to be perceived; for the coldness which generally reigns there is increased by the winds, although the summer in which these paramos are affected, and what may be considered the peculiar characteristic of their climate, is a dense cloud, which almost constantly envelops them, and which, when it happens to fall in the shape of small hail, snow, or mist, makes them so insufferably cold as to render life precarious. With all this, however, in the parts in which there are no paramos, and where the wind is moderate, and the rays of the sun can penetrate the earth, the climate is very supportable.

The temperature of Caracas does not at all correspond with its latitude; for, instead of insupportable heat, which, it would appear, ought to reign so near the equator, it, on the contrary, enjoys an almost perpetual spring. It owes this advantage to its elevation, which is 460 fathoms above the level of the sea. Thus, although the sun has the power usual in such a latitude, the elevated situation of Caracas counterbalances its influence. The transitions from heat to cold are great and sudden, from whence numerous diseases arise, the most common of which are colds, called by the Spaniards *catarrhos*.

Height of Fahrenheit's thermometer at Caracas.

In the winter.

Generally at 6 A. M.	58°
2 P. M.	73
10 P. M.	68
The maximum	76
The minimum	52

In the summer.

Generally at 6 A. M.	72°
2 P. M.	79
10 P. M.	75
Maximum	85
Minimum	69

Humidity, according to the hydrometer of Du Rue.

Generally	47
Maximum	58
Minimum	37

The mercury, which rises in the most southern parts of Europe, and in the variations of the atmosphere, to

$\frac{1}{10}$ ths of the Paris inch, ascends only $\frac{2}{10}$ ths in the eastern parts of Terra Firma. They observe at Caracas, in all seasons, four small atmospheric variations every twenty-four hours; two in the day, and two in the night.

Blue of the skies by the cyanometer of Saussure.

Generally 18

Oxygen and nitrogen gas.—Of 100 parts, 28 of oxygen and 72 of nitrogen.

The maximum of the first is 29

The minimum 27 $\frac{1}{2}$

Variation of the needle.

Sept. 17th, 1799 4° , 38', 45'.Inclination of the dipping needle.—Generally $43^{\circ} 15'$.

Oscillation of the pendulum: in 15 minutes, 1270 oscillations.

For climate, Chili is one of the best countries in America, perhaps in the world. Though bordering on the torrid zone, it never feels the extremity of heat, being secured on the E. by the Andes, and refreshed from the W. by cooling sea-breezes. The seasons succeed each other regularly, and are sufficiently marked, although the transition from cold to heat is very moderate. The spring in Chili commences, as in all the countries of the southern hemisphere, on the 22d September, the summer in December, the autumn in March, and the winter in June. From the beginning of spring until autumn, there is, throughout Chili, a constant succession of fine weather, particularly between the 24° and 36° of latitude; but in the islands, which for the most part are covered with woods, the rains are very frequent, even in summer. The rainy season on the continent usually commences in April, and continues until the end of August. These rains are never accompanied with storms of hail, and thunder is scarcely known in the country, particularly in places at a distance from the Andes, where, even in summer, it is seldom ever heard. Lightning is wholly unknown in the province of Chili: and although, in the above-mentioned mountains, and near the sea, storms occasionally arise, yet they, according to the direction of the wind, pass over, and take their course to the N. or S. In the maritime provinces snow is never seen. In those nearer the Andes, it falls about once in five years; sometimes not so often, and the quantity very trifling. The north and northerly winds, before they arrive at Chili, cross the torrid zone, and there becoming loaded with vapours, bring with them heat and rain. This heat is, however, very moderate, and it would seem that these winds, in crossing the Andes, which are constantly covered with snow, become qualified, and lose much of their heat and unhealthy properties. In Tucuman and Cojo, where they are known by the name of *sonda*, they are much more incommensurable, and are more suffocating than even the siroc in Italy. The south winds, coming immediately from the antarctic pole, are cold and dry; these are usually from the S. W., and prevail in Chili during the time that the sun is in the southern hemisphere; they blow constantly towards the equator, the atmosphere being at that period highly rarefied, and no adverse current of air opposing itself to their course: as they disperse the vapours, and drive them towards the Andes, it rains but seldom during their continuance. The

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clouds collected upon these mountains, uniting with those which come from the north, occasion very heavy rains, accompanied with thunder, in all the provinces beyond the Andes, particularly in those of Tucuman and Cuyo, while, at the same time, the atmosphere of Chili is constantly clear, and its inhabitants enjoy their finest season. The contrary takes place in winter, which is the fine season in these provinces, and the rainy in Chili. The south wind never continues blowing during the whole day with the same force; as the sun approaches the meridian, it falls very considerably, and rises again in the afternoon. At noon, when this wind is scarcely perceptible, a fresh breeze is felt from the sea, which continues about two or three hours; the husbandmen give it the name of the twelve o'clock breeze, or the countryman's watch, as it serves to regulate them in determining that hour. This sea-breeze returns regularly at midnight, and is supposed to be produced by the tide; it is stronger in autumn, and sometimes accompanied with hail. The east winds rarely prevail in Chili, their course being obstructed by the Andes. Hurricanes, so common in the Antilles, are unknown here; there exists, indeed, a solitary example of hurricane, which, in 1633, did much injury to the fortress of Caremalpo, in the south part of Chili. The mild temperature which Chili almost always enjoys must depend entirely upon the succession of these winds, as a situation so near the tropic would naturally expose it to a more violent degree of heat. In addition to these, the tide, the abundant dews, and certain winds from the Andes, which are distinct from the east winds, cool the air so much in summer, that in the shade no one is ever incommoded with perspiration. The dress of the inhabitants of the sea-coast is the same in the winter as in the summer; and in the interior, where the heat is more perceptible than elsewhere, Reaumur's thermometer scarcely ever exceeds 25°. The nights, throughout the country, are generally of a very agreeable temperature. Notwithstanding the moderate heat of Chili, all the fruits of warm countries, and even those of the tropics, arrive to great perfection there, which renders it probable that the warmth of the soil far exceeds that of the atmosphere. The countries bordering on the E. of Chili do not enjoy these refreshing winds; the air there is suffocating, and as oppressive as in Africa under the same latitude.

Meteors are very frequent in Chili, especially those called shooting stars, which are to be seen there almost the whole year; also balls of fire, that usually rise from the Andes, and fall into the sea. The aurora australis, on the contrary, is very uncommon; that which was observed in 1640 was one of the largest; it was visible, from the accounts that have been left us, from the month of February until April. During the last century they have appeared at four different times. This phenomenon is more frequently visible in the Archipelago of Chiloe, from the greater elevation of the pole in that part of the country.

The greatest volcanic eruption ever known in Chili was that of Peteroa, which happened on the 3d of December, 1760, when that volcano formed itself a new crater, and a neighbouring mountain was rent asunder for many miles in extent; the eruption was accompanied by a dreadful explosion, which was heard throughout the whole country; fortunately it was not

succeeded by any very violent shocks of an earthquake. The quantity of lava and ashes was so great that it filled the neighbouring valleys, and occasioned a rise of the waters of the Tinguera, which continued for many days. At the same time the course of the Lontue, a very considerable river, was impeded for ten days, by a part of the mountain which fell and filled its bed; the water at length forced itself a passage, overflowed all the neighbouring plains, and formed a lake which still remains. In the whole of the country not included in the Andes, there are but two volcanoes; the first, situate at the mouth of the river Rapel, is small, and discharges only a little smoke from time to time; the second is the great volcano of Villarrica, in the country of Arauco. This volcano may be seen at the distance of 150 miles; and although it appears to be insulated, it is said to be connected by its base with the Andes. The summit of the mountain is covered with snow, and is in a constant state of eruption; it is 14 miles in circumference at its base, which is principally covered with pleasant forests; a great number of rivers derive their sources from it, and its perpetual verdure furnishes a proof that its eruptions have never been very violent.

The inhabitants usually calculate three or four earthquakes at Chili annually, but they are very slight, and little attention is paid to them. The great earthquakes happen but rarely, and of these not more than five have occurred in a period of 244 years, from the arrival of the Spaniards to the present period, 1818. From a course of accurate observations, it has been ascertained that earthquakes never occur unexpectedly in this country, but are always announced by a hollow sound proceeding from a vibration of the air; and as the shocks do not succeed each other rapidly, the inhabitants have sufficient time to provide for their safety. They have, however, in order to secure themselves at all events, built their cities in a very judicious manner; the streets are left so broad that the inhabitants would be safe in the middle of them, should even the houses fall upon both sides. In addition to this, all the houses have spacious courts and gardens, which would serve as places of refuge; those who are wealthy have usually in their gardens several neat wooden barnacks, where they pass the night whenever they are threatened with an earthquake. Under these circumstances, the Chileans live without apprehension, especially as the earthquakes have never been hitherto attended with any considerable sinking of the earth, or falling of buildings; this is probably owing to subterraneous passages communicating with the volcanoes of the Andes, which are so many vent-holes for the inflamed substances, and serve to counteract their effects. Were it not for the number of these volcanoes, Chili would, in all probability, be rendered uninhabitable.

What has been said of the climate of Chili can in no great measure apply to that of the eastern parts of the continent, namely, of Buenos Ayres and Monte Video; for here the weather is generally more humid, and, in the winter months (June, July, and August), it is at times boisterous, and the air keen and piercing. In summer, also, the serenity of the atmosphere is frequently interrupted by tremendous thunder-storms, preceded by dreadful lightning, which frequently damages the shipping, and followed by heavy rain, which sometimes destroys the harvest. The heat is trouble-

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Mines.

some, and is rendered more so to strangers by the swarms of mosquitoes, which it engenders in such numbers that they infest every apartment.

MINES.—By far the greater part of the precious metals used in the world are brought from America, and, with the exception of those from the mines of Mexico, almost all from the southern continent. It is impossible to give any adequate description of the treasures of these mines: many of them are inexhaustible; on the other hand, many hundreds have ceased to be worked on account of the want of quicksilver, and from their being filled with water. The former objection is, in a great measure, owing to the government monopolies, and the latter is likely to be overcome by the enterprising spirit of European capitalists, who, in one or two instances, have already sent over steam-engines of moderate power, which have effectually drained the pits, and afforded a lucrative return to the projectors.

The Spanish government has at all times, since the discovery of this country, derived its principal resources from these metals, and to secure itself in the undivided enjoyment of them, it has passed the most rigid laws, and prevented, as far as possible, all intercourse of the nations with foreign powers. The annual produce of the mines of New Granada, as calculated from the amount of the royal duties, and therefore considerably under the truth, amounts to 18,000 Spanish marks of pure gold, and very few of silver; the value in dollars is 2,624,760, the gold being estimated at 145 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollars, and the silver at 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollars the Spanish mark. Besides this we must add for contraband 1,735,340 dollars, and the total produce will then be 4,360,000.

In the northern parts of Peru, are the famous mines of Potosi, several of them of gold, but those of silver are found all over the country. The mines of Potosi are chiefly of silver, and never did nature afford to the avidity of man, in any country on the globe, such endless sources of wealth. These mines were accidentally discovered in the year 1545, in this manner: An Indian, named Hualpa, one day following some deer, which made directly up the hill of Potosi, came to a steep, craggy part of the hill, and the better to enable him to climb up, laid hold of a shrub, which came up by the roots, and laid open a mass of silver ore. He for some time kept it a secret, but afterwards revealed it to his friend Guanca, who, because he would not discover to him the method of refining it, acquainted the Spaniard his master, named Valaruel, with the discovery. Valaruel registered the mine in 1545; and from that time till 1638, these mines of Potosi had yielded 95,619,000 pieces of eight, which is about 4,255,000 pieces a year.

But the annual sum derived from these mines, according to the latest accounts, and as calculated from the produce of the royal duties, and therefore considerably under the truth, amounts to 3,400 Spanish marks of pure gold, and 513,000 ditto of pure silver. The value in dollars of both is 5,317,988; the gold being estimated at 145 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollars, and the silver at 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ dollars the Spanish mark. Besides this, we must add for contraband 922,012 dollars; and the total produce will then be 6,240,000. The following will show what has been the increasing amount of the produce of these mines of late years.

Coinage of Potosi.

Gold.	Value in Dollars.	Reals.	Silver.	Dollars.	Reals.	S. AME. RICA.	Geographi- cal details.
Annual average from							
1780 to 1790,	-	257,247	1	3,960,010	7		
Coinage of 1791,	-	257,526	0	4,365,175	0		
Coinage of 1801,	-	481,278	0	7,700,448	0		

The first person who examined this mine was Thomas Valaruel, in the year of its discovery. The mountain is three miles in circumference, and 6,000 Castilian yards high above the level of the sea, as it was measured by Don Luis Godin, of the academy of the sciences of Paris. It is of a sharp conical figure, and resembles a great pavilion. In the interior it is nearly hollow, from the excavations which have been made for so many years, and on the exterior it appears like an ant-hill, from the multitude of mounds by which it is entered.

The silver-mines of Equilache, in Peru, are so rich, that the bishop's yearly dues from the labourers amounted to 14,000 dollars; and one of the thirty-six which lay close together in that neighbourhood, was not long since sold for no less a consideration than a rent of 1,040 dollars a day. These mines are nevertheless but half worked for want of mechanical power, though great quantities of silver are, in fact, extracted from them. Alcedo observes, that if these mines were to be emptied of their water, they would, without doubt, yield twenty times as much ore as is usually produced from them. In Chili, there are mines of silver, copper, lead, sulphur, white limon and salt, but the most abundant of all are those of copper: large quantities of this metal having been sent to Spain for founding artillery, and, indeed, from the same source has been made all the artillery in this kingdom. This metal is found of two sorts, one which is called campanel, and is only fit for founding, and the other, which has a mixture of gold, and is called de labrar, or working metal, and which is known only in this province.

In the province of Santiago are some mines that can only be worked in the summer months, namely, December, January, February, and March; but in the winter time the rains and snow, and severity of the weather, force the labourers to desist.

Twenty leagues from the capital is the great mine of Kempú: some of the metals of which are founded, and some otherwise prepared; but the working of this mine is not well established, notwithstanding it has sixteen veins. Further towards the S. is another mine, named Maipo, the metals of which are lowered down by engines from a very lofty mountain, discovered more than 100 years ago, and called San Simon; and here also are the mines of De San Pedro Nolasco, which render a considerable portion of massy silver. On the N. part, by the mountains of the carasy of Colina, are found thirty-four gold-mines, which are actually worked, independently of 200 others, which are also worked. Besides these mines, there are five lavaderos, or washing-places, in the mountain of Guindo, and some other veins in the old asiento of Tdtit. The top of Calen is covered with lavaderos of the richest gold.

The total amount furnished by the mines of Spanish America, annually, in gold and silver, may be reckoned as follows: viz. by

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	£ sterling.
New Spain	5,030,800
New Granada	507,000
Peru and Chili	1,730,000
Buenos Ayres, or La Plata	882,000

Making a total of £ 8,149,800

to which may be added more than another million for the contraband trade.

It was not till after the expulsion of the Dutch, that the Portuguese began to be aware of the riches they possessed in their mines. The minister of Portugal well knew the utility that would be derived to his country by the territories of this kingdom being well allotted and cultivated; and that by establishing the capital in the bay of Todos Santos, it would be extremely convenient and central for the purposes of commerce; but the rigour and cruelty with which the first founders treated the poor Indians were a sufficient obstacle against his bringing about his laudable designs. The mustees, who are the descendants of the Spaniards and the natives, having kept on good terms with both parties, were the means by which all things were brought to a mutual reconciliation. The government was then vested in some priests of acknowledged virtue: these immediately scattered themselves over the whole coast, founding settlements, and penetrating into the interior; they first discovered the different gold-mines, which have been since worked to such prodigious emolument; as also the mines of diamonds, topazes, and other precious stones. The mines of Cuiaba have been worked since the year 1740, and yielded great quantities of gold.

Formerly Bahia de Todos Santos, or the bay of All Saints, was the principal seat of the government, and chief mart of the commerce of Brazil; but the discovery of the gold and diamond mines, within a short distance of Rio de Janeiro, and communicating directly with it, has given a decided superiority to the latter. The manner in which the former of these were discovered is differently related; but the most common account is, that the Indians on the back of the Portuguese settlements were observed to make use of gold for their fish-hooks; and inquiry being made as to their manner of procuring this metal, it appeared that considerable quantities of it were annually washed from the mountains and left among the gravel and sand that remained in the vallies, after the running off or evaporation of the water. From the time of this discovery, considerable quantities of gold were imported into Europe from Brazil; and these imports have gradually augmented, since new mines have been wrought in many of the other provinces. The extraction of this precious metal is neither very laborious nor attended with the smallest danger in this part of the New World. The purest sort is generally found near the surface of the soil, though it is sometimes necessary to dig for it to the depth of three or four fathoms. It is usually incumbent on a bed of sandy earth, termed by the natives *sabão*. Though, for the most part, the veins that are regular and run in the same direction, are the richest, it has been observed that those spaces, the surface of which was most spangled with crystals, were those which furnished the greatest plenty of gold. It is found in larger pieces on the

mountains and barren or stony rocks than in the vallies or on the banks of rivers. But in whatever place it may have been gathered, it is of 23 carats on coming out of the mine, unless it be mixed with sulphur, silver, iron, or mercury; a circumstance that rarely occurs, except at Goyas and Araés.

Every man who discovered a mine was obliged to give notice of it to the government. If it was conceived to be of little consequence by those persons appointed to examine its value, it was always given up to the public; but if, on the contrary, it was found to be a rich vein, the government never failed to reserve a portion of it for themselves. Another share was given to the commandant; a third to the intendand; and two shares were awarded to the discoverers: the remainder was divided amongst the miners of the district, in proportion to their circumstances, which were determined by the number of their slaves. The disputes to which this species of property gave rise fell under the cognizance of the intendand, with the right of appeal from his decrees to the supreme court established at Lisbon, under the title of council d'outremer.

It is said that a slender vein of this metal runs through the whole country, at about twenty-four feet from the surface; but it is too thin and poor to answer the expense of digging. Gold is always, however, to be collected in the beds of rivers which have pursued the same course for a considerable time; and, therefore, to be able to divert a stream from its usual channel is esteemed an infallible source of gain.

The employment of searching the bottoms of rivers and torrents, and washing the gold from the mud and sand, is principally performed by slaves, who are chiefly negroes, of whom the Portuguese keep great numbers for that purpose. By a particular regulation, these slaves are obliged to furnish their master every day with the eighth part of an ounce of gold; and if, by their industry or good fortune, they collect a larger quantity, the surplus is considered as their own property, and they are allowed to dispose of it as they think fit; by which means, some negroes have, it is said, purchased slaves of their own, and lived in great splendour; their original master having no other demand upon them than the daily supply of an eighth of an ounce, which amounts to about nine shillings sterling; the Portuguese ounce being somewhat lighter than our troy ounce.

The proprietors of the mines paid to the king of Portugal, as above-mentioned, a fifth part of the gold which they extracted by operations more or less successful; and this fifth of the gold obtained from all the mines in Brazil was estimated, at an average, to amount annually to about 300,000*l.* sterling; consequently the whole capital must be nearly 1,500,000*l.* sterling. If we add to this the gold exchanged with the Spaniards for silver, and what was privately brought to Europe without paying the duty, which amounted to 500,000*l.* more, the annual produce of the Brazilian mines was about 2,000,000*l.* sterling; an immense sum to be found in a country which a few years ago was not known to produce a single grain.

Among the many impediments thrown in the way of trade, may be ranked the prohibition which prevented the people of Brazil from working up the gold of their own mines. Even the tools and instruments used by

S. AME-
RICA.
*Geographical
and statistical.*

S. AMERICA.

Geographical details.

the artificers for such purposes, were seized and confiscated by the strong hand of arbitrary power.

It was only about the beginning of the last century that diamonds made a part of the exports from Brazil to Europe. These valuable stones are, like the gold, found frequently in the beds of rivers and torrents. Before they were supposed to be of any value, they were often perceived in washing the gold, and were consequently thrown away with the sand and gravel; and numbers of large stones, that would have enriched the possessors, passed unregarded through the hands of several persons wholly ignorant of their nature.

The diamonds sent from the New to the Old World were enclosed in a casket with three locks, the keys of which were separately put into the hands of the chief members of administration; and those keys were deposited in another casket, to which was affixed the viceroy's seal. While the exclusive privilege subsisted, this precious deposit, on its arrival in Europe, was remitted to government, which, according to a settled regulation, retained the very scarce diamonds, which exceeded twenty carats, and delivered every year, for the profit of the company, to one, or to several contractors united, 40,000 carats, at prices which have successively varied. An engagement was made on one hand to receive that quantity; and on the other not to distribute any more; and whatever might be the produce of the mines, which necessarily varied, the contract was faithfully adhered to.

Before the recent changes in the Portuguese government, that court threw 60,000 carats of diamonds into trade, which was monopolized by a single merchant, who paid for them at the rate of about 1*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* per carat, amounting in the whole to 130,000*l.* sterling. The contraband trade in this article is said, by persons competent to form a just estimate on the subject, to have amounted to a tenth more; so that the produce of these mines, the riches of which have been so much boasted of, did not exceed annually 143,000*l.* The rough diamonds used to be purchased from the merchants in Lisbon, and other places in Portugal, by the English and the Dutch, who, after cutting and polishing them with more or less perfection, disposed of what remained, after supplying the demand of their own countries, to other nations of Europe. In the diamond and mine districts are found, between the parasitic stones, some very imperfect amethysts and topazes; as also sapphires and emeralds, and some fine chrysothetes. Jacinths or granites are sometimes discovered in the interstices of talc, or micaceous stones; these, as well as some other precious stones, never having been subjected to a monopoly like diamonds; those who discovered them were at perfect liberty to dispose of them in the manner they deemed most conducive to their interest.

The annual exportation of these stones from Janeiro, and some of the other ports, seldom exceeded 6,250*l.* for which the government received a duty of one per cent. amounting in the whole to the trifling sum of 62*l.* 10*s.* sterling. Mines of iron, sulphur, antimony, tin, lead, and quick silver, are likewise found in this and other provinces of Brazil; but the pursuit of gold has too much diverted the attention of the colonists from more useful speculations. It was long supposed that copper had been withheld by nature from this vast and fruitful region of the new hemisphere; but later

researches have shown this to be an unfounded suspicion. In Rio de Janeiro there exists a rich and copious mine of cupreous pyrites (pyrites cupri); one cwt. of this mineral yields 25*lbs.* of pure copper. Similar mines of this metal have also been discovered in Minas Geraes, and other districts.

§ III. Political and Moral State of South America.

Amongst the inhabitants of South America, and more particularly amongst the Peruvians and all classes of the European Spaniards, pride and laziness are said to be the predominant passions. Avarice may, likewise, be attributed to them with a great deal of propriety. The Indians and negroes are forbidden, under the severest penalties, to intermarry; for division between these two classes is the greatest instrument in which the Spaniards trust for the preservation of the colonies.

The INDIAN TRIBES that have not been reduced into settlements by the different missionaries, are said to maintain their original character in the highest degree. They are described as valorous and hardy, but cruel, stupid, and faithless, and incapable of being reduced under the laws of civil society. Several attempts appear to have been made to better the moral condition of the Indians of Durien, but they were as often drawn back to their idolatrous ways, and retired into their native mountains. They live by fishing and the chase, in which latter they are very dexterous, and extremely skilful in the use of the bow and arrow: their bows are made of a very strong but flexible kind of wood, called chonta; and their arrows of a species of light cane called viruli, the point being of fish-bones, or of the same chonta roasted or burnt. Their favourite food is the flesh of monkeys, and there are an incredible variety of these animals here. They are much addicted to inebriety and sensual gratifications; for the former, they make use of a kind of drink called mazato, which is a fermentation of maize and plantains: they go almost naked, and wear only a cloth which serves to cover them in front, and which they call panecuin. They all deck themselves for dress-ornaments with some small golden rings pendant from the nose, the gristle of which is bored for this purpose directly after their children are born: no less care is observed in cultivating the growth of the hair, and of permitting it to flow down unconfined. The women adorn both their legs and arms with strings of coral, beads of glass and of gold. The priests, who are called leres, and to whom singular respect is shown, paint their faces of various colours, making incisions to insert the bitumen that they use, and which never leaves them, but renders them for ever after horrible and deformed. It has been affirmed by some that these priests have communication with the devil, and that they are, upon this account, confirmed in their unnatural and heathen customs.

When the Spaniards entered Cuzco, one of the chief Peruvian cities of Peru, they were astonished by the grandeur and magnificence of the edifices, of the fortress, and the temple of the sun; and upon their entering the city, in 1534, when the same was taken possession of by Don Francisco Pizarro, for Charles V., it was then the capital of the whole empire of Peru, and the residence of the emperors. Its streets were large, wide, and straight; though, at the present day, Lima stands in

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

The Indian tribes.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

competition with it in regard to grandeur. The houses are almost all built of stone, and of fine proportions. The cathedral, which has the title of La Asuncion, is large, beautiful, rich, and of very good architecture, and has been thought even superior to the cathedral of Lima.

The great fortress bears testimony to the powers of the Incas, and excites astonishment in the mind of every beholder, since the stones, so vast and shapeless, and of so irregular a superficies, are knit together, and laid one to fit into the other, with such nicety as to want no mortar or other material whereby to fill up the interstices; and it is indeed difficult to imagine how they could work them in this manner, when it is considered that they knew not the use of iron, steel, or machinery for the purpose. The other remarkable things are the baths; the one of warm and the other of cold water; the ruins of a large stone-way, which was built by order of the Incas, and which reached as far as where Lima now stands; the vestiges of some subterraneous passages which led to the fortress from the houses or palaces of the Incas, and in which passages the walls were cut very crooked, admitting, for a certain space, only one person to pass at a time, and this sideways, and with great difficulty, when shortly afterwards two might pass abreast. The exit was by a rock, worked in the same narrow manner, on the other side; and this was altogether a plan adopted through prudence, and for the better security against any sudden assault, since here a single man might defend himself against a great number.

Lima.

Lima, which may well be considered the emporium of the New World, is large, populous, rich, handsome, and superior to all the cities of South America. It was founded on the 6th of January, 1535, by Don Francisco Pizarro, marquis de los Charcas y Atavillos. The Emperor Charles V. gave it the title of Royal City, on the 7th of December, 1537; and for arms a shield, with three crowns of gold on an azure field, and above a star, with this motto, "*Hoc Signum vere Regum est*," and for supporters two crowned eagles, and on their heads a J and a C, initials of the name of Jane and Charles. It is also called the city of Los Reyes (the kings), in memory of the day of its foundation, and to whom it was dedicated, and to which the three crowns on the shield have an allusion. It is situate in an extensive llanura, called the Valley of Rimac; and from a corruption of the spelling we have its present name, Lima. On the N. it is washed by the river of the same name; and over this is a beautiful stone bridge of five arches, built by order of the viceroy, the marquis of Montes Claros. The plaza mayor is square and large; the buildings surrounding the same are magnificent, and in the midst is a large brass fountain, made with great taste, and at the order of the viceroy, the count of Salvatierra. The episcopal palace is the loftiest and finest structure: the cathedral is of handsome architecture, and was finished building on the 8th of December, 1758. This city is of a triangular figure, and the part facing the river is two-thirds of a league long. It is surrounded by a mud-wall, with 346 balustrades, the work of the viceroy, the duke of Plata, and executed by the engineer Peter Ramon, a Fleming, in 1685. The streets are wide, although the houses are low, to guard against mischief in earthquakes; these are, however, of comely appearance, convenient in their in-

VOL. XVII.

terior, and richly adorned, having, almost all of them, gardens and orchards attached. The city is divided into five parishes, besides two other churches, where there is a priest, who acts also as a parish priest, and another parish of Indians in the Cercado, with the title of Santiago, administered formerly by the Jesuits. It has nineteen convents of religious orders, nine public hospitals, and an university with the title of San Marcos, founded in 1549, by the bull of Pius V., having the same privileges as the university of Salamanca; also another royal college, founded by the viceroy of Toledo; a tridentine seminary; and a beautiful college, with a house of retirement for noble families. In this metropolis resides the viceroy, who is president of the tribunal of the royal audience founded in 1544, also of the consulate of commerce, founded in 1613.

The pontiff Paul erected it into a bishopric in 1539, and three years afterwards it was raised into an archbishopric, and in 1571 declared a metropolitan, having been previously suffragan to the archbishopric of Sevilla. Its titular was San Juan Evangelista, to distinguish it from that of Cuzco, which has the titular of La Asuncion, the same that was given to it by Francisco Pizarro. The tribunal of the inquisition was erected in 1570, with a jurisdiction extending as far as the river Mayo, which divides the kingdom of Quito from the Nuevo Reyno de Granada, where the jurisdiction of the tribunal of Carthagen commences. Here are also the tribunal of the holy crusade, established in 1574; the treasury, founded in 1607; and the royal mint, in 1565, and translated to Potosi in 1570, but afterwards re-established in 1603. The ecclesiastical cabildo is composed of five dignitaries, nine canons, six minor canons, and as many other inferior minor canons. The tribunal of the protomedicato consists of a president, a fiscal, and two examiners. This city is inhabited by many families of the very first Spanish nobility, amongst which are reckoned forty-five titles of Castilla, many knights of the military orders, and twenty-four rich mayoralties. The house of Ampuero, which descends by the female line from the Incas of Peru, enjoys many distinctions and privileges, conceded to them by the kings of Spain. In its cathedral five provincial councils have been celebrated, two by Don Fr. Geronimo de Lonsa, in the years 1551 and 1567; and three by Santo Toribio, in 1582, 1591, and 1601.

The ancient Indians called this country *Tavantisuyu*, which signifies the four parts. That of the E. in which is the imperial city of Cuzco, they called *Collasuyu*, or eastern part of the empire; that of the W. *Chinchay-suyu*; that of the N. *Anti-suyu*; and that of the S. *Conti-suyu*. This great country is divided into ninety-six provinces, in the district of the three aforesaid audiences; and, as to its spiritual and ecclesiastical concerns, into an archbishopric and eleven bishoprics. The proper language of the natives is the *Quechua*, commonly called *Inca*.

The ancient religion of Peru was the idolatrous worship of the sun, from which they thought that their emperors, the Incas, were descended. They acknowledged and adored an invisible and supreme Being, whom they called *Pachamaca*, that is, creator and preserver of the universe. The founder of the monarchy of Peru was Manco Capac, in company with Mama Ocllo, his sister; and this empire remained for a series of seventeen Inca monarchs, until the reign of Sayri-Tupac, who

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

was the last; and renounced the throne to the king of Spain, embracing the Catholic religion, and taking the name of Diego Sayri-Tupac-Inca.

This empire is peopled with many barbarous nations, who live in the woods and on the mountains like wild beasts. Many of them have embraced the Catholic faith, and have become reduced to a civilized state of life in the cities and settlements which have been founded by the Spaniards. They are robust, pacific, and kind: their predominant vice is drunkenness; but they are ingenious and easily imitate whatever they see. Since the conquest, the Spaniards have been established amongst them, and the descendants of these they call creoles and perneros, a race at once clever, valorous, and docile, of fine temper, and excellent understanding, and greatly attached to strangers: but they have been without instruction or reward, or they would otherwise have made the greatest progress in literature, and carried the arts in this country to the highest pitch; since, under all their disadvantages, there have not been wanting amongst them men who have excelled in arms and letters.

The European Spaniards are called chapetones, and are nearly all devoted to commercial pursuits. Some established themselves here, and formed new families; whilst others, after having made their fortunes, with great fatigues and perils by land and sea, returned to Europe. The English, French, and Dutch, have attempted several times to establish themselves in Peru; but their views have always been defeated by the Spanish government, who were aware of the immense treasures they derived from it in gold, silver, jewels, quicksilver, copper, dyes, woods, balsams, spices, sarsaparilla, vanilla, bark, cacao, and a thousand other drugs and productions, not to mention animals, fruits, birds, and fish.

The first bishops of Peru were put to death by the Indians in 1538. The archbishopric of Lima has for suffragan the bishops of Cuzco, Santiago de Chili, Concepcion de Chili, Guanacaca, Arequipa, Truxillo, Quito, and Panama; and the archbishopric of La Plata, those of La Paz, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Buenos Ayres, Tucuman, and Paraguay. This vast empire is governed by a viceroy, who resides at Lima, this being the capital and metropolis. He has the title of governor and captain-general of all the kingdoms and provinces of Peru, and is president of the royal audience and chancery of Lima; this being the authority on which depend the other magistracies and tribunals, civil and criminal. The provinces are governed, some by governors, and others by corregidores nominated by the king, and in some settlements there remain the old caciques, or Indian governors, though under subordination to the former powers. The Indians pay an annual tribute to the king, which is more moderate with regard to such as voluntarily acknowledge their obedience; and proportionally larger to those who were subjected by force of arms: and, again, there are some entirely free from this exaction; namely, those who are descendants of the first allies of the Spaniards, and who assisted them in their conquests.

The population of Cuzco, which, before 1720, amounted to 26,000 souls, has been much diminished by a plague experienced in that year. The population of Quito amounted, in 1802, to 70,000 souls, the greater part of them are Indians; and it has been suggested,

by persons well acquainted with the country, and dis- posed to favour the new order of things establishing there, that the town should be called "the capital of the Indians."

Amongst the Spaniards are six titles of marquises, one of count, and many knights of military orders, and several illustrious families. The creoles are docile, humane, courteous, liberal, attached to foreigners, inclined to piety, and of an acute genius and capacity. The Indians are the most civilized of the kingdom, extremely dexterous in all arts and offices, and particularly in painting and sculpture.

The population of Peru, in 1796, appears from the *Population Viagero Universal*, and Alvear y Ponce, to have of Peru, amounted to 1,445,000 souls; and that of Chili to 720,000, in 1806. But Mr. Walton greatly exceeds this estimate, for he states the number of inhabitants in this vicerealty, in the year 1812, as follows:

Indians, men, women and children	2,846,351
Mulattoes, mestizos, sambos, quadroons, negroes, men, women, and children	1,227,040
Creoles born in Peru, descendants of Spaniards	476,593
Spaniards born in Old Spain, residents in Peru	294,412
Inhabitants in Peru	4,844,396
Inhabitants in Mexico	4,798,479
In Mexico and Peru, subjects to Spain . .	9,642,875

The possession of Chili has cost Spain more blood and treasure than all the rest of her settlements in America. The Araucanians, occupying but a small extent of territory, have, with far inferior arms, not only been able to counterbalance her power (till then reputed irresistible), but to endanger the loss of her best established possessions. Though the greater part of her officers had been bred in that school of war, the Low Countries, and her soldiers, armed with those destructive weapons before which the most extensive empires of that continent had fallen, were considered the best in the world, yet have these people succeeded in resisting them. The Spaniards, since losing their settlements in Araucania, have prudently confined their views to establishing themselves firmly in that part of Chili which lies between the S. confines of Peru and the river Biobio, and extends from S. lat. 24° to 36°; this they have divided into thirteen provinces. They also possess the fortress of Valdivia, in the country of the Canchese, the Archepiscopal of Chiloe, and the island of Juan Fernandez.

These provinces are governed by an officer, who has usually the rank of lieutenant-general, and combines the title of president, governor, and captain-general of the kingdom of Chili. He resides in the city of St. Jago, and is solely dependent upon the king, except in case of war, when, in certain points, he receives his directions from the viceroy of Peru. In quality of captain-general, he commands the army, and has under him not only the three principal officers of the kingdom, the quarter-master, the sergeant-major, and the commissary, but also the four governors of Chiloe, Valdivia, Valparaiso, and Juan Fernandez. As president and governor, he has the supreme administration of justice and presides over the superior tribunals of

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Govern-
ment.

S. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

that capital, whose jurisdiction extends all over the Spanish provinces in those parts. The principal of these is the tribunal of audience, or royal seat, whose decision is final in all causes of importance, both civil and criminal; and is divided into two courts, the one for the trial of civil, and the other for the trial of criminal causes. Both are composed of several respectable judges, called auditors, of a regent, a fiscal, or royal procurator, and a protector of the Indians. All these officers receive large salaries from the court. Their judgment is final, except in causes where the sum in litigation exceeds 10,000 dollars, when an appeal may be had to the supreme council of the Indies. The other supreme courts are those of finance, of the *crusade* of vacant lands, and the consulate or tribunal of commerce, which is wholly independent of any other of that kind. The provinces are governed by prefects, formerly called corregidores, but at present known by the name of sub-delegates; these, according to the forms of their institution, should be of royal nomination, but, owing to the distance of the court, they are usually appointed by the captain-general, of whom they style themselves the lieutenants. They have jurisdiction both of civil and military affairs, and their emoluments of office depend entirely upon their fees, which are by no means regular. In each capital of a province there is, or at least should be, a municipal magistracy, called the *cabildo*, which is composed, as in other parts of the Spanish dominions, of several members, called *regidores*, who are appointed for life, of a standard-bearer, a procurator, or forensic judge, denominated the provincial *alcalde*, an *alguazil*, or high sheriff, and of two consuls or burgomasters, called *alcaldes*. The latter are chosen annually from among the principal nobility by the *cabildo* itself, and have jurisdiction both in civil and criminal causes in the first instance.

Military
force.

The inhabitants are divided into regiments, which are obliged to march to the frontiers or the sea-coast in case of war. In 1792 there were 15,856 militia troops enrolled in the two bishoprics of Santiago and Concepcion; 10,218 in the first, and 5,638 in the latter. Besides this regular militia, there are a great many city militias, that are commanded by commissaries, who act as colonels. A sufficient force also of regular troops for the defence of the country is maintained by the king. All the veteran troops in Chili do not exceed 2,000, and these consist of artillery, dragoons, and infantry. The infantry, as well as the artillery, is under the command of two lieutenant-colonels.

Clergy.

In its ecclesiastical government, Chili is divided into the two large dioceses of Santiago and Concepcion, which cities are the residences of the bishops, who are suffragans to the archbishop of Lima. The first diocese extends from the confines of Peru to the river Maule, comprehending the province of Cuyo upon the other side of the Andes. The second comprises all the rest of Chili, with the islands, although the greater part of this extent is inhabited by pagans. The cathedrals are supplied with a proper number of canons, whose revenues depend upon the tithes, as do those of the bishops. The court of inquisition at Lima has at Santiago a commissioner with several subaltern officers. Pedro Valdivia, on his first entering Chili, brought with him the monks of the order of Mercy; and about the year 1553, introduced the Dominicans and strict Franciscans. The Augustinus established

themselves there in 1595; and the hospitaliers of St. John of God, about the year 1615. These religious orders have all a number of convents, and the three first form distinct jurisdictions. The brothers of St. John of God have the charge of the hospitals, under a commissary, who is dependent upon the provincial of Peru. These are the only religious fraternities now in Chili. The Jesuits, who came into Chili in 1593, with the nephew of their founder, Don Martin de Loyola, formed likewise a separate province. Others have several times attempted, but without success, to form establishments, the Chilians having always opposed the admission of new orders among them. In Santiago and Concepcion are several convents of nuns; but they are the only cities that contain them.

Cities.

The cities are built in the best situations in the country. Many of them, however, would have been better placed, for the purposes of commerce, upon the shores of the large rivers. This is particularly the case with those of more recent construction. The streets are straight, intersecting each other at right angles, and are 36 French feet in breadth. On account of earthquakes the houses are generally of one story; they are, however, very commodious, whitewashed without, and generally painted within. Each is accommodated with a pleasant garden, irrigated by an aqueduct, which furnishes water for the use of the family. Those belonging to the wealthier classes, particularly the nobility, are furnished with much splendour and taste. The inhabitants, perceiving that old buildings of two stories have resisted the most violent shocks, have of late years ventured to reside in the upper rooms, and now begin to construct their houses in the European manner. In consequence of this, the cities have a better appearance than formerly; and the more so, as instead of forming their houses of clay hardened in the sun, which was supposed less liable to injury, they now employ brick and stone. Cellars, sewers, and wells were formerly much more common than at present; a circumstance which may have contributed to render the buildings more secure from earthquakes. The churches are generally more remarkable for their wealth than their style of architecture. The cathedral and the church of the Dominicans in the capital, which are built of stone, are, however, exceptions. The first was constructed at the royal expense, under the direction of the Bishop Don Manuel Alday, an excellent and learned prelate; it is built in a masterly style, and is 384 French feet in front. The plan was drawn by two English architects, who superintended the work: but when it was half finished, they refused to go on, unless their wages were increased. In consequence of this the building was suspended, when two of the Indians who had worked under the Englishmen, and had secretly found means of instructing themselves in every branch of the art, offered to complete it, which they did with as much skill and perfection as their masters themselves could have displayed. In the capital the following edifices are also worthy of remark: the barracks for the dragoons, the mint, which has been lately built by a Roman architect, and the hospital for orphans.

Population.

Spanish Chili, in consequence of the freedom granted to its maritime trade, is peopling with a rapidity proportioned to the salubrity of its climate and the fertility of its soil. Its population, in general, is composed of Europeans, creoles, Indians, negroes, and mestees.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

The Europeans, except a few French, English, and Italians, are Spaniards, who for the most part are from the southern provinces of Spain. D. Cosme Bueno, whose manuscript account of Peru is dated by Robertson, as having been drawn up in 1764, (though the copies which we have seen of this work contain facts of a later date by at least 20 years), gives to Chili a population of 240,000 souls. Malespina, who visited that country in 1790, is of opinion that this estimate is greatly under the truth; and we have been lately informed, on good authority, that the present population of Chili amounts to 720,000 souls, including 70,000 independent Araucanos.

The creoles, who form the greater number, are the descendants of Europeans. Their character, with some slight difference proceeding from climate or government, is precisely similar to that of the other American creoles of European origin. The same modes of thinking, and the same moral qualities, are discernible in them all. This uniformity, which furnishes much subject for reflection, has never yet been considered by any philosopher in its full extent. Whatever intelligent and unprejudiced travellers have observed respecting the characters of the French and English creoles, will perfectly apply to that of the Chilian. They are generally possessed of good talents, and succeed in any of the arts to which they apply themselves. They would make as great progress in the useful sciences as they have done in metaphysics, if they had the same motives to stimulate them as are found in Europe. They do not readily imbibe prejudices, and are not tenacious in retaining them.

As scientific books and instruments, however, are very scarce, or sold at an exorbitant price, their talents are either never developed, or are wholly employed upon trifles. The expences of printing are also so great, as to discourage literary exertion, so that few aspire to the reputation of authors. The knowledge of the civil and canonical laws is held in great esteem by them, so that many of the Chilian youth, after having completed their course of academical education in Chili, proceed to Lima, which is highly celebrated for its schools of law, in order to be instructed in that science. The fine arts are in a very low state in Chili, and even the mechanical are as yet very far from perfection. We may except, however, those of carpentry, and the working of iron and the precious metals, which have made considerable progress, in consequence of the information obtained from some German artists, who were introduced into the country by that worthy ecclesiastic Father Carlos, of Hinnshusen, in Bavaria. In a word, the arts and sciences of Chili have, for these latter years, much engaged the attention of the inhabitants, and it is affirmed that the state of the country has already assumed a very different appearance.

The peasantry, though for much the greater part of Spanish origin, dress in the Araucanian manner. Dispersed over that extensive country, and unencumbered by restraint, they possess perfect liberty, and lead a tranquil and happy life, amidst the enjoyments of that delightful climate. Raynal observes, "the principal part of these robust men live dispersed upon their possessions, and cultivate with their own hands a greater or a less extent of ground. They are incited to this laudable labour by a sky always clear and serene, and in climate the most agreeably temperate of any in the

two hemispheres, but more especially by a soil whose fertility has excited the admiration of all travellers." They are naturally gay, and fond of all kinds of diversion. They have likewise a taste for music, and compose verses after their manner, which, although rude and inelegant, possess a certain natural simplicity more interesting than the laboured compositions of cultivated poets. Extemporaneous rhymes, or improvisatori, are common among them, and are called in their language *palladores*. Those known to possess this talent are held in high estimation, and apply themselves to no other occupation. In the countries dependent on the Spanish colonies, there is generally no other language than the Spanish spoken, but on the frontiers the peasants speak the Araucanian, or Chilian, as well as the former.

The men dress in the French, and the women in the Peruvian fashion, except that the women of Chili wear their garments longer than those of Peru. In point of luxury, there is no difference between the inhabitants of the two countries; Lima prescribes the fashions for Chili, as Paris does for the rest of Europe. Those who are wealthy make a splendid display in their dress, their servants, coaches, or titles. Chili alone, of all the American provinces, has enjoyed the superior privilege of having two of its citizens exalted to the dignity of *grandees of Spain*: the one, Don Fernando Irazabal, marquis of Valparaiso; the other, Don Fernan Carvajal, duke of San Carlos.

The salubrity of the air, and the constant exercise on horseback to which they accustom themselves from childhood, render them strong and active, and preserve them from many diseases. The small pox is not so common as in Europe, but it makes terrible ravages when it appears. This disease was, in the year 1766, for the first time introduced into the province of Maule, where it became very fatal. A countryman who had recovered from it, conceived the idea of attempting to cure a number of unhappy wretches, who had been abandoned, by cow's milk, which he gave them to drink, or administered to them in clysters. With this simple remedy he cured all those whom he attended; while the physicians, with their complicated prescriptions, saved but a very few.

The city of Caracas, which, with its vicinity, has been the chief theatre of the exterminating revolution with which this continent is agitated, is built in a valley of four leagues in length, in a direction from E. to W., and between that great chain of mountains which runs in a line with the sea from Coro to Cumana. It is, as it were, in a basin or hollow formed by this chain; for it has mountains of equal height to the N. and to the S. The city occupies a space of 2,000 square paces; the ground on which it stands remains as nature formed it, art having done nothing towards levelling it, or diminishing its irregularities. The declivity is everywhere decidedly from the S.; the whole of it is 75 fathoms perpendicular from the gate De la Pastora to the N. unto the river Guare, which bounds the city to the S. It derives its waters from four small rivers, which, after having served the domestic uses of the city, run in one channel across the valley of Chacno, and thence into the ocean at 12 leagues to the south of cape Codera. The streets of Caracas, like those of many modern cities, are in parallel lines, about 20 feet broad, paved, and running N., S., E., and W. The houses are well

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

built, about 300 feet from each other. Although this city suffered greatly by the earthquakes which happened in 1812, the description given of it by Depons is very near the truth. The great square, called Plaza Mayor, is deformed by hoots built to the E. and W., which are let to shopkeepers for the profit of the city; and for the trifling emolument thus derived is sacrificed a most delightful prospect. The square is well paved, and in it is held a market, in which you might procure in abundance vegetables, fruits, fresh and salted meat, fish, poultry, game, bread, paroquets, and monkeys. The cathedral, which is situate on the E. side of the square, has no symmetrical connection with it. This square has on each side two entrances. The second square is that of the Candelaria, surrounded very regularly by an open palisade of iron upon stone-work of an unequal height. This square, although not paved, has a soil of clay mixed with sand, which is as good as the best pavement, and altogether it does not fail to afford an agreeable coup d'œil. It owes nothing to the buildings that compose it, nor is there, indeed, one fit to engage the attention, save the church of Candelaria, which, although not of perfect geometrical proportion, has a front which directs the eye, and is by no means a disadvantage to the square. The third square is that of St. Paul: its only ornament is a fountain in its centre. The church of St. Paul is, indeed, at the S. E. angle, but has no other symmetrical relation with the square than that it forms a part of it. This square is neither paved nor even. The other squares are, 1st, that of Trinidad, which has not even the form of a square, and the ground of which is extremely uneven and neglected; 2d, that of St. Hyacinth, containing the convent of the Dominicans, and bordered on the E. by the pavement of a street, and enclosed by a wall, so as to induce a supposition that it was never intended for a square; 3d, that of St. Lazarus, which is a sort of enclosure before the church of that name, situate to the S. E. of the city; it has the merit of neatness, but so detached from the town that it does not appear to form a part of it; 4th, the square of Pastora, which is surrounded by ruins; 5th, the square of St. John, which is spacious, but irregular, unpaved, and bordered only on the W. side by a row of houses of mean construction. It is in this square that the mounted militia are exercised.

The houses of individuals are handsome and well built. There are a great number, in the interior of the city, which consist of separate stories, and are of a very handsome appearance. Some are of brick, but the greater part are of masonry, made nearly after the manner of the Romans, and on the plan now adopted when building in marshes or in the sea, &c. according to the method published by Mr. Tardiff, in 1757. They make a sort of frame without a bottom, with planks of five feet long and three high, which becomes the model of the front of the wall about to be erected. The ground on which they build serves as a foundation to this frame or support, and the frame is removed as each tier or part is added to complete the walls. They cover the walls with mortar, called in the country *tapiu*. There are two sorts of this mortar: the first, to which they give the pompous name of royal *tapiu*, is made of the sand of the river mixed with chalk, to which are frequently added flints, stones, and pebbles; the second is composed of common sand with a very small quan-

tity of chalk. A person easily distinguishes, by the mixture of these materials, that which is the most durable; yet both acquire, by means of the pebble, a consistency which braves for a long time the inclemencies of the seasons and the effects of time. The outside of the houses, when made rough and whitened, appears equal to free-stone. The timber of the roof is formed, as it were, into a double slope. The wood work is well joined, very elegant, and of an excellent description of wood, which the country furnishes in abundance. The houses of the principal people of the city, in general, are neatly and even richly furnished: they have handsome glasses, elegant curtains of crimson damask at the windows and at the inner doors; chairs and sofas of wood, with the seats covered with leather or damask stuffed with hair, worked in a Gothic style, but overloaded with gilding; beds, with the head-boards raised very high, exposing to the sight nothing but gold, covered with handsome damask counterpanes, and several pillows of feathers covered with muslin cases ornamented with lace; but there is seldom more than one bed of this magnificence in each house, and this is generally the nuptial bed, though being, in fact, merely kept for show. The feet of the tables and the commodore are richly gilt: elegant lustres are suspended in the principal apartments; the very cornices appear to have been dipped in gold, whilst superb carpets are spread over the part of the floor whereon the seats of honour are placed; the furniture is arranged in the hall in such a manner that the sofa, which forms an essential part of it, stands at one end with chairs on the right and left, and opposite the principal bed in the house, which stands at the other extremity, in a chamber, the door of which is kept open, or is equally exposed to view, in an alcove. These apartments, always very elegant and highly ornamented, are in a manner prohibited to those who inhabit the house: they are only opened, with a few exceptions, in honour of guests of superior rank.

The city of Caracas possesses no other public buildings than such as are dedicated to religion. The captain-general, the members of the royal audience, the intendant, and all the officers of the tribunal, occupy hired houses; even the hospital for the troops is a private house. The coataduria, or treasury, is the only building belonging to the king, and its construction is far from bespeaking the majesty of its owner. It is not so with the barracks; they are new, elegantly built, and situate in a spot where the sight breaks upon the city, and are two stories high, in which they can conveniently lodge 2,000 men. They are occupied only by the troops of the line; the militia having barracks of their own, consisting of a house, at the opposite part of the city.

Caracas is the seat of the archbishopric of Venezuela, Ecclesiastical import-
the diocese of which is very extensive, it being bounded
ance.
on the N. by the sea, from the river Unire to the jurisdiction of Coro; on the E. by the province of Cumana; on the S. by the Orinoco; and on the W. by the bishopric of Merida. Caracas was erected into an archbishopric in 1803. The annual revenue of the archbishopric depends on the abundance of the harvests and the price of commodities, on which they take the tithes: these tithes are equally divided between the archbishopric, the chapter, the king, and the ministers of religion. The fourth part, belonging to the prelate, amounted, on an average, before the war terminated by

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

the treaty of Amiens, to 60,000 dollars per annum. The decrease of cultivation will for a long time prevent the episcopal revenues amounting to the above sum. Indeed the archbishop does not even enjoy the whole of this fourth part of the tithes, the king having reserved to himself the application of the third of this quarter, and charging upon it certain pensions. The seat of this archbishopric was established at Coro in 1532, and translated to Caracas in 1636.

The cathedral church does not merit a description but from the rank it holds in the hierarchy; not but that the interior is decorated with hangings and gilding, and that the sacerdotal robes and sacred vases are sufficiently splendid, but that its construction, its architecture, its dimensions, and its arrangements, are void of majesty and regularity. It is about 250 feet long, and 75 broad; it is low, and supported in the interior by 24 pillars, in four rows, which run the whole length of the cathedral. The two centre rows form the nave of the church, which is 25 feet broad; the other two rows divide the aisles at equal distances of 12½ feet, so that the nave alone is of the width of the two aisles, which are on its right and left. The chief altar, instead of being, like the Roman altars, in the centre, is placed against the wall. The choir occupies one half of the nave, and the arrangement of the church is such, that not more than 400 persons can see the officiating priest, at whatever altar he may be performing the service. The exterior does not evince any taste or skill in the architect; the steeple alone, without having received any embellishment from art, has at least the merit of a boldness to which the cathedral has no pretensions. The only clock in Caracas is in this steeple; it strikes the quarters, and keeps time pretty well. The humble architecture of the first church in Caracas springs from a source highly honourable to the inhabitants, and which we are therefore bound to relate. The episcopal chair having been translated from Coro to Caracas (as we have before observed), in 1636, there was no necessity, until this period, for a cathedral in this city; and when they had begun to carry into execution a project of erecting a magnificent church, there happened, on the 11th of June, 1641, a violent earthquake, which did great damage in the city. This was regarded as an admonition of heaven to make the fabric more capable of resisting this sort of catastrophe than of attracting the admiration of the curious. From this time, therefore, they no longer thought of, or rather they renounced, all ideas of magnificence, to give the building nothing but solidity. But as they had never since experienced any shock of an earthquake, they soon resumed the project of building a handsome cathedral.

Manners.

The people of Caracas, like all the Spaniards, are proud of being Christians, and are very attentive to the duties of religion—that is, to the mass, days of obligation, to sermons and processions; but it is worthy of remark, that they do not admit vespers in the number of religious exercises, agreeably to the custom of Old Spain and other Catholic countries. It is necessary that the men going to church should wear a cloak or great coat, or that they be dressed in a long coat; one of these habits is indispensable, neither rank nor colour affording an exemption.

The dress of the women, worn only in sacred duties, is now made of silk or velvet, enriched with handsome

lace, which often costs from 400 to 800 dollars. Such as have no means of procuring the customary church dress, are obliged to go to the masses that are said before day-break, and which are called *masas de madrugada*, and are performed at these hours greatly for the convenience of those who are destitute of clothes sufficiently decent to appear at church during the day.

The Spaniards have no other festivals but those contained in the Roman calendar. They are so multiplied at Caracas that there are very few days in the year on which they do not celebrate the festival of some saint or virgin in one of the churches of the city. What greatly multiplies the number is, that each festival is preceded by nine days of devotion, consecrated entirely to prayers, and followed by eight days, in which the faithful of the neighbourhood, and even of the whole city, join to prayers public amusements, such as fire-works, music, balls, &c.; but the pleasures of these festivals never extend to the table. Public feasts, so common among all other people, are unknown on such occasions among the Spaniards. These people are sober even in the delirium of pleasure. The most striking part of their festivals is the procession of the saint they celebrate; they perform this always in the afternoon: the saint, represented by an effigy of human stature, is richly dressed; it is borne on a table handsomely decorated, and followed or preceded by some other saint of the same church, dressed less sumptuously; a great number of banners and crosses open the cavalcade; the men walk in two lines; each of the principal persons holds a wax taper, they follow the music, the clergy, the civil officers, and at last the women and a file of bayonets. The followers are always very numerous. All the windows in the streets through which the procession passes are ornamented with floating streamers, which give the whole neighbourhood an air of festivity and rejoicing. The windows of the French, in particular, are filled with ladies, who repair from all parts of the city to view the agreeable spectacle. But the principal and almost exclusive devotion of the Spaniards is to the holy Virgin; they have her in every church under different denominations, and in every case she has established herself in a manner more or less miraculous.

The sum of the public amusements at Caracas is this playhouse, at which they perform only on festivals, the price of admission being a real, nearly sixpence English, a sum sufficiently indicating the talents of the actors, and the beauty and convenience of the theatre. All the plays, bad enough in themselves, are yet more miserably performed. The performers of Caracas may be compared to strolling players, who live by moving pity rather than by affording amusement; every body must suppose, from this description, that an exhibition of this sort is altogether deserted, but the reader may be assured that the rich and poor, the young and the old, the nobleman and plebeian, the governor and the governed, all assiduously frequent the theatre. Independently of three tennis-courts, a few billiard-tables in a bad condition, scattered through the city, and which are but rarely frequented, complete the catalogue of amusements at Caracas. Indeed the Spaniards appear averse to all places of amusement; they live in their houses as if they were prisoners, they never quit them but to go to church, or to fulfil the offices imposed on them by their stations in society.

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Population
of Caracas.

The city of Caracas contained, according to the clerical census of 1802, 31,234 souls, and in 1806 they exceeded 40,000. This population is classed into whites, slaves, freed people, and a very few Indians. The first form almost a fourth part of the amount, the slaves a third part, the Indians a twentieth part, and the freed men the remainder. In the white population there are six Castilian titles, three marquises, and three counts. All the whites pretend to be noble, and nearly one-third of them are acknowledged to be so. The whites are all either planters, merchants, soldiers, priests, monks, financiers, or lawyers. A Spanish white person, especially a creole, however poor he may be, thinks it the greatest disgrace to labour as a mechanic. The Europeans in Caracas form at least two very distinct classes; the first comprises those who come from Spain with appointments; the second those actuated by industry and a spirit of enterprise, and who emigrate to acquire wealth. The greater part of these come from Catalonia and Biscay; their views are purely mercantile. Both Catalonians and Biscayans are distinguished among their fellow-citizens by the good faith they observe in their business, and by their punctuality in their payments. The former class, the European placemen, are most obnoxious to the creoles, and these are, in point of ability and education, almost always the superiors. The Spaniards from the Canary islands, who are impelled by want, rather than fired by ambition, to quit their native soil and to establish themselves at Caracas, import with them the united industry of the Catalonians and Biscayans. Their genius assimilates more to that of the latter than to that of the former; but, in fine, both are useful citizens, like all who strive by honest means to gain their livelihood, and who are not ashamed to prove by example that man is born to labour. The women of Caracas are agreeable, sensible, and engaging; few of them are fair, but they have jet black hair, with complexions as clear as alabaster; their eyes are large, well set, and lovely, whilst the emanation of their lips marks a health and vigour of constitution. There are very few, however, above the middle size, whilst there are a great many under; and their feet, too, are rarely handsome. As they pass a great part of their lives at their windows, it may be said that they are solicitous to display that in which nature has most favoured them. There are no female schools here; the women, therefore, learn nothing but what their parents teach them, which is confined, in many cases, to praying, reading badly, and writing worse; it is difficult for any but an inspired lover to read their scrawl. They have neither dancing, drawing, nor music masters; all they learn of these accomplishments is to play a few airs on the guitar and piano-forte; there are but a very few who understand the rudiments of music. But, in spite of this want of education, the ladies of Caracas know very well how to unite social manners with politeness, and the art of coquetry with feminine modesty. This is, however, a picture only of those women whose husbands or fathers possess large fortunes or lucrative places; for that part of the female sex who are doomed to procure their own livelihood, seldom know of any other means of existence than the public prostitution of their virtue: about two hundred of these poor creatures pass their days in rags and tatters in the ground-floors of houses, and stroll out only at night to procure the pittance for their

next day's fare; their dress is a white petticoat and cloak, with a pasteboard bonnet covered with lustring, to which they attach a bunch of artificial flowers and tinsel. The same dress often serves in one evening for two or three of these unhappy beings. The class of domestic slaves is considerable at Caracas, since a person believes himself rich only in proportion to the number of slaves he has in his house. In general, four times more servants are kept than are necessary, for this is thought an effectual method of concealing poverty. Thus a white woman goes to mass with two negro or mulatto women in her train, without having an equal value in any other species of property. Those who are reputedly rich are followed by four or five servants, whilst as many attend every white person of the same family going to another church. Some houses at Caracas contain twelve or fifteen servants, without counting the footmen in attendance on the men.

Probably there is not a city throughout all the West Indies that has so great a proportion, with respect to other classes, of enfranchised persons and their descendants, as Caracas; they carry on all the trades which the whites disdain. Every carpenter, joiner, mason, blacksmith, locksmith, tailor, shoemaker, and goldsmith, &c. is, or has been, an enfranchised slave. They do not excel in any of these trades, because, in learning them mechanically, they always err in the principle; moreover, indolence, which is so natural to them, extinguishes that emulation to which the arts owe all their progress. However, their masonry and their carpentry are sufficiently correct, but the joiner's art is yet in its infancy. They work very little; and what appears rather contradictory is, that they work much cheaper than the European artists; in general, burdened with families, they live heaped up together in poor houses, and in the midst of privations. In this state of poverty, to employ them, you must afford an immediate advance of money. The blacksmith never has coals nor fire. The carpenter is always without wood even for a table: even the wants of their families must be administered to by their employer. In fine, the predominant passion among this class of people is to consume their lives in the exercises of devotion, and they are fond of forming themselves into religious societies; indeed there are few churches that have not one or two of these fraternities, composed entirely of enfranchised slaves. Every one has its uniform, differing from the other only in colour.

The education of the youth of Caracas, and of the whole archbishopric, is entirely in a college and an university united together. The foundation of the college preceded that of the university by more than sixty years. This institution originated in the piety and care of Bishop A. Gonzales de Acuna, who died in 1682. At first nothing was taught here but Latin, with the addition of scholastic philosophy and theology. It has now a reading and a writing school; three Latin schools, in one of which they profess rhetoric; two professors of philosophy, one of which is a lay or secular priest, and the other a Dominican; four professors of theology, two for school divinity, one for ethics, and another for positive divinity, the last of which ought always to be a Dominican; a professor of civil law; a professor of canon law; a professor of medicine. The university and college of Caracas have only a capital of 47,748 dollars and 6½ reals, put out at interest, and producing

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Education
at Caracas.

S. AME-
RICA.Politician
and Moral
State.

annually 2387 dollars, 34 reals: this sum pays the twelve professors. All the ranks of bachelor, licentiate, and doctor, are granted at the university. The first is given by the rector, the two others by the chancellor, who is also endowed with the quality of schoolmaster. The oath of each rank is to maintain the immaculate conception, not to teach nor practise rigidity nor tyrannicide, and to defend the doctrine of St. Thomas. In this college and university there were, in 1802, sixty-four boarders, and 402 students not boarders, viz.:

In the lower classes, comprising rhetoric . . .	202
Philosophy	140
Theology	36
Canon and civil law	55
Physic	11
In the school of sacred music	22

— 466 —

The Spaniards of Caracas, of all people in the world, stand least in need of a police to preserve public tranquillity. Their natural sobriety, and more especially their phlegmatic disposition, render quarrels and tumults very rare among them. Here there is never any noise in the streets; every body in them is silent, dull, and grave; 300 to 400 people coming out of a church make no more noise than a tortoise moving along the sand. But if the magistrate has nothing to fear from open crimes, he has so much the more to apprehend from assassinations, thefts, frauds, and treachery. The Spaniard is far from exempt from that vindictive spirit, which is the more dangerous as it seeks its revenge only in the dark; and from that rancour which veils itself with the mask of friendship to procure an opportunity of gratifying its vengeance. A person who, from his station and condition, has no chance of revenging himself, save by his own hands, exhibits very little or no passion when he receives the offence; but from that instant he watches the opportunity, which he seldom suffers to escape him, of plunging a poignard in the heart of his enemy. The Spaniards from the province of Andalusia are particularly branded with this criminal habit. We are assured that these unfortunate events were unknown here before the year 1778, at which time the liberty of trading with the province of Venezuela, which was before exclusively granted to the company of Guipuzcoa, was extended to all the ports of Spain, and drew a number of Spaniards to Caracas from every province, and particularly from that of Andalusia. It is true that almost all assassinations that happen at Caracas are perpetrated by the Europeans: those that can be laid to the charge of the creoles are most rare. But all the thefts are committed by the whites, or pretended whites of the country, and the enfranchised persons. False measures, false weights, changing of commodities and provisions, are likewise frequent practices, because they are looked upon less as acts of dishonesty than as proofs of an address of which they are proud. However great may be the occupation of the police, it is certain many things call loudly upon their attention. It will hardly be believed that the city of Caracas, the capital of the province, and able to supply horned cattle to all the foreign possessions in America, is many days in the year itself in want of butcher's meat. The residence of a captain-general, the seat of an archbishop, of a royal audience, and of the principal tribunals of appeal, with a popula-

tion of more than 40,000 souls, and, in short, with a garrison of 1,000 men, experience famine in the midst of abundance. If filth does not accumulate in the streets, it is owing to the frequency of the rains, and not to the care of the police, for they are never washed but in honour of some procession. Such streets as processions do not pass through are covered with an herb like the weed on ponds, the *panicum dactyloides* of Linnaeus. Mendicity, which is, in almost every other country, the province of the police, appears to be unnoticed by it in Caracas. The streets are crowded with poor of both sexes, who have no other subsistence than what they derive from alms, and who prefer these means of living to that of labour. It is feared that the indiscriminate charity exhibited here is productive of the worst effects; that it affords to vice the means of remaining vicious. The police are, indeed, acquainted with these abuses, but cannot repress them without the imputation of impiety. To form a correct idea of the number of mendicants that wander in the streets, it is but necessary to know that the archbishop distributes generally alms every Saturday; that each mendicant receives a half-escudo, or 1-16th of a dollar; and that at each of these pious distributions there is given a sum of from 75 or 76 dollars, which should make the number of beggars at least 1,200; and in this list are not included those who are ashamed to beg publicly, and to whom the worthy prelate, D. Francis d'Ibarra, a creole of Caracas, distributes certain revenues in secret. The *cabildo*, composed of twenty-two members, and seconded by the *alcaldes de barrio*, who are magistrates distributed throughout the wards of the city, would be more than sufficient to manage the affairs of the police; but the presence of the higher authorities, who wish to share the prerogatives of command, has made a division of all matters of police between the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and a member of the audience, who, under the title of judge of the province, exercises his functions in conjunction with the authorities just mentioned.

Caracas, the centre of all the political, judicial, fiscal, The pro-
military, commercial, and religious concerns of its de- vice
pendencies, is also naturally that of all the communi- generally.
cation in the interior. The roads are almost every-
where just traced, and nothing more. The mud and
overflowing of the rivers, over which there are neither
bridges nor passage-boats, render them impracticable
in the rainy season; and in no part of the year are
they convenient. They count the distance by a day's
journey, and not by leagues: but a fair computation of
a day's journey is 10 leagues, of 2,000 geometrical
paces each. The orders transmitted by the governor
to the several towns of the interior arrive there by ex-
press, and communications of whatever nature are re-
turned by the same means. There are no regular
couriers setting out from the capital, excepting for Ma-
racaibo, Puerto Cabello, Santa Fé, Cumana, and Guina-
ana. All the towns situate on the roads to these four
chief places enjoy the advantages of a post. The
courier for Maracaibo sets out from Caracas every
Thursday evening at six o'clock; it carries the letters
of Victoria, Tulmeco, Maracay, Valencia, St. Philip,
Puerto Cabello, and Coro; it is ten days going from
Caracas to Maracaibo, and arrives from Maracaibo
at Caracas only every fifteenth day, but from Puerto Ca-
bello every Tuesday. On the 6th and 22d of each

S. AME-
RICA.Politician
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.
*Political
and Moral
State.*

month, a courier sets out from Caracas for Santa Fé; it carries the letters of San Carlos, Guanare, Araujo, Tocayo, Barquisimeto, Barinas, Merida, Carthagena, Santa Martha, and Peru; and arrives, or ought to arrive, the 4th and 20th of each month; it is generally forty-two days in going from Caracas to Santa Fé. The courier of Cumana and Guaiana arrives at Caracas once a month; it proceeds or stops according to the state of the roads and rivers. Five days after its arrival at Caracas it sets out again. The letters for Guaiana go directly from Barcelona by a courier; and those for Cumana and Margareta by another. This arrives at its place of destination in twelve days, and that of Guaiana in thirty days.

The official letters from Spain arrive at Caracas every month. A king's packet sails on one of the first three days of each month from Corunna, touches at the Canaries to leave their letters, then sails for the Havannah, and leaves in its way to Puerto Rico the letters addressed as well for that island as for the government of Caracas. The latter are immediately forwarded by one of the little vessels kept for this service. During war, the mail from Spain, instead of touching at Puerto Rico, leaves the letters for Caracas and its dependencies at Cumana, and those for the kingdom of Santa Fé at Carthagena, and finally always proceeds to the Havannah, from whence its departure for Spain is regular and periodical. The answers from Caracas, even those that are official, are sent to Spain by the merchant vessels which sail from Guaira to Cadix.

Terra Firma, in which the government of Caracas is included, is situate between the 12th degree of N. lat. and the equinoctial. It comprehends

Venezuela, containing . . .	500,000 inhabitants,
Maracabo	100,000
Cumana	80,000
Spanish Guaiana	34,000
Isle of Margareta	14,000

728,000.

Of the population, two-tenths are whites, three slaves, four freedmen and their descendants, and the remainder Indians. There is scarcely any emigration from Spain to Terra Firma. The government of Caracas, like that of other parts of Spanish America, is so constituted as to keep it dependent on the parent country. The governor, or captain-general represents the monarch, and commands the military force. There are delegated governors, who have each an assessor: the royal audience of Caracas consists of a president, who is the captain-general, a regent, three judges, two fiscals, one for criminal affairs, the other for the finances, with a reporter, and other necessary officers. It administers justice, regulates the finances, and has other great prerogatives. The naval force of Terra Firma is trifling, and could not resist a single frigate. Several sea-ports have fortresses. The city of Maracabo has 25,000 inhabitants, is defended by three forts and four companies of the line, and a proportion of militia. The haven, or port of Coro, called La Vela de Coro, 16 leagues E. of Maracabo, had, at the time of General Miranda's expedition, in 1806, two batteries with fifteen or eighteen pieces of cannon of various calibres, from 6 to 18-pounders. Puerto Cabello, 58 leagues to the E. of Coro, has a strong fort, with a large and numerous artillery. In time of war it is supplied

with two companies of regular troops. In case of attack, says Depona, 3,000 militia might be collected here in eight days. La Guaira, the haven of Caracas, 25 leagues to the E. of Puerto Cabello, is very strongly fortified. Cumana, 100 leagues E. of La Guaira, is of difficult access, has a fort, and might collect a force of 5,000 men. The island of Margareta, four leagues N. of Cumana, has trifling batteries, one company of regular troops, one of artillery, and several of militia. Thus it appears the strong places are distant from each other 60 or 100 leagues; hence it is observed, a debarkation on the coast might easily be effected in various places, and the troops proceed into the country, whilst the ships, by attacking the forts, would distract the military operations. The military force, as stated by Depons, is a regiment of regular troops, of 918 men, distributed at Caracas, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello: 400 troops of the line are at Maracabo, at Cumana 150, at Guianan 150, and at Barinas 77. The artillery at the respective places is served by separate companies, besides militia; the whole armed force of the captainship-general, regular troops and militia, is stated at 13,059. There is no religion but the Roman Catholic. To be suspected of heresy is dangerous; to be convicted, fatal. The tribunals of the inquisition are erected at Mexico, Lima, and Carthagena, and are very powerful.

The population of Buenos Ayres, and its immediate ~~Buenos~~ suburbs, exclusive of the country in its vicinity, has been ascertained to amount to upwards of 60,000 souls. The proportion of females to males is said to be as four to one; but if we take into consideration that many men are almost daily arriving from Europe, as well as from the South American provinces, and that under the old government neither the militia nor the marine was recruited from the mass of the population, we shall find reason to conclude that the proportion of the sexes is not so unequal. In the interior, the excess of males is very great; for as the lands are granted in large tracts only, and but poorly cultivated, there is no encouragement for the labouring classes to marry and settle upon them. The poor are compelled to remain single, from the very bare resources on which they depend for subsistence, and are accustomed to consider the married state as fraught with heavy burdens and inevitable misfortunes.

In describing, however, the orders of society in Buenos Ayres, it is necessary to premise that we class them, not by degrees of birth, rank, or profession, but by the relative estimation in which they stand, in point of property, and of public usefulness.

According to this scale, the first which comes under ~~Population~~ consideration is the commercial class. Every person belonging to it, from the huckster at the corner of the street to the opulent trader in his warehouse, is dignified by the appellation of merchant, yet few individuals among them can lay just claim to that title, as they are wanting in that practical knowledge so essential in commercial dealings. They are averse to all speculation and enterprise; the common routine of their business is to send orders to Spain for the articles they need, and to sell by retail at an exorbitant profit; beyond this they have hardly a single idea, and it has been said that their great reason for opposing a free trade with foreign nations is a consciousness of their own mercantile inexperience. The more considerable

S. AME-
RICA.
*Political
and Moral
State.*

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

houses are almost all branches of some European establishment; few of the creoles have any regular trade. Those among them, however, who engage in it are much more liberal in their transactions than the old Spaniards, and are observed to make less rapid fortunes; for a certain independence of character makes them spurn every system of economy, and disdain to assume that frequent church-going practice, which, it is thought, must be observed by those who would enrich themselves through the patronage of the opulent families. Among the inferior tradesmen, those who gain most are the pulperos, the warehousemen, and the shop-keepers. The pulperos retail wine, brandy, candles, sausages, salt, bread, spices, wood, grease, brimstone, &c. Their shops are generally lounging-places for the idle and dissipated of the community. In Buenos Ayres there are about 700 of them, each more or less in the interest of some richer individual. The warehousemen sell earthen and glass ware, drugs, various articles of consumption, and some goods of home manufacture, wholesale and retail. The shop-keepers amount to nearly 600 in number; they sell woollen cloths, silk, cotton goods of all sorts, bats, and various other articles of wearing apparel. Many of them make considerable fortunes, those especially who trade to Lima, Peru, Chili, or Paraguay, by means of young men whom they send as agents or factors. There is another description of merchants, if such they may be called, who keep in the back-ground, and enrich themselves by monopolizing victuals, and by forestalling the grain brought to market from the interior, much to the injury of the agricultural interest.

The second class of inhabitants consists of the proprietors of estates and houses. They are, in general, creoles, for few Europeans employ their funds in building, or in the purchase of land, until they have realized a fortune to live upon, which commonly takes place when they are far advanced in life, so that their establishments pass immediately into the hands of their successors. The simple landholders derive so little revenue from their possessions, that they are generally in debt to their tradesmen; their gains are but too commonly engrossed by the monopolists, and, having no magistrate to represent them, they find themselves destitute of effectual resources against wrong and extortion. So defective and ill-regulated are the concerns of agriculture in this country, that the proprietor of an estate really worth 20,000 dollars can scarcely subsist upon it.

Under the class of landed proprietors we may reckon the cultivators, here called *quinteros*, or *chacareros*, who grow wheat, maize, and other grain. These men are so depressed and impoverished that, notwithstanding the importance of their calling, and the public usefulness of their labours, they are ranked among the people of least consequence in society.

The third class is composed of handicraftsmen, such as masons, carpenters, tailors, and shoemakers, who, although they work hard, and receive great wages, seldom realize property. The journeymen are usually people of colour; the masters for the most part Genoese, and universally foreigners; for the Spaniards despise these trades, and cannot stoop to work along with negroes or mulattoes. Many of the lower orders derive subsistence from these and other employments of a similar nature; here are lime-burners, wood-

cutters, tanners, carriers, &c. The free porters constitute a numerous body of men; they ply about the streets to load and unload carts, and carry burdens; but they are so idle and dissolute, that no man can depend on their services for a week together; when they have a little money, they drink and gamble; and when penniless, betake themselves to pilfering. These habits have long rendered them a public nuisance, but no corrective measures have hitherto been taken, nor does there appear, on the part of the higher orders, any disposition to reform them.

Persons employed in the public offices may be comprehended under the fourth class. The best situations under government are held by native Spaniards; those of less emolument by creoles. The former are regarded as mere sinecures, and the persons enjoying them are considered as in no way serviceable to the community, except by spending their large salaries within it.

The fifth class is the militia, or soldier. Previous to the invasion of the English, the officers were not much noted for military science, or for that ardour which leads to the acquisition of it; their chief ambition was to obtain commands in towns and villages, especially those on the Portuguese frontier, where they might enrich themselves by smuggling. The privates were ill-disciplined, badly dressed, and badly paid. The effective force which the crown of Spain maintained in these possessions was one regiment of the line, which was to consist of 1,200 men, but was reduced to less than half; one regiment of dragoons amounted to 600, two of cavalry called *blanquengues*, 600 each, and one or two companies of artillery. With the exception of the *blanquengues*, all the troops were originally sent from the Peninsula, but not having for the last twenty years been recruited from thence, their ranks were gradually filled by natives. By way of eminence they were called veterans, but they have been of late disbanded, and their officers have passed to the command of the new corps which were formed on the English invasion. The force of these corps may be estimated at 9,000 men.

The sixth class is the clergy, in number about 1,000. The seculars are distinguished by their learning, honour, and probity; but the friars are, in general, grossly ignorant, and render but little real service to the public in a political point of view.

The population of the province of Paraguay belonging to the viceroyalty of La Plata is estimated, by Azara, at 92,347 souls, living in regular towns and settlements, besides 5,133 Indians, making in all 97,480 souls, and that of Buenos Ayres to 176,832 souls, and the total population of the viceroyalty of La Plata appears, on the authority of the same author, to have amounted, in 1803, to 972,000 souls.

Monte Video, on the N. shore of the Plata, is a ^{Monte} tolerably well-built town, standing on a gentle elevation. Video. at the extremity of a small peninsula, and is walled entirely round. Its population amounts to between 15,000 and 20,000 souls. The harbour, although shoal, and quite open to the pampas, is the best in the Rio de la Plata; it has a very soft bottom of deep mud. When the wind continues for some time at N. E. ships drawing twelve feet water are frequently aground for several days, so that the harbour cannot be called a good one for vessels above 300 or 400 tons.

There are but few capital buildings; the town in general consists of houses of one story, paved with

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

brick, and provided with very poor conveniences. In the square is a cathedral, very handsome, but awkwardly situated; opposite to it is an edifice divided into a town-house, or *cabildo*, and a prison. The streets, having no pavement, are always either clouded with dust, or loaded with mud, as the weather happens to be dry or wet. In seasons of drought, the want of conduits for water is a serious inconvenience, the well which principally supplies the town being two miles distant.

Provisions here are cheap and in great abundance. Beef, in particular, is very plentiful, and, though rarely fat or fine, makes excellent soup. The best parts of the meat may, indeed, be called tolerable, but they are by no means tender. The pork is not eatable. Such is the profusion of flesh-meat, that the vicinity for two miles round, and even the purlieus of the town itself, present filthy spectacles of bones and raw flesh at every step, which feed immense flocks of sea-gulls, and, in summer, breed myriads of flies, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants, who are obliged at table to have a servant or two continually employed in fanning the dishes with feathers, to drive away these troublesome intruders.

The inhabitants of Monte Video, particularly the creolians, are humane and well-disposed, when not actuated by political or religious prejudices. Their habits of life are much the same with those of their brethren in Old Spain, and seem to proceed from the same remarkable union of the two opposite, but not incompatible qualities, indolence and temperance. The ladies are generally affable and polite, extremely fond of dress, and very neat and cleanly in their persons. They adopt the English costume at home, but go abroad usually in black, and always covered with a large veil or mantle. At mass they invariably appear in black silk, bordered with deep fringes. They delight in conversation, and their vivacity eminently qualifies them, and are very courteous to strangers.

They have a very singular and simple way of training mules and horses to draw light carts, coaches, &c. No harness is made use of; a saddle or pad is girthed on, and a leather thong is fastened to the girth on one side, so that the animal moving forward with his body in a rather oblique direction, keeps his legs clear of the apparatus which is attached to him, and draws with a freedom and an agility that is a stranger excite great surprise. A similar contrivance is used in the catching of cattle. The peon fastens one end of his lazo (or noosed thong) to the girth of his horse, who soon learns to place himself in such an attitude, as to draw the ox which his rider has caught, and even should the latter dismount, he keeps the thong on the stretch.

The horses in this country are very spirited, and perform almost incredible labour. They seldom work longer than a week at a time, being then turned out to pasture for months together. Their sole food is grass, and the treatment they meet with from their masters is most harsh and unfeeling. They are frequently galloped until their generous fire is spent, and they drop through exhaustion and fatigue. The make of the bridle is alone sufficient to torture the animal, being of the heavy Spanish fashion. They are never shod. The girths of the saddle are of a curious construction: they are generally formed of shreds of green hide, or of the sinew of the neck; the middle part is

twenty inches broad, terminated at each end by an iron ring. One of these ends is made fast to the saddle by its ring; to the other side of the saddle is attached a third ring and a pliable strap, which, being passed through it and the girth-ring three or four times, affords the rider great purchase, and enables him to gird the saddle very tight, which is thus kept so firm in its place that a crupper is unnecessary, and indeed is never used.

Trained horses are here from five to seven dollars each; horned cattle, in good condition, by the herd of 1,000, at two dollars a head; mares at three rials (1s. 6d. sterling) each. Sheep are very scarce, and never eaten; they are kept by some families merely for the sake of their wool, which is made into socks for bedding.

It will not be uninteresting here to add a summary of the population, &c. of the governments of Spanish America:

Inhabitants.	of which its capital . . .	Inhabitants.
New Spain . . . 6,500,000	Mexico, has . . . 37,000	
Guatemala . . . 1,500,000	Guatemala . . . 19,000	
Cuba . . . 550,000	Havana . . . 25,000	
Puerto Rico . . . 156,000	Puerto Rico, very populous	
Florida . . . uncertain	San Augustin . . . 4,000	
	Pensacola	
New Granada . . . 1,800,000	Santa Fé de Bogotá . . . 30,000	
Caracas . . . 900,000	Caracas . . . 20,000	
Peru . . . 1,300,000	Lima . . . 54,000	
Chili . . . 800,000	Santiago . . . 36,000	
Buenos Ayres, or La Plata . . . 1,100,000	Buenos Ayres . . . 60,000	

Making . . . 14,296,000

To which may be added 50,000 to Cuba, as, according to the latest inquiries, that island possesses a population of 600,000 souls. Thus there will be a total known population of 14,336,000; and allowing for the inhabitants of Florida, and the unnumbered Indians of the kingdom of La Plata, the actual number of persons existing under the government of Spain in the Americas will not fall short of fifteen millions, while Portuguese subjects in Brazil, amount only to 3,300,000, of whom one million and a half are negroes, one million Indians, and the rest whites.

Of the above total of 14,336,000 souls, there are 3,000,000 whites born in the country, 200,000 Europeans, and the remaining 11,136,000 are Indians, negroes, and mixed races; or castes of which Indians bear by far the greater proportion; the negroes in Caracas amounting to 54,000, in Cuba, to 212,000, the other states having comparatively very few slaves.

The spaces which this mass of people occupy in the different governments have been thus calculated:

	Sq. leagues.
New Spain extends over a surface equal to	118,748
Guatemala	26,152
Cuba and Puerto Rico	6,921
Florida	8,555
New Granada	64,520
Caracas	47,856
Peru	30,390
Chili	22,574
Buenos Ayres, or La Plata	143,014

468,730

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.
Portuguese
America.

Porto Se-
guro.

Making an extent of country equal to 468,730 square leagues; whilst Great Britain, which has a population of 12,596,800 souls, occupies a space equal only to 87,502 square miles.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.—In treating of the moral and political state of the captainships of Brazil, we shall bestow such few remarks upon each as they may appear to deserve, reserving a more general description for the last of which we propose to speak, namely, of Rio Janeiro.

In Porto Seguro there are no public edifices deserving of attention. The town-house is a large quadrangular building, and the prison is also of considerable extent. There are only two churches in the city, one of which is a neat, plain building, furnished with glass casements; but the other is no way distinguished from the warehouses, except by having been erected of better materials, which are a mixture of stone and red brick. In 1550 a monastery of Franciscans was established, at the expense of the city, which has long since fallen into a state of decay. On the banks of the river running at the foot of the hill, on which stands the city, a village is situated equal in extent to the town itself. It consists of about 400 huts or cabins, and, including Indians and slaves, contains a population of nearly 3,000 souls. The sole occupation of these villagers consists in fishing off the islands and rocks of Abrolhos, where a species of salmon abounds, which is salted for the market of Bahia. The most opulent part of the inhabitants possess each a country-house, with extensive plantations of sugar-cane and manioc attached to them. These farms are, in general, situated on the banks of a river which runs past the city. They are well stored with poultry and domestic cattle, but from the total deficiency in the art of cookery, their tables are not much better supplied here than in the city; and indeed they may be said, in a great measure, to exist in poverty and want in the midst of abundance.

The chief town of Rio Grande is large and handsome, and defended by many forts, some of which are upon islets. Since it was taken from the Spaniards by General Coimbra, the Portuguese have much strengthened it, and now there is a very considerable force of cavalry, horse-artillery, and foot soldiers; so that at a short notice, with the addition of the militia, a body of 5 or 7,000 men might be calculated upon.

The vicinity of Rio Grande is extremely populous: in a circuit of twenty leagues, the inhabitants, including the troops, are estimated at 100,000. Their principal occupations are the breeding of cattle, for which the immense tract of pasture-land is an well calculated; the drying and preparing of hides, and the making of charque, or, what is called in the river Plata, *jug-becf*.

The inhabitants are, generally speaking, athletic and robust, and so extremely fond of riding as not to go the smallest distance on foot. They are esteemed excellent horsemen, and greatly surpass their neighbours in dexterity and agility, particularly in catching cattle with the balls and the lazo. But it ought to be understood, that the Spaniards have peons on their farms, who are more nearly allied to the Indians than to them; whereas the Portuguese have creolians, bred up to the business, or expert negroes, who are inferior to none in this labour.

It is singular to Europeans, that in this fine climate, where the thermometer is frequently below 40° Fahren-

heit, and where are bred as fine cows as any in the world, and every convenience is at hand for dairies, neither butter nor milk even is made, except on particular occasions; nor is milk even for coffee to be procured at all times. It may probably be urged, that the production of these articles would not answer the purpose of the farmers, but certainly it might be made to do so; and Mr. Mawe hesitates not to say, that 100 cows, kept for dairy purposes, would yield to any man capable of rearing, training, and managing them, a greater profit than any other part of husbandry. This colony might easily be made to supply the neighbouring districts, and even the whole of Brazil, with these articles.

The province of San Vincente was the first established by the Portuguese in America, and, after a few years, became one of the most opulent for its sugar-mills and manufactures, thus providing with necessities all the other settlements of Brazil; but it has since fallen into such a state of dissipation as to be merely the shadow of its former greatness. The town of San Vincente lost also the quality of a capital, the church itself becoming reduced to the small chapel of San Antonio. Before the entrance of the Portuguese it was possessed by the Guianians, who were very valorous, but who are now extinct. It now belongs to the house of the marquises of Cascaes, and contains only 800 inhabitants.

Sereipe, according to late accounts, contains about 20,000 souls, twenty-five manufactures of sugar, tobacco, leather, &c.; but its ports do not admit large vessels, which prove a great drawback on its commerce.

Pernambuco also, that formerly produced, at every Pernambuco-
return, more than 15,000 chests of sugar, at present scarcely furnishes more than 4,000. The population of this province was, several years ago, including negroes, people of colour, and Indians, estimated at about 90,000; but since this period many families have emigrated to Paraguay, Peru, and Chili. This emigration has principally arisen from the embarrassments occasioned by the debts with which this province is loaded.

San Luis, the capital of the captainship of Marum Maranhão, and situate on the island of that name, was founded by the French in 1612, and ceded to the Portuguese in the following year. It is small, but populous, cheerful, rich, and well fortified. It was taken by the Dutch in 1641; but, in 1643, recovered by the Portuguese, to whom, at the present day, it belongs. It has a good castle, upon a small eminence, and two other forts, called San Francisco and Santiago; also a large suburb called San Andres. This city is the head of a bishopric, suffragan to the archbishop of San Salvador of the bay of Todos Santos, erected by the pontiff Innocent XI. in 1677. The port is of difficult ingress, but is large and secure, and has a good bottom. S. lat. 2°, 30'.

The captainship of Seara contains about 10,000 souls. It carries on very little commerce. The harbour, which bears the same name, can only be entered by small boats: it is defended by a small fortress, containing a garrison of about 100 or 150 men.

Paraná, more than any other province of Brazil, abounds in Brazil wood, and is famous for its sugar estates, though these are constantly infested by the intrusions of the Pétiguanes Indians. This captainship was bestowed by John III. on the celebrated historian De Baues; but he was compelled to restore it to the

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Santos.

government, after having nearly ruined himself by his unsuccessful attempts to colonize it.

The province of Santos, which was taken from the Tapinaes Indians, is peculiarly fertile in cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane, of which they make sugar; and these are the chief articles of its commerce. It is watered by the rivers Paraguaçu, Seripe, Jaguaripe, Matuim, Paranamerio, and Pirajá, which, flowing from the mountains, fertilize it, and enter the sea in the bay. It comprehends the populations of seven or eight towns, not to count many villages, which, in all, contain more than 100,000 souls, although the greater part live at the manufactories and in the country estates.

Ibeos is another of those settlements peculiar for the fineness and quantity of its wood; but it abounds no less in salt and fresh water fish, which are caught in a lake in its vicinity, three leagues in length, and in which are found many manatees or sea wolves. It has a fort to defend the entrance of the bay, and a small garrison, with a governor. This city was entirely ruined in the eighteenth century, by the Vaymores Indians. Near it passes the river of its name; and its population consists of 200 Portuguese families. It is 93 miles to the N. of Puerto Seguro, and about 126 to the S. W. of the bay of Todos Santos, in S. lat. 14°, 34'. W. lon. 39°, 42'.

Para.

The government of Para is dependent upon that of Maranhão, and this is separated from that of Para on the N. by the river Tocantins.

The Portuguese were driven upon this province by a storm in 1535, but did not form any settlement till 1599. The French, who invaded this colony in 1612, kept possession of it from that period till 1615, when it was wrested from them by the Dutch, from whom the Portuguese again recovered it in 1644.

Before it was visited by the Portuguese, the chief employment of the savages was collecting the amber-grease which abounds on this part of the coast; and this likewise became the occupation of the first European settlers. For many years after the re-settlement of the Portuguese, Maranhão continued in a very languishing state, till some of the more enterprising colonists began to cultivate cotton, which is said to be superior to any other raised in the New World. This government consists of 8,993 white men, 17,844 negroes, or free mulattoes, and slaves, and of 38,937 Indians, either scattered or assembled in ten villages. The exports have not as yet been equal to this degree of population. Their value has never been estimated at more than 29,000 l.; but since the suppression of the company already mentioned, it is to be presumed they must every year become more considerable.

The ecclesiastical, the military, and civil establishment of Maranhão, are on the same footing as those in the other captainships of Brazil. In matters of consequence, however, this province, as well as that of Grand Para, is allowed to appeal directly to the mother-country, without being obliged to appear before the two intermediate tribunals of Bahia and Rio de Janeiro.

The population of Espirito Santo is about 25,000 souls. Its capital, though small, has a good port and castle, and stands upon the sea-shore. Its territory is very difficult and fertile. It has a very good parish church, bearing the dedicatory title of Nuestra Señora de la Misericordia. It is in S. lat. 20°, 30'. W. lon. 39°, 40'.

Espirito
Santo.

The province of Janeiro is one of the three governments into which Brazil is divided, and that which is most lucrative, as being extremely fertile, especially in sugar-canes, one of the principal branches of its commerce. It has many mines of the richest gold, which are worked to great profit. The capital is the head of a bishopric, founded in 1676. It has magnificent buildings. The streets are wide, clean, and handsome. Some of the houses are built of hewn stone, and others of brick, all of them being covered with tolerably fine slate, and furnished with a balcony, surrounded with lattices. The streets are generally straight, well paved, and have excellent foot-paths. Most of them are terminated by a chapel, whither the people flock every evening to offer up their devotions. The ceremonies of religion are multiplied beyond example in this city, where, throughout the day, bells, and sometimes sky-rockets, announce, at every hour, the performance of some ceremony in the churches; and, after sun-set, the streets of this capital are constantly crowded with religious processions. There are no public buildings in the city particularly deserving of attention, except the mint. The churches are all gloomy, and loaded with ornaments executed without taste. An aqueduct of considerable length supplies the inhabitants with water. It is carried over the valleys by a double row of arches, one placed above another, and proves highly ornamental to the city.

As this city, previous to the late political changes in The capital.

Europe, was the principal depot of the riches which flowed from Brazil to Portugal, and the harbour to which the fleets destined to supply this part of the New World with European commodities proceeded, it may easily be conceived that the morals of the inhabitants of this commercial city must be similar to those of other opulent capitals; and in fact, indolence, dishonesty, a spirit of revenge, and excesses of every kind, are not unfrequent among the great body of the people, while the higher orders indulge in every luxury which wealth can procure. The men are accused of yielding to the indulgence of depraved and unnatural appetites, and the ladies of abandoning that modesty and reserve which prove the chief ornament of the female character. This censure may, perhaps, in some degree, originate from the singular custom which prevails among the ladies in this city of exchanging bunches of flowers, which they carry in their hands, with those gentlemen, though total strangers, whom they chance to meet in the streets. They are also in the habit, when seated in the balconies surrounding their houses, either alone or attended by their slaves, to throw flowers on any one passing beneath, whom caprice or a transient liking lead them to distinguish. Doubtless more intimate connections frequently result from this custom; yet it would be unfair to conclude from it that a spirit of intrigue is universal among the Portuguese ladies of Janeiro. It is well known, that in Lisbon the ladies amuse themselves on particular days, termed days of intrusion, by throwing nosegays from their balconies at the passengers, and it has been probably in imitation of their manners, that this practice has been adopted by the females in the New World.

Many of these females have fine dark eyes and animated countenances. They generally have the head uncovered, and wear their hair hanging down in tresses, tied with ribands and ornamented with flowers.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Janeiro.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

They are regular in their attendance in the churches, both at matins and vespers; and during the rest of the day they generally remain seated at their windows. In the evening they amuse themselves by playing on the harpichord or guitar, when the doors and windows are thrown open to admit the fresh breeze; and if a stranger happen to pass at this time, and stop to listen to the music, it is not unusual for the father, husband, or brother of the fair musician, politely to invite him to enter the house.

The men, even of the lowest order, are usually covered with cloaks when they go abroad; and the middling and higher ranks never appear in public without swords. Both sexes are fond of operas, plays, and masquerades. They also frequent a public garden, situated by the sea-side, near the extremity of the city. This garden is laid out in grass-plots, shrubberies, and parterres, interspersed with trees, whose luxuriant foliage affords a refreshing shade from the rays of the sun. In alcoves, or bowers of wooden frame-work, painted green, and adorned with a profusion of the most beautiful and odoriferous plants of tropical climates, the fashionable parties of Janeiro repose after the fatigue of their evening walks. During the dry season these alcoves are generally filled with company, who partake of an elegant supper, according to the Portuguese fashion; during which they are entertained with music, and sometimes fireworks; and they often protract their amusements to an early hour on the following morning. In the middle of this garden stands a large fountain of artificial rock-work, adorned with figures of two alligators, of tolerable sculpture, which throw water from their mouths into a marble basin. In this reservoir aquatic birds, well executed in bronze, appear to be sporting on the surface of the water.

The profit to the Portuguese at Janeiro from the cochineal is inconsiderable, owing to an error in the preparation. Twice or thrice a week, the slaves appropriated to this employment go among the cactus plants, and pick off carefully, with a bamboo twig, shaped somewhat into the form of a pen, every full-grown insect they can find, with many not yet arrived to their perfect state; the consequence of which is, that the plants are never half stocked with insects, many of the females being destroyed before they had deposited their young. The natives of Mexico pursue a method very different. As soon as the periodical rains are over, and the weather is warmer, as well as drier, they fix on the prickles of the cactus leaves, small parcels of the finest moss, serving as nests to contain each ten or a dozen full-grown female insects: these, in the course of a few days, bring forth an innumerable tribe of young, spreading themselves over the leaves and branches of the plant, till they become attached to those spots which they find most favourable for supplying nutritious juice; where, soon acquiring their full growth, they remain motionless, and then are gathered off for use; a sufficient number being always left for the production of new broods. The insects are soon converted into cochineal, by a process which, though simple, seems extremely cruel. The insects, which are collected in a wooden bowl, are thickly spread upon a flat dish of earthenware, and placed alive over a charcoal fire, where they are slowly roasted until the downy covering disappears, and the

aqueous juices of the animal are totally evaporated. During this operation the insects are constantly stirred about with a tin ladle; and sometimes water is sprinkled upon them, to prevent absolute torrefaction, which would destroy the colour, and reduce them to a coal; but a little habit teaches when to remove them from the fire. They then appear like so many dark round reddish grains, and take the name of cochineal, preserving so little of the original form of the insect, that this precious dye is the long known and sought in Europe before naturalists had determined whether it was an animal, vegetable, or mineral substance. The garden at Janeiro does not annually produce above thirty pounds weight of this commodity; though, by proper treatment, from the same number of plants, ten times the quantity might be obtained. At Marica and Saquirama, both places contiguous to cape Frio, are considerable plantations of the cactus, which are propagated easily from cuttings set into the earth during the cold and rainy season, though they afterwards thrive least where excluded from the sun. The insects breed, and are collected in dry weather, from October until March. The preparation of cochineal is encouraged by the trade being laid open, which had formerly been a monopoly of the crown.

In Janeiro, not only science, but literature of every kind is neglected; as a proof of which, it is only necessary to mention, that in this large and opulent city there are but two or three booksellers' shops, and that these contain little besides a few obsolete works on theology and medicine. Neither do we meet with any cabinets of natural history. There is, however, a professed collector of birds and insects; but among his collection are few articles that may not be found in the cabinets of Europe. Though literature and science are yet in their infancy in this extensive country, the native powers of the human mind have of late begun to unfold themselves.

The population of Janeiro is computed at 43,000 Population. souls, of which 40,000 are blacks, including such as have been emancipated, and theremaining 3,000 whites. Few of the native Brazilians are to be found in this city; some of their children have been taken into Portuguese families, but they constantly evince a desire to return to the habits of savage life. These people are seldom employed except as boat-rowers, in which capacity they display uncommon dexterity. They appear to entertain an hereditary antipathy to the conquerors of their country, and shun, as much as possible, the settlements of the Portuguese. A considerable part of the coast between Janeiro and Bahia is still inhabited by them, which prevents a regular communication by land between these districts, since they attack individuals without remorse, whenever they find them scattered or unprotected.

Most of the menial offices are performed by slaves, who, in this capital, have little appearance of wretchedness, when compared with those upon the plantations, who suffer under cruel and severe task-masters. They appear to possess a gay and lively temper, and are extremely fond of dancing and music. It is very common to see the black drivers of hackney carriages at Janeiro, in the intervals of employment, amusing themselves by playing on some musical instrument, most commonly a guitar. All classes of society, indeed, in this city, display an unbounded propensity to mirth and pleasure;

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

nor does their religion, though abounding in ceremonies, impart any thing like gloom or austerity to their manners.

The military establishment, even before the Portuguese sought a refuge in Brazil, was considered sufficiently respectable to oppose any hostile attempt in the field, and consisted of two squadrons of cavalry, two regiments of artillery, six regiments of infantry, two battalions of well-trained militia, besides above 200 disciplined free negroes; amounting in the whole to a body of at least 10,000 men, exclusive of a numerous registered, but undisciplined militia, of whom a great proportion belongs to the city and immediate neighbourhood.

Harbour, and military strength.

The entrance of the harbour, which does not exceed a mile from point to point, is intersected in every direction with heavy batteries. Besides, ships, in returning their fire, would labour under the disadvantage of a swell occasioned by the bar, which runs across the outside of the mouth of the harbour.

The defence of the city of Janeiro is supposed, however, by military men, to depend chiefly on the works erected on Serpent island; the highest part of which, looking towards the town, is nearly 80 feet above the water. Here a small square fort is constructed. This island lowers gradually on the E. side to the water's edge, and is occupied by an irregular stone-line, having occasional flanks. It has no ditch, and in some parts the stone-line is low, not being more than eight feet above the rocks.

The captainship of Rio de Janeiro includes, at present, the districts St. Eaprit, Cabofrio, and San Paraisa, originally granted to different individuals, but which have been since re-annexed to the lands belonging to the crown. Owing to the late revolutions in the parent country, the seat of the Portuguese government has been transferred to this place. It should appear too that its court forms the most prominent feature on the political canvas of the New World; and it is even asserted, in those parts, that the object of this court was to enlarge its own dominions by the annexation of the whole territory N. of the river La Plata.

Revolution in the Spanish provinces.

REVOLUTION IN THE SOUTHERN SPANISH PROVINCES.—Having now given a general description of the moral and political state of these countries, we shall conclude our remarks by an outline of the revolution with which they are at present agitated.

This has proceeded in Venezuela with far more hasty steps, and with more of the horrors of anarchy and bloodshed, than in any other part of the Spanish colonies. The denouement of the distressful scenes is still hidden from our eyes, and the winding up of events will claim the pen of some future historian. To record what has already happened, as far as our information will allow, is our present intention. Whatever may have been the partial light thrown upon the subject by the scanty dissertations of the latest writers, it is still no easy task to discriminate, with accuracy and proper feelings, the whole picture that has been represented to our imagination. A world in arms against its ancient and constituted authorities, is an event novel in the revolution of ages. An effect so uniform is only to be looked for by a cause as universal.

There is, however, one most material question that occurs in treating this subject, which is, whether or not the Spanish settlements, at the time of the entry of the French into Spain, and of the dissolution of the

monarchy, required redress and a reform of government; and next, whether they asked it and were denied. The people were oppressed by the crown and by monopolies; the commonalty and peasantry groined under burdensome and unreasonable restrictions, destructive of all enterprise: the laws did not inflict punishment on the guilty, nor afford protection to the innocent; arbitrary acts were common; the natives were debarred from a fair participation in offices of trust and emolument; a system of government prevailed, disgraceful to the statute-books of Spain and the Indies, opposed to the common rights of mankind, and hostile to the dictates of truth and reason: the Spanish Americans, in short, could be considered in no other state than in that of feudal vassalage to Spain. The viceroys held in their own hands the executive, legislative, and military powers; and, as a proof how little the Spanish Americans shared in the offices of distinction in their own country, we find, by the Censor Extraordinario, Cadiz, January 26, 1812, that the following is a statement of persons who have been in command there since its settlement:

	European.	Americans.
Archbishops and bishops	702	278
Viceroy	166	4
Captains-general and presidents	588	14
	1456	296

That repeated efforts were made for a reform of government, and to obtain the right of legislating locally for themselves in their own concerns, appears to be proved, not only by the applications of the respective American municipalities and juntas, but also by the journals of the cortes and their debates. The claims of the Americans were defined and laid before the Spanish government, in eleven propositions, on the 16th November, 1810; they were repeated on the 31st December, and again on the 1st of August, 1811, in the well-known Representacion de la Deputacion Americana á las Cortes de Espagna, but were never attended to. A torpor seemed to have succeeded to distress, and to the violent convulsions of a calamitous revolution, which appeared to render the government deaf to the just cries and appeals of a well-deserving moiety of the nation: there was wanting a healing and cementing principle of benevolence; nor is there, up to the present day, a proper measure of redress or conciliation upon record.

To the impartial mind that has carefully examined both sides of the question, it will be easily suggested, that the ideas which circulated in the colonies of the anarchy of Old Spain, at the time the French entered Andalusia, and the dread of falling into the hands of the same usurpers, were the chief causes of the Americans resolving no longer to trust to the administration of their European governors, conceiving their own affairs more secure when confided to their own assemblies, or juntas, whom they created after the manner of the provinces of Spain. That they had cause to suspect the whole of the viceroys and governors, has been proved by posterior events; they all proclaimed the doctrine, that America ought to share the same fate as the Peninsula, and that when the one was conquered, the other was to submit; in short, the commanders abroad were prepared for this alternative; they had been previously chosen by the Prince of Peace, and were ready to be moulded to

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

Previous state of the provinces.

Efforts at reform.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Example of
Venezuela.

the views on which he had acted. It was, therefore, unnatural and unreasonable, after their own dear-bought experience, for these distant colonies to have confidence in such chiefs; nor was it prudent to leave themselves to the mercy of men who had no other interest in the country than to prolong the continuation of their command, which had been secured to them by the French and their Spanish partizans.

The people of Venezuela were, in fact, resolved to administer their own concerns, and they considered themselves justified in declaiming against any dependence on governors, who, they argued, were ready to deliver them up to the French, in pursuance of the orders of Joseph Napoleon. They made use of that right which the most enlightened Spaniards have acknowledged to exist; and Don Gaspar Jovellanos, in the famous opinion which he laid before the central junta, October 7, 1808, expressly says, "that when a people discovers the imminent danger of the society of which it is a member, and knows that the administrators of the authority, which ought to govern and defend it, are suborned and enslaved, it naturally enters into the necessity of defending itself, and, of consequence, acquires an extraordinary and legitimate right of insurrection." It would be unfair to argue that these were maxims only formed for the Spaniards of Europe, and that they did not extend to the Americans; and thus far the revolutionists would appear to enjoy the good wishes of every man who can duly appreciate the blessings of rational and natural emancipation.

Caracas.

But the road to innovation is always dangerous, and those who follow it seldom arrive at the direct object of their pursuit. The insurgents of Caracas (for it was in this city that the revolutionists made their first and firmest stand) soon became divided into two parties; those who wished to acknowledge Ferdinand VII. for their king, and to govern themselves by the Spanish laws, under the auspices of a national congress, and those who, actuated by a decided hatred of the Spaniards, and the exaggerated ideas of liberty which they had acquired from the French republicans, were determined to make Venezuela an independent state, a truly democratic republic. The moderate party was supported at first by public opinion, which, as we have already observed, was favourable to the mother-country; but the ill-judged attempts of the Spanish commissioner at Puerto Rico, to overthrow the revolutionary government, and to support the refractory towns of Coro and Maracaibo against the rest of the province, had the worst possible consequences. The insurgents, who were without military leaders, had been defeated by those of Coro, when General Miranda, who had hastened to Caracas on hearing of the revolution, arrived at La Guaira. His talents and ambition were so much dreaded by the majority of the junta, that orders had been issued to prevent his landing in his native country; but circumstances were now changed, and his partizans insinuated that he was the only person under whose guidance they could look for victory. Miranda behaved at first with great moderation, and waited until the meeting of the general congress, to which he contrived to get himself elected by a rather insignificant village of the province. The majority proved to be composed of republicans; and few sittings had taken place when they declared themselves absolutely independent, and constituted a government,

which they called The United Provinces of Venezuela. All their proceedings, from that period, are tinged with what might be called a jacobinical hue. A declaration of the rights of man was issued, as the basis of the new political fabric, and the people were called on to be judges of the conduct of their government, while the gaols were crowded with persons merely suspected of being disaffected: nor was this all, for as a system of coercion naturally, though insensibly, leads to the most unrestrained exhibition of power, it was not long before the heads of many of the citizens were to be seen sticking upon poles at the gates of the city, as examples of the punishment that would await all such as dared to show themselves inimical to the insurgent party. Scarcely had those horrors begun to subside, and the government to be more settled, after the subjugation of the refractory town of Valencia by the troops of Miranda, when, on April 19, 1810, a most dreadful earthquake reduced the capital to ruins. La Guaira met with the same fate. But the congress, after the publication of a constitution, in which they very nearly copied that of the United States, had, fortunately for themselves, issued a decree for changing their residence to Valencia, which they had appointed to be the federal town; and thus it was that they escaped the calamity which destroyed so many thousands of their fellow-citizens. Although, however, the congress might thus congratulate themselves on their personal safety, they had much to apprehend on account of their cause. The extraordinary catastrophe did not fail to have a marked effect upon the people of South America; they immediately believed it to be a visible sign of the wrath of heaven, inflicted upon them for the dereliction of their allegiance; but it served to give only a momentary check to the progress of the system of independence.

Montverde, the Spanish general, did not fail to take every advantage of the distresses and fears of the patriots on this melancholy occasion, and many of the latter began to enter into correspondence with the government of Puerto Rico, and also with the royal troops at Coro, commanded by Montverde in person. "At this crisis (says the New York Gazette) the wreck of the patriot army assembled, and the command was given to the marquis del Toro, who resigned his commission. The command was then delegated to general Miranda, and the army reinforced with men and arms. About this time congress evacuated, and the royal army took possession of Valencia.

"On the 6th of July, Puerto Cavallo was taken by surprise. The loss of this important sea-port afforded a pretext to Miranda for surrendering, who entered into an armistice, which led to a private capitulation on the part of Miranda. The terms of Miranda's surrender were only known to one or two of his particular friends.

"The patriots of Caracas, it is said, were dissatisfied with his conduct. Every patriot remained persuaded to the last moment that Miranda had taken care of their safety; but, on finding the result, they fled to La Guaira, to embark on board the vessels detained by Miranda's embargo, which was expected to be repealed; but, on the capitulation being concluded, it was continued in the name of general Montverde.

"General Miranda arrived at La Guaira the 30th of July, and ordered the embargo to be raised, in-

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Declaration
of the re-
public of
Venezuela.Disasters of
their cause.Arrival of
Miranda.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

tending immediately to embark on board an English schooner for Curaçoa; but the commandant refused to do so, made him a prisoner, and confined him in a dungeon, upbraiding him as a betrayer; and in this exigence declaring himself for Montevideo."

Whether this declaration were actually made, we are not enabled to say, but we find Miranda shortly afterwards carried to Cadiz, as it was asserted by some, to undergo his trial; and by others, to give information of the best means of subjecting the colonies to the mother-country. He was then taken back to America, where he was kept in confinement, but treated with leniency in proportion as the success of the patriots had become more or less evident, and subsequently carried to Cadiz, where he died in a prison.

Fate of
Miranda.

The affairs of the revolutionists began, shortly after the above misfortune, to brighten under another leader, of the name of Bolívar. Early in the year 1813, the town of La Guayana, together with public property to the value of 200,000 dollars, was retaken by the insurgents; and, on the 2d of September, Bolívar took possession of Valencin, obliging Montevideo to fly to Puerto Cabello. The practice of putting to death all the Europeans arriving at Venezuela, now became general; and the public documents began to be signed "the third of independence, and first of war without quarter!" Indeed, during the whole of the year 1813 and later, the result of the engagements between Bolívar and Montevideo were in favour of the former. It would be tedious, and our documents are not sufficiently copious, to allow us to enter into a regular detail of the minute transactions that have taken place during that period, but, shortly after this, we find that Montevideo, in consequence of a wound he had received, was forced to resign the command of the troops in Venezuela, pro tempore, to Colonel Solomon, and that the king's cause became daily more and more unpopular. This success was not, however, lasting; for, shortly afterwards, the insurgent army, of 1,500 men, were defeated near Vittoria by the royalists, and 500 of the independents deserted their standard, and fled to the royalists, who immediately put them to death.

Bolívar.

Such, ever since that period, has been the unsettled and precarious state of affairs in these regions, and such they continue to be; vain indeed would it be to indulge ourselves in speculation on their final results, much less will our limits allow us to record the numerous documents that were issued by the insurgents, either in exculpation of their proceedings, or in testimony of the incentives to insurrection, alleged by themselves to have been experienced from the year 1807 up to their absolute declaration of independence.

Revolution
in Chili.

In Chili, the revolution has been confined, for the most part, to differences between the parties of the natives of that presidency. The fact is, that the Spaniards have here little concern with the government, and have not been molested, as not having interfered with the transactions that were taking place. It could hardly be otherwise than that Chili should thus become friendly to the insurgent cause; and we accordingly find that as early as August 1813, the Chilians at Valdivia, Concepcion, Valparaiso, and Coquimbo, had declared themselves independent, and had opened their ports to all nations. American frigates receive supplies from them, and an American agent has been appointed to reside at the inland town of Santiago.

VOL. XVII.

Not, however, that the question with respect to the independence of this kingdom is yet set at rest, any more than it is with regard to the neighbouring country of Buenos Ayres, with the revolutions of which those of Chili have been of late in a great degree connected.

In tracing the origin of the disturbances in La Plata, our attention is involuntarily drawn back to the circumstances that attended the English expedition to those shores in 1806. With regard to the events attending that expedition, it is by no means improbable that its fate was decided by the delay which took place in the junction of the British centre with the advanced division; for, had they joined the day before, they would most probably have entered the town immediately, while part of the enemy's forces were out of it and unprepared. This delay, though short, gave the latter time to entrench and fortify their streets, and to post themselves in the most advantageous stations. But the restoration of Monte Video was the stipulation most to be regretted; for every principle of good policy required us to keep that town to the last extremity; nay, some of the best informed among the Spaniards were of opinion that our army should have been contented with the possession of the N. side of the Plata, without venturing any further, because we should thus have commanded the trade of the interior, and Buenos Ayres would, in the end, have found it necessary to come to terms of accommodation highly to our advantage.

We could willingly have spared ourselves the pain of attending to these well-known and disgraceful circumstances, but we think it our duty to relieve the European public of one very general error; which is, that the successes of the Platons were entirely owing to their chief, Liniers. Biography will have little to relate of a favourable nature respecting this man. Until he took the command of the Buenos Ayres troops, he was a gambler, and to flattery and intrigue, joined to the courage and misplaced confidence of the people whom he afterwards betrayed, he owed his advancement. That he was not even entitled to the praise of courage so generally attached to him, we can cite as a proof, that he deserted the city in the second attack by General Whitelocke, and only returned when he found that the danger was over.

He continued to exercise the authority of viceroy after the expulsion of the English, and an instance was not long wanting to convince the people of his secret intentions to deliver up the country to the French. As soon as the usurpation of the throne of Spain had placed on it a branch of the Corsican family, emissaries were sent to the principal ports of America, to acquaint the governors of the transfer that had been made of these distant possessions, and to concert measures with them, under the previous promise of their continuance in power, for the conciliation of the people to the new dynasty. The person deputed to Buenos Ayres arrived there about the 10th of August, 1808; and on the 18th, Liniers issued a proclamation, advising the people "to follow the example of their American ancestors, who wisely avoided the disasters which afflicted Spain during the war of the succession, by waiting until the fate of the mother-country was determined, in order then to obey the legitimate authority that occupied the throne." To this were added insinuations that Spain had already yielded, and that opposition was not only untimely but criminal.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
La Plata.

Liniers.

Proclamation
in fa-
vour of the
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S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Liners suc-
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It would not be difficult for one who has followed the inhabitants of Buenos Ayres through every stage of their patriotic efforts, who has seen them fight for their invaded rights, to form an idea of their feelings on this occasion. To behold a yoke ten times more offensive than that which they had just resisted, now offered to be imposed upon them, was not only to insult their feelings, patriotism, and national honour, but to impeach their judgment. The fact is, that Liniers had concerted with the French emissary, that 30,000 men were necessary to keep the country in awe and to penetrate into the interior; a fact which was discovered from the interception, by the British, of the dispatch to the viceroy Liniers, ordering him to make preparation for their reception.

Liniers continued to hold the reins of government until the central junta of Spain, on their assumption of the supreme authority, sent out Cisneros to supersede him, and to send him to Spain as a prisoner. Here again Liniers not only betrayed a weak spirit, but a want of judgment, for his powers, at least, had the merit of being constitutional; but he ceded, without an effort, to the new comer, and retired to Cordova, where we for the present leave him.

No sooner had the viceroy Cisneros assumed his functions than he found the treasury empty, the people desponding of the success of Spain, and a freedom of speech hostile to her supremacy very prevalent. With the ordinary policy of old-fashioned statesmen in a crisis of affairs which bids defiance to all regular habits, and requires depth and originality of judgment, he proceeded to fortify himself, by calling around him all the ancient instruments of the despotic system of the mother-country. Those who, from the nature of their talents and employments, had every thing to lose and nothing to gain by a change, flocked round him, and the customary system of espionage was organized. Dr. Canete lent his pen for the formation of thirty-one articles, which breathed nothing but the most intolerant policy: every measure, in short, was adopted which was thought calculated to rivet afresh the fetters in which personal liberty and the public opinion had so long been confined.

The exhausted state to which the colonial treasury had been reduced by the late military exertions, now gave rise to many schemes for increasing the financial resources of the capital, and affording relief to the people. Amongst these, the most important was the free admission of British goods, advised by the leading ecclesiastics, but opposed by all the ancient Spaniards, and by those who adhered to the old form of government.

The minds of the people were at length matured; and the supposed certainty that Spain had fallen a prey to the rapacity of a foreign power made them anxious for their own safety. Aware of those reiterated attempts by which the French had endeavoured to enchain their allegiance, and that even the servants of the old government could not be trusted, with one voice they resolved to place the executive power in the cabildo, to be exercised by that representative body of the people in the name of their sovereign Ferdinand VII. until a superior junta should be assembled. Notwithstanding Cisneros had assured the people that he would adopt no measures without their concurrence, they would not permit him to retain any power, or even allow him to preside in their councils.

On the 26th of May, 1810, the provisional junta was installed, amidst the general acclamations of the inhabitants, and from that date an established authority calmed every fear, and removed the uncertainty and fluctuation of opinion in the capital.

Thus was a revolution effected, without a drop of blood shed, which levelled to the ground a vassalage of three centuries.

Monte Video had, during the government of Liniers, been the first to convene a junta within itself, but it was more for the purpose of escaping from the control of Liniers, than to lay the foundation of a representative local government; and it was never carried into full effect. Its inhabitants acknowledged that of Buenos Ayres, in a general assembly held on the 5th of June, after the communications from the latter were made known, and a public act of allegiance was registered; the cabildo, however, opposed the measure the next day, and from that time to the present, Monte Video has continued firm to the Cadiz regency, under the influence of Spanish naval officers, and has remained the seat of the naval equipment for blockading the capital. Its population, added to that of the surrounding country, is estimated at 14,000 inhabitants, and, from great desertion, the garrison of the town is reduced to 1,500 men. The transactions of the interior have, till very lately, prevented the patriotic army of the junta from making any attempt to dislodge this handful of opponents; but the wishes of the people have universally tended to an union with the capital.

Though the installation of the junta of Buenos Ayres, and every measure that immediately followed, produced the sincere and unanimous acclamations of the people at large, yet the abridgment of power must naturally be expected to have created a dislike on the part of those who have hitherto been the immediate servants of the old government, and accustomed to give an account of their transactions to the councils of the Indies alone. The royal audience, consisting of Europeans nominated at home, had been left in the superintendence and administration of public justice, but was soon discovered caballing with Cisneros, in opposition to the junta, whom they refused to acknowledge, or to take the usual oaths of office. To such a length was this spirit of party hostility carried, that the junta, to secure the public tranquillity, were under the necessity of sending back to Spain Cisneros, three oidores, and the fiscals of the royal audience, in order that they might be there judged by the supreme government. On the 25th of June the junta published its manifesto, explaining the particulars which had given rise to this measure, and detailing their reiterated endeavours to bring the members of the royal audience to a sense of their duty, and, as public functionaries, to impress upon them the danger of disregarding the wishes of the people, and sowing the seeds of discord and dissension.

But it is now time to return to Liniers, whom we New Spain left in Cordova, and to illustrate a subject, which, as of Liniers well from distance as design, has been greatly misrepresented to the English public.

No sooner had tranquillity been restored to the capital, by the departure of Cisneros and his fellow-plotters, than it was discovered that a more formidable party was collecting in the interior, and particularly at Cordova, headed by Liniers, the intendant Cocha,

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Completed.Monte
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stalled.

S. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

his assessor, Rodriguez, Bishop Orellana, Colonel Allende, and the accountant, Joaquin Moreno. Their intention was not only to suppress the votes of the people, but to oppose, by an armed force, all obedience to the government established in the capital. They publicly declared the junta "insurgent, and revolutionary," and even the bishop endeavoured, but in vain, to misapply the pulpits, by rousing a party to his cause; yet so firm was the public mind, though at the distance of much more than 100 leagues, that very few partizans were made.

In vain did the junta of Buenos Ayres use every friendly remonstrance and exhortation to dissuade these leaders from their hostile designs, and not to deluge the country in the blood of their fellow-citizens; every overture was treated with disdain, nay, even rejected with outrage. All correspondence with the capital was interdicted, every thing on the roads was intercepted, and a plan of raising an armed force to depose the junta and reinstate the old servants of the government was resolved on. Every proclamation breathed captivity, fire, and sword, and every tool and despot of the old system was invited to join them. Liniers took the command of the few troops he could collect, and in vain did the people of Cordova sigh for a release from the oppression of this French satellite.

Cordova in
his power.

The account of these proceedings diffused through the patriots of La Plata a general feeling of compassion for the distresses of the people of Cordova, and many volunteers stepped forward, offering to march to their relief. Towards the beginning of August the patriot army reached the frontiers of Cordova, where they were received by their fellow-provincials as their solicited and sighed-for liberators, who came, they said, as brothers to release them from the miseries of rapine and civil discord, and to wrest from unworthy hands the power that oppressed them.

Retreats to
Peru.

Notwithstanding Liniers had previously concerted the defence of the town, after dilapidating the public treasury, and committing, in the true French style, other acts of coercion on its defenceless inhabitants, he fled, on the 1st of August, at the approach of the Buenos Ayres army, towards Peru, carrying with him a few of his partizans, nine cannon, and 400 men. Havoc and destruction attended his footsteps; the country was laid waste, the farms and dwellings of the peaceable inhabitants who would not join him were burned to the ground; on these he satiated his fury and his avarice, for they were the objects no less of his cruelty than of his pillage. But his career was soon stopped. On the 5th he was taken prisoner by a small party detached in pursuit, after having been abandoned by those whom he had, in a great measure, forced into his service, and, with three other leaders, was sent to the capital a prisoner for trial. Cordova, relieved from the presence of Liniers, unanimously voted Dr. Funes as its deputy to the junta, and, peace and tranquillity were restored to its inhabitants.

Chili incor-
porated
with Buenos
Ayres.

The incorporation of Chili with Buenos Ayres took place in September 1810, and the addition of this extensive and important kingdom, with the union of Cordova, completed a jurisdiction that reached to the shores of the South seas. The interesting province of Cochabamba, bordering upon Peru, brought its little army into the field, secured part of the Cordova royalists who had escaped, and relieved the neighbouring towns

from their old oppressors, and from the influence held over them by the viceroy of Lima. Potosi, Charcas, La Paz, Cochabamba, Cordova, and Salta, have all joined; so that, with the exception of part of Paraguay still under the ascendancy of the court of the Brazils, the jurisdiction of the junta of Buenos Ayres extended itself over the whole of the viceroyalty of La Plata, as it lately stood, with the kingdom of Chili, and 2,500,000 inhabitants exulted in their new-born freedom.

S. AME-
RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

From the period of the first differences between the new junta of Buenos Ayres and the governor of Monte Video, the general aggregate of the events we have to record, up to a late period, may be thus briefly stated; namely, that while the troops of Buenos Ayres were bombarding the town of Monte Video, the seamen of the latter place were assailing, in the like melancholy manner, the former city. These two powers were evidently the representatives of very different interests; but the spirit of war seemed to be so determined in these unhappy regions, that, even when there was a temporary cessation of hostilities between those natural rivals, the old and new Spaniards of the city of Buenos Ayres itself engaged in the most deadly enmities, and were constantly conspiring against each other's lives. From about the 2d of July to the beginning of August, 1812, the city of Buenos Ayres was in a state of the utmost commotion. The cause of this is said to have been the dissatisfaction which the European Spaniards had conceived, on account of the abject condition in which they were held by the junta of Buenos Ayres. Hence they are said to have conceived the idea of overturning the existing government, with the view of taking into their own hands the supreme authority. They fided in their project, and upwards of 200 of the conspirators (comprising the first class of merchants) were made prisoners, of whom twenty-six were shot.

General
state of af-
fairs since.

It is matter of deep speculation how the disturbances in this quarter will terminate: some politicians assert that there is a willingness on the part of Spain to grant to the crown of Portugal the territory of Monte Video, to secure the assistance of the latter either in the defence of her remaining Trans-atlantic possessions, or in return for a portion of territory in Portugal. For our own parts, we mention the idea as far from improbable, and as being likely, under the peculiar state of affairs in these regions, to lead to events not only suitable to the interests of these governments, but as being fraught with circumstances of great moment and consideration to the other powers of the Old World.

TRADE.—No subject of political economy is of Trade, greater interest than the resources through which this country is enabled to carry on a trade with the European countries. The improvement of its commerce, at different periods within the last century, has been as follows:

Annual exports of Peru to Europe for 1714	Dollars.
to 1739, while the system of the galleons continued	2,125,000
— from 1748 to 1778, while the trade was carried on by register-ships	4,260,479
— from 1785 to 1794, since the establishment of the system of free trade	6,686,884
According to Humboldt, the dollars imported into Peru and Chili, in 1803, amounted to 11,500,000, and	

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Buenos
Ayres.

the exports consisted of produce to the value of 4,000,000 dollars, besides 8,000,000 dollars in specie.

The dollars imported into Guatimala and New Spain, in 1803, amounted to 22,000,000; and the exports consisted of produce to the value of 9,000,000 dollars, besides 22,500,000 dollars in specie.

The dollars imported into New Granada, in 1803, amounted to 5,700,000; and the exports consisted of produce to the value of 2,000,000 dollars, besides 3,000,000 dollars in specie.

Of all the commercial towns of South America, Buenos Ayres is, in many respects, the most considerable. Situate in the southern division of the province of La Plata, it is well fortified, and defended by numerous artillery. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spanish America; two, or, at most, three, register-ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. The returns are chiefly gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband trade has been of late wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country. The most valuable commodities come here to be exchanged for European goods, such as vicuña wool from Peru, copper from Copalimbo, gold from Chili, and silver from Potosi. From the towns of Corientes and Paraguay, the former 250, the latter 500 leagues from Buenos Ayres, are brought hither the finest tobacco, sugars, cotton, thread, yellow wax, and cotton cloth; and from Paraguay, the herb so called, and so highly valued, being a kind of tea drank all over South America by the higher classes; which one bunch is computed to amount to 1,000,000 of pieces of eight annually, all paid in goods, no money being allowed to pass here. Azara asserts, that the wheat here produces 16 for 1, at Monte Video 12, and at Paraguay 4. The wheat is considerably smaller than that of Spain; but the bread extremely good. The average quantity produced is 219,300 mcegas of Castile, 70,000 of which are consumed in the country, and the rest exported to the Havannah, Paraguay, Brazil, and the island of St. Maurice. Bread is, however, by no means the stuff of life in this country; meat, and the great variety of roots and other grains with which the country abounds, afford to the poor inhabitants an equally healthy, and even more nutritious sustenance. Mendoza, situated at the foot of the Andes of Chili, annually furnishes 3,313 barrels of wine, and St. John's 7,942 of brandy, to Buenos Ayres and Monte Video; but the low lands of Peru, particularly in the valley of Pisco, possess the best vine and olive grounds that are to be found in the South continent. The commerce between Peru and Buenos Ayres is chiefly for cattle and mules, to an immense value. When the English had the advantage of the asiento contract, negro slaves were brought hither by factors, and sold to the Spaniards. Goods are conveyed in carts over the pampas of Buenos Ayres to Mendoza in one month. From thence they cross over the cordilleras of Chili, on mules, to Santiago, a distance of 80 leagues, and thence in carts to Valparaiso, 30 leagues, which journey is performed in fifteen days. The climate is here healthy, provisions and cattle

abundant; and when the projected road is established through Villarica to the port of Talcahuano, in the South sea, the conveyance will be shortened one-third, and the precarious passage of the cordilleras, which can only be made during the summer months, in consequence of the snows, will be avoided. Buenos Ayres is therefore a good natural depot for Chili, Peru, and Potosi.

Buenos Ayres, previous to the war, has afforded 1,000,000 of hides annually, and the meat of 250,000 oxen, sufficing for the consumption of its inhabitants and its exports; the remainder was, of consequence, lost, for, besides the tallow, the tongue was the only part cured. We are glad to find that the enterprise of some individuals has induced them to salt some of this waste beef, and that the British government, in case of need, may here perceive the favourable means of supplying their navy, and even the West India islands.

Paraguay furnishes to the interior trade of Chili Paraguay.

3,750,000 lbs. of Paraguay tea, and 60,000 mules, in exchange for wine and brandies, and 150,000 ponchos, and other apparel. Paraguay also furnishes Buenos Ayres with 4,500,000 lbs. of tea, tobacco, woods, gums, &c. in exchange for European luxuries. It is, however, extremely difficult to establish the precise amount of the interior trade of a country wherein the duties of alcabala, the only sure means of ascertaining it, are farmed out to individuals, and where the imports and exports are often landed and shipped in a clandestine manner.

At Buenos Ayres, the annual importation of negroes, from 1792 to 1796, amounted to 1,338; and the number has been probably increased ever since. About 500 are introduced annually into Peru, and about 100 into Mexico.

The progress of Buenos Ayres and other Spanish settlements on the river Plata, since they were placed under a separate viceroy of their own, has been most unequivocal. The fate of those provinces, for the two preceding centuries, had been singularly hard. Debarred from a free intercourse with Europe, lest the free importation of goods by the river Plata should injure the trade of the gulleons, they had no market for their surplus produce, nor means of supplying themselves with foreign commodities, except by vessels occasionally permitted to trade with them under licence, or by the contraband commerce which, as before observed, they maintained with the Portuguese. Under the influence of this narrow and oppressive system, they languished in poverty and obscurity till 1778, when, after the erection of Buenos Ayres into the capital of a new viceroyalty, the former restrictions on its commerce were removed.

The following table, extracted from authentic documents, will show the value of its exports during the four years preceding the rupture with England in 1796:

<i>Exports from the river Plata.</i>		<i>Value in dollars.</i>
In 1793	. . .	3,570,630½
1794	. . .	5,564,704½
1795	. . .	4,782,315½
1796	. . .	5,058,932½
Total		18,976,693
Annual average	. .	4,744,173½
Annual average from 1748 to 1753		1,677,250

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Monte
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tion.

Chili.

According to Humboldt, the dollars imported into Buenos Ayres, in 1803, amounted to 3,500,000; and the exports consisted of produce to the value of 2,000,000 dollars, besides 5,000,000 dollars in specie.

The chief trade of Monte Video consists in hides, tallow, and dried beef: the two former of these articles are exported to Europe, and the latter is sent to the West Indies, especially to the Havannah. Coarse copper from Chili, in square cakes, is sometimes shipped here, as well as a herb called maté, from Paraguay, the infusion of which is as common a beverage in these parts as tea is in England.

The inhabitants were by no means opulent before the English took the garrison; but through the misfortunes of the latter at Buenos Ayres, and the losses of our commercial adventurers by ill-judged and imprudent speculations, they were considerably enriched. The great prospects indulged in England, before the expedition to the Plata, of immense profits by trade to that river, have generally ended in ruin; very few, indeed, of the speculators have escaped without considerable loss. Property, once litigated, might be considered in a fair way for confiscation; and in case of its having been deposited until certain questions were decided, restitution was generally obtained at the loss of one half. It frequently happened that goods detained in the custom-houses, or lodged in private stores in the river, were opened, and large quantities stolen. The party on whom suspicion seemed most reasonably to fall was the consignee, who, even with a few cargoes, was generally observed to get rich very rapidly.

Not contented with the profits accruing from his commission, he seldom scrupled to take every advantage which possession of the property afforded him, of furthering his own interests at the expense of his correspondent. The dread of a legal process could be but a slight check upon him; for, in the Spanish courts of justice, as well as in others, a native and a stranger are seldom upon equal terms. Other circumstances have concurred to enrich the inhabitants of Monte Video. It is a fact that the English exported thither goods to the amount of a million and a half sterling, a small portion of which, on the restoration of the place to the Spaniards, was re-shipped for the Cape of Good Hope and the West Indies; the remainder was, for the most part, sacrificed at whatever price the Spaniards chose to give. As their own produce advanced in proportion as ours lowered in price, those among them who speculated gained considerably. The holders of English goods sold their stock at upwards of 50 per cent. profit, immediately after the evacuation of the place.

In Chili, the internal commerce has been hitherto of very little importance, notwithstanding the advantages that the country offers for its encouragement. Its principal source, industry, or more properly speaking, necessity, is wanting. An extensive commerce is correlative with a great population, and in proportion as the latter increases, the former will also be augmented. Hitherto it may be said, that of the two branches that in general give birth to commerce, agriculture and industry, the first is that alone which animates the internal commerce of Chili, and even that part of the external which is carried on with Peru. The working of mines also occupies the attention of many in the provinces of Copiapo, Coquimbo, and Quillota; but the

industry is so trifling that it does not deserve the name. Notwithstanding the abundance of its fruits and materials of manufacture, as flax, wool, hemp, skins, and metals, which might produce a flourishing commerce, it is conducted but languidly. The inhabitants employ themselves only in making ponchos, stockings, socks, carpets, blankets, skio-conts, saddles, hats, and other small articles chiefly made use of by the common or poorer class of people, since those of the middle rank use those of European manufacture. These, but more particularly the sale of hides and tanned leather, which they have in great plenty, with that of grain and wine, form the whole of the internal commerce of the kingdom. The external, which is carried on with all the ports of Peru, particularly Callao, arises from the exportation of fruits; this amounts to 700,000 dollars annually, according to the statements given in the periodical publications at Lima. The commerce between Chili and Buenos Ayres is quite otherwise, since, for the herb of Paraguay alone, it is obliged to advance 300,000 dollars annually in cash; the other articles received from thence are probably paid for by those sent thither. In the trade with Spain, the fruits received from Chili go but a little way in payment of more than a million of dollars, which are received from thence annually in European goods, either directly, or by the way of Buenos Ayres, and sometimes from Lima. Gold, silver, and copper, are the articles which form nearly the whole of this commerce, since the hides and vicuña-wool are in such small quantities as to render them of little importance.

Notwithstanding, the working of the mines in Chili has, in a great measure, been relinquished from the expense, and from the impediments offered by the warlike spirit of the Araucanians, there are more than a thousand now in work between the cities of Coquimbo and Copiapo, besides those of the province of Aconcagua; and it is a matter of fact, that the produce of its mines has been increasing ever since that the passage into the South sea by cape Horn was frequented by the Spanish merchants. The gold coined in the Gold capital was lately regulated at 5,200 marks annually; coined.

but the present yearly produce of the mines, as calculated from the amounts of the royal duties, and therefore considerably under the truth, amounts to 10,000 Spanish marks of pure gold, and 29,700 do. of pure silver. The value in dollars of both is 1,737,380; the gold being estimated at 145 $\frac{1}{10}$ dollars, and the silver at 5 $\frac{1}{10}$ dollars the Spanish mark. Besides this, we must add for contraband 322,620 dollars; and the total produce will then be 2,060,000. According to Humboldt, the dollars imported into Chili and Peru, in 1803, amounted to 11,500,000, and the exports consisted of produce to the value of 4,000,000 dollars, besides 8,000,000 dollars in specie. The remittances of gold and silver to Spain are usually made from Buenos Ayres; the first, being less bulky, is carried by the monthly packets in sums of 2 or 3000 ounces; as to the second, it has, till within a very late period, been sent in two convoy ships in the summer, by which conveyances gold is also remitted. The copper which is extracted from the mines, is estimated from 8 to 10,000 quintals. From these data it will not be difficult to form a general estimate of all that Chili produces annually. A communication by water, which

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME.
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

greatly facilitates the progress of commerce, has been already commenced. In several of the ports, barks are employed in the transportation of merchandise, which was before carried by land upon mules. Several large ships have also been built in the harbour of Concepcion and the mouth of the river Maule. The external commerce is carried on with Peru and Spain. In the first, 23 or 24 ships, of 5 or 600 tons each, are employed, which are partly Chilean and partly Peruvian. These usually make three voyages in a year; they carry from Chili, wheat, wine, pulse, almonds, nuts, coconuts, conserves, dried meat, tallow, lard, cheese, sole-leather, timber for building, copper, and a variety of other articles; and bring back in return, silver, sugar, rice, and cotton. The productions of Caracas are cacao, coffee, sugar, indigo, and tobacco. Besides these, there are a great variety of others which the soil offers to the inhabitants, without requiring any advance, or subjecting them to any trouble but that of collecting and bestowing on them a light and easy preparation.

Caracas.

Among these, Depons mentions vanilla, wild cochinal, drying woods and barks, gums, rosas, and medical oils, herbs, roots, and bark for medicine. From this country half Europe might be supplied with wood for its furniture and cabinet work. Commerce might draw much from the animal kingdom. The neat cattle are calculated at 1,200,000; horses and mares 180,000; and mules at 90,000; sheep are innumerable, and deer abundant; notwithstanding this abundance, agriculture is at a low ebb in this country. La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Maracaibo, Camana, Barcelona, and Margaritta, have a right to trade with the mother country. In 1796, the imports from Spain to Caracas were estimated at 3,118,811 $\frac{1}{10}$ dollars, and the exports at 283,316 dollars. There is a limited trade to the other colonies, which brings about 400,000 dollars into the country. It exports to foreign West India islands articles of its own produce, except cacao, in neutral bottoms; part of the returns must be in negroes, or in farming or household utensils, and the remainder in specie. But this remainder is principally smuggled in manufactured goods. The contraband trade, divided chiefly between Jamaica, Curacao, and Trinidad, was estimated at 750,000 dollars annually, before the war of 1796. It has increased greatly since that period. The whole regular exports of Caracas, from 1793 to 1796, are stated at 12,252,415 dollars; from 1797 to 1800, 6,442,318 dollars. The finances of Caracas are under the direction of an intendant. The revenue arises principally from the customs, a duty of five per cent. on sales from stamps, licences, and tithes, and from the produce of the crumada and of the sale of tobacco. The two last are destined for the treasury at home. There is usually a deficit, even in time of peace; in 1797, the receipt was 1,147,788 dollars; expenditure, 1,886,363. According to Humboldt, the dollars imported into Caracas, in 1803, amounted to 5,500,000, and the exports consisted of produce to the value of 4,000,000 dollars. He also states the population, in 1808, at 500,000 souls. The population of some of the chief cities is thus stated: Caracas 40,000, La Guaira 6,000, Puerto Cabello, 7,600, Coro 10,000.

Puerto Rico
and Cuba.

In the islands of Puerto Rico and Cuba, a trade of great importance is also carried on. Humboldt states, that the dollars imported into them, in 1803, amounted to 11,000,000; and the exports consisted of produce to

the value of 9,000,000 dollars. Puerto-Rico requires annual remittances from Mexico. Upon the whole, the commerce of Spanish America, according to the latest accounts, may be taken as follows:—

S. AME.
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

Imports	sterling.
Exports of agricultural produce	£12,826,500
Exports of gold and silver . .	6,500,000
Exports of goods and silver . .	8,149,800

Besides which, Spain enjoys an annual revenue equal to above 8,000,000 sterling.

The trade between Brazil and Europe is very great, and increases yearly. This trade is chiefly carried on by three ports, namely, Gran Para, Bahia, or the Bay of Santos, and Rio Janeiro. Into the last of these are poured the treasures from the mines of the S.; and from this port are exported the commodities of Porto Seguro, Spirit Santo and San Vianese. They imported of late as many as 40,000 negroes annually. The exports consist chiefly of gold, diamonds, precious stones of various kinds, tobacco, indigo, coffee, rice, cocon, maize, sugar, honey, wax, balsam capivi, hecuanilla, cinnamon, long pepper, ginger, dyeing woods, cochineal, ambergris, wood for inlaying and other purposes, various rich drugs, and perfumes. Besides these, they also export hides, train-oil and whalebone.

Trade of
Brazil and
Europe.

Among the articles sent from Portugal in return, the following are the principal: woollens, linens, stuffs, gold and silver lace, dried fish, hams, sausages, haggens, pickards, cheese, butter, biscuits, cakes, wine, oil, vinegar, vermicelli, macaroni, bay leaves, walnuts, peeled chestnuts, dried plums, olives, onions, garlic, rosemary, and glass-ware of every kind, manufactured at Maranhã. The duties which the agents of the Portuguese government levied on the importation of goods from Lisbon and Oporto, at Rio de Janeiro, were 12 per cent. upon the value of each article. The chief duties paid at Lisbon on the commodities of the Brazils were as follows: on gold, one per cent.; coffee, eight per cent.; sugar, rice, and skins, ten per cent.; indigo, twelve per cent.; and on rum, four dollars on every pipe of 180 gallons. Brazil wood and timber for ship-building were claimed as the property of the crown. One-fifth of the gold extracted from the mines was also exacted by the government; and when any diamonds happen to be found in a gold-mine, it was no longer suffered to be wrought for that metal, all diamond-mines being seized as exclusively belonging to the crown.

The quantity of hides exported from Rio Grande is almost incredible; they furnish many vessels with entire cargoes, which are carried to the northern ports, and from thence embarked for Europe. The annual average may be estimated at not less than 300,000.

Notwithstanding the discouragements, jealousies, and exactions of the mother-country, a spirit of enterprise appears to have been gradually gaining ground for these few last years in Brazil. Even the inveterate prejudices of the Portuguese nobles against trade here, in a great measure, yielded to the increasing liberality of the times; and several of them are now concerned in the different manufactures lately established in Janeiro.

To conclude, the trade of the whole of America with the rest of the world is of daily increasing importance, and no part of it more so than that of the southern hemisphere, of which we have been treating. Of its actual value to Great Britain, no practical in-

South Ame-
rica gene-
rally.

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

ference can be drawn, excepting by the comparison of its trade with other countries. Thompson, in his Geographical and Historical Dictionary of America and the West Indies, has entered further into these calculations than any author extant, and we cannot do better than sum up these observations with some of his remarks, tending to show the relative importance to Great Britain of the trade of the western hemisphere, compared to that with all other parts.

Trade of the British colonies compared with the general trade of Great Britain.

The amount (official value) of the imports and exports, with their excess, and the balance of trade between Great Britain and all the colonies in North America, and between Great Britain and all parts, for the period of thirteen years, ending 1812, was

	Imports.	Exports.	Exports exura.
With colonies in North America	£ 7,025,863	16,839,669	9,813,806
Annual average balance in favour of Great Britain			£ 734,906
With all parts	799,584,739	497,660,805	19,076,066
Annual average balance in favour of Great Britain			£ 7,544,512

Thus the balance of trade derived from the North American colonies, is as one-tenth in proportion to the whole balance of trade derived by Great Britain with all other parts: it thus, also appears, that taking the aggregate amounts of the imports and exports, the trade of those colonies forms one thirty-seventh and a half part of the whole trade of Great Britain, for the thirteen years ending 1812—or is as 23,865,532 *l.* to 897,245,544 *l.*

Thus far the trade of our North American colonies does not look very important; but, if there be any weight or moment in that generally received opinion, that on their possession depends, in all probability, the safety of the West India islands, and, in consequence, our lucrative connection with them, and their's with the United States; and that in the eventual loss either of our North American or West Indian colonies, our intercourse with the United States would be either suspended through the hostility of that government, or be put on a footing highly disadvantageous to this country;—in consideration, we say, of all these points, it will be necessary to take also into the account the aggregate value of the imports from and exports to those several parts respectively and collectively. They were as follows:

For the thirteen years ending 1812.

	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
Between Great Britain and the Colonies of North America	7,025,863	16,839,669	23,865,532
Idem, and the West Indies	127,401,641	74,630,511	202,032,152
Idem, and the United States	26,150,216	77,133,884	103,284,099
	£ 100,586,720	£ 68,604,064	£ 329,210,444

From whence it appears, that the trade of the western hemisphere, estimated on the aggregate amount of the imports and exports for the last thirteen years, is, according to the official value, though not quite half, more than one-third of the value of imports and exports between Great Britain and all parts, or as 329,210,444 *l.* to 897,245,544 *l.*—or, at an annual average, as 25,323,880 *l.* to 69,018,883 *l.*

It cannot be denied, that the balance of trade with the continent of Europe is in favour of the country; but more than half the exports to that quarter consist of Trans-atlantic produce. With the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man, the balance is against us; with Africa it is but inconsiderably in our favour; with Asia it is against us. But our colonies in the last-mentioned quarter are extensive and rich, and the nature of their commercial relations with the parent state may here be advantageously considered.

By a general account of the trade of Great Britain for five years, ending 1810, the balance of trade in her favour amounted to as follows:

Official value of exports	201,804,783
Official value of imports	162,228,462

Balance in favour of Great Britain . . £39,576,321

But, according to the real value, there appears by the same account, to have been a balance against Great Britain; viz.

Real value of imports	284,230,788
Real value of exports	282,201,409

Balance against Great Britain . . £2,029,379

It is, however, to be remarked, that, taking the trade at this period, according to the real value, the excess of exports to America and the West Indies was, nevertheless, most considerable.

Real value of exports	
To America	76,664,017
To the West Indies	51,212,611
	127,876,628

Real value of imports	
From America	39,544,707
From the West Indies	65,401,425
	104,946,132

Balance in favour of Great Britain £22,930,496

Now, admitting the principle just urged, the advantages of a colonial intercourse, even when the balance is against the mother-country, it must also be allowed, that this benefit is neither so large nor direct as that derived from an actual excess of exported to imported produce.

Looking, therefore, at the comparative value of the trade to the East Indies and to the western hemisphere through this medium, one certainly not the most favourable to the latter, when the productions of the one and the other imported are relatively appreciated, we shall plainly perceive the extent to which the western trade exceeds the eastern, and the little probability there would be, in the case of the eventual loss of the former, of the defalcation being supplied by this portion of the Old World.

By an account for the five years ending 1810, the balance of trade with Asia against this country was prodigious, viz.:

Real value of imports from Asia	39,482,437
Real value of exports to Asia	16,541,554
Balance against Great Britain	£22,940,883

S. AMERICA.

Political and Moral State.

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

So that the difference of value, as to the balance of trade between the eastern and western hemispheres in the above period was,

Excess of exports to America and the West Indies	£22,930,496
Excess of imports from Asia	22,840,883

Total in favour of the western hemisphere £45,771,379

Or, at an annual average of five years, ending 1810 £9,254,275

Nor does an aggregate statement of the amount of imports and exports make the account with Asia more favourable. For the five years ending 1810, the total value of these was 56,123,991*l.*—or, at an annual average, 11,224,798*l.*; whereas the value of those of America and the West Indies was 332,822,760*l.*—or, at an annual average, 66,564,552*l.*, which is as four to one in favour of the latter; and, whilst the trade to America and the West Indies for the same period was nearly half of the total of that of Great Britain, or as 232,822,760*l.* to 566,432,197*l.*—that to Asia formed only one-fourth part of it, being as 56,123,991*l.* to 566,432,197*l.*

Vegetable
products.
Maize.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—South America is extremely rich in fruit-trees and vegetables, with nutritive roots, no less than in different kinds of wood for building, dyeing, &c. Independently of many kinds peculiar to this country, vast numbers have been introduced since the sixteenth century. The inhabitants of western Europe have deposited in America what they have been receiving for 2,000 years, by their communications with the Greeks and Romans, by the irruption of the hordes of central Asia, by the conquests of the Arabs, by the crusades, and by the navigations of the Portuguese. All these vegetable treasures, accumulated in an extremity of the Old Continent by the continual flux of nations towards the west, and preserved under the happy influence of a perpetually increasing civilization, have become almost at once the inheritance of Mexico and Peru. In Peru, as well as in other parts, the culture of maize, pimento, and cotton, which was found established there, has not been neglected; and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, and the olive and vine, is attended to. Humboldt classes the Mexican wheat amongst that of the first quality, and as superior to that of Monte Video, which, according to Azara, has the grain smaller by one-half than the Spanish. Maize, or Indian wheat, one of the most staple foods of the natives, is a genus of the monocera triandria. The cup of the male consists of a double skin, without any cover; and the same may be said of the corolla, each consisting of two valves; the style is filiform and pendulous, and the seeds are arranged singly in an oblong case. This plant is one single stalk, which shoots out leaves more than a yard in length and three inches in breadth, and the fruit is a sort of cone, about a span in length, set very closely with grains, which are frequently of different colours: the general colours are white and yellow. They reckon five species, or rather varieties of maize, which differ very little from each other. The method of sowing it, is to make a hole, throw in a few

seeds, and cover them, and, without any further trouble, it soon appears above ground, and is fit for reaping at the end of five months at latest; hence they easily obtain two crops in one year. The wheat is made into flour, and serves for bread for all the Indians and common people; and on this account, the consumption is very great in America. It is also used in the composition of several dishes, and to feed cattle, pigs, domestic animals, and poultry. Some think the maize came originally from Asia, and that the Spaniards carried it to America; but this is false, for it is evidently a native of the New World.

S. AME-
RICA.
Political
and Moral
State.

The plantain, which may rank next in importance, is the plantain. another principal food of the natives, and more particularly of the negroes. The fruit is generally about an inch and a half in diameter, and 10 or 12 in length, something curved. It is not circular, but rather an hexagon, with the angles made round and terminating in hexagonal points. The skin, which is smooth, and of a green colour before it is ripe, afterwards becomes yellow, and contains a substance resembling cheese, without seeds, and only a few large fibres. After the plantain is past maturity, the rind turns black, and the pulp becomes sour. Its taste is very similar to that of the pear. It is the best food which the negroes have, and all classes of animals are very fond of it, an incontestable proof of its good qualities. The tree, or rather the plant which bears the plantain, gives fruit only once, in large bunches, and is immediately cut, or if left, it withers and falls; but the root, which is large, round, and solid, produces fresh supplies, which, in twelve or fourteen months, yield fruit and decay, and the roots shoot forth again without there being any necessity for planting them. The plant is not woody, nor has it any bark, but is a thick, cylindrical body, consisting of a great number of long broad leaves, wrapped round each other, the outer ones serving as a rind to the others. It arrives at its full height in about nine months, and is then about 10 or 12 inches in diameter, which does not render it any harder, or more difficult to cut. This plant requires a moist, rich, and solid land, as it needs much nourishment, and if any of these be wanting, it ceases to prosper, and gives an inferior kind of fruit. Before it is ripe, it is boiled like turnips with meat, and is eaten after this method by sailors and fishermen. It is also roasted on coals, and used by the negroes instead of bread. When boiled in wine, with sugar and cinnamon, it assumes a beautiful red colour, and acquires a delicious taste and fragrant smell; and is one of the best preserves which the creoles make. There are four species of plantains, distinguished by the names of bananas, gunnas, dominicos, and cambres.

Of the vegetables, there are none, after the manioc and the papas, or potatoes, more used for the subsistence of the common people than the oca (oxalis tuberosa), the batate and the igname. The first of these and profusions grows only in the cold and temperate climates, or on the summit or declivity of the Cordilleras, and the others belong to the warmer regions of the valleys and sea-coasts. The igname, or dioscorea alata, like the banana, appears proper to all the equinoctial regions of the globe. The account of the voyage of Aloysio Cadamusto (Cadamusti Navigatio ad Terras incognitas, Gryneus Orb. nov. p. 47), informs us that

Batate and
Igname.

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
Curious
geographi-
cal facts.

this root was known by the Arabs. Its American name may even throw some light on a very important fact in the history of geographical discoveries, which never appears to have hitherto fixed the attention of the learned. Cadamosto relates, that the king of Portugal sent, in 1500, a fleet of twelve vessels round the Cape of Good Hope to Calcutta, under the command of Pedro Aliares. This admiral, after having seen the cape Verde islands, discovered a great unknown land, which he took for a continent. He found there naked men, swarthy, painted red, with very long hair, who plucked out their beards, pierced their chins, slept in hammocks, and were entirely ignorant of the use of metals. From these traits we easily recognize the natives of America. But what renders it extremely probable that Aliares either landed on the coast of Paria, or on that of Guaiana, is, that he said he found in cultivation there a species of millet (maize), and a root of which bread is made, and which bears the name of igname. Vespucio had heard the same word, three years before, pronounced by the inhabitants of the coast of Paria. The Haitian name of the *dioscorea alata*, is axes, or ajas. It is under this denomination that Columbus describes the igname in the account of his first voyage; and it is also that which it had in the times of Garcilasso, Acosta, and Oviedo, who have very well indicated the characters by which the axes are distinguished from batates.

Cacanie,
&c.

We must also reckon among the useful plants proper to this continent, the cacanie, or *oceloxochil*, a species of *tyridia*, of which the root yielded a nutritive flour to the inhabitants of the valley of Mexico; the numerous varieties of love-apples, or *tomat* (*solanum lycopersicum*), which was formerly sown along with maize; the earth-pistachio, or *mani* (*arachis hypogea*), of which the root is concealed in the earth, and which appears to have existed in Cochín China (see *Loureiro, Flora Cochinchinensis*, p. 522) long before the discovery of America; lastly, the different species of pimento (*capsicum baccatum*, *c. annuum*, and *c. frutescens*), called by the Mexicans *chilli*, and the Peruvians *uchu*, of which the fruit is as indispensably necessary to the natives as salt to the whites. The Spaniards call *pimento chile*, or *axi* (*abi*).

Topinambour.

The topinambours (*helianthus tuberosus*), which, according to M. Correa, are not even to be found in the Brazils, are not known to be cultivated elsewhere on this continent, though, in all our works on botany, they are said to be the natives of the country of the Brazilian Topinambous. The chimadai, or sun with large flowers (*helianthus annuus*), came from Peru to New Spain. It was formerly sown in several parts of Spanish America, not only to extract oil from its seeds, but also for the sake of roasting it, and making it into a very nutritive bread.

Rice.

Rice (*oryza sativa*) was unknown to the people of the New continent, as well as to the inhabitants of the South sea islands. Whenever the old historians use the expression small Peruvian rice (*arroz perqueno*), they mean the chenopodium quinoa, which is found very common in Peru and the beautiful valley of Bogota. The cultivation of rice, introduced by the Arabs into Europe, and by the Spaniards into America, is of very little importance in New Spain. The great drought which prevails in the interior of the country seems hostile to its cultivation.

The South Americans now possess almost all the gar-
VOL. XLVI.

den stuffs and fruit-trees of Europe. It is not easy to say which of the former existed in the New continent before the arrival of the Spaniards. The same uncertainty prevails among botanists as to the species of turnips, sallads, and cabbage cultivated by the Greeks and Romans. We know with certainty that the Americans were always acquainted with onions (in Mexican *xonacatl*, *haricots* (in Mexican *ayacoti*, in the Peruvian or Quichua language *peruta*), gourds (in Peruvian *capilla*), and several varieties of cicer. Cortes, speaking of the eatables which were daily sold in the market of the ancient Tenochtitlan, expressly says, that every kind of garden-stuff (legume) was to be found there, particularly onions, leeks, garlic, garden and water cresses (*mistuerzo y berro*), borrague, sorrel, and artichokes (*cardo y tsgarninas*). It appears, that no species of cabbage or turnip (*brassica* et *rapihanus*) was cultivated in America, although the indigenous are very fond of dressed herbs. They mixed together all sorts of leaves, and even flowers, and they called this *dish iraca*. It appears that the Mexicans had originally no peas; and this fact is so much the more remarkable, as our *pisum sativum* is believed to grow wild on the north-west coast of America.

In general, if we consider the garden-stuffs of the Aztecs, and the great number of farinaceous roots cultivated in Mexico and Peru, we see that America was by no means so poor in alimentary plants as has been supposed by some learned men from a false spirit of system, who were only acquainted with the New World through the works of Herrera and Solis. The degree of civilization of a people has no relation with the variety of productions which are the objects of its agriculture or gardening. This variety is greater or less, as the communications between remote regions have been more or less frequent, or as nations separated from the rest of the human race in very distant periods have been in a situation of greater or less insulation. We must not be astonished at not finding among the Mexicans of the sixteenth century the vegetable stores now contained in our gardens. The Greeks and Romans even neither knew spinach nor cauliflowers, nor scorzoneras, nor artichokes, nor a great number of other kitchen vegetables.

The central table-land of New Spain produces in the greatest abundance cherries, prunes, peaches, apricots, pine-apples, figs, grapes, melons, apples, and pears. In the environs of Mexico, the villages of San Augustin de las Cuevas and Tacubaya, the famous garden of the convent of Carmelites at San Angel, and that of the family of Fagoga at Tenepantla, yield, in the months of June, July, and August, an immense quantity of fruit, for the most part of an exquisite taste, although the trees are in general very ill taken care of.

The magney, which is very abundant in every part of Maguey. South America, is at the same time the most useful and most esteemed by the Indians, because it supplies them with water, wine, vinegar, oil, balsam, honey, beams for building houses, tiles, thread for sewing and weaving, needles, and with its shoots for victuals. This plant may be classed with the aloes. The leaves, when half roasted, afford a quantity of liquor something sweet, which, when boiled to a syrup, is an excellent remedy for cleansing old wounds. It may also be taken in the quantity of half or a whole drachm, in

3 q

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.
Garden and
fruit trees.

8 AMERICA.
Political and Moral State.

Manner of making pulque.

Value.

warm water, to dislodge any crudity from the stomach, and to expel bile or extravasated blood. This plant thrives in any part, and is therefore so abundant; but the principal use to which it is applied, besides those already enumerated, is in making a sort of liquor called pulque, which is the common drink of the South American Indians. When the tree is eight years old they cut the corazon, or bundle of central leaves, and enlarge intensely the wound, and cover it with lateral leaves, which they raise up by drawing them close, and tying them to the extremities. In this wound the vessels appear to deposit all the juice which would have formed the colossal lampae loaded with flowers. This is a true vegetable spring, which keeps running for two or three months, and from which the Indian draws three or four times a day. We may judge of the quickness or slowness of the motion of the juice by the quantity of honey extracted from the maguay at different times of the day. A foot commonly yields, in twenty-four hours, four cubic decimetres, or 200 cubic inches (242 cubic inches English), equal to eight quartillos. Of this total quantity, they obtain three quartillos at sun-rise, two at mid-day, and three at six in the evening. A very vigorous plant sometimes yields 15 quartillo, or 375 cubic inches (454 cubic inches English), per day, for from four to five months, which amounts to the enormous volume of more than 1100 cubic decimetres, or 67,130 cubic inches. This abundance of juice produced by a maguay of scarcely a metre and a half in height, or 4½ feet, is so much the more astonishing, as the agave plantations are in the most arid grounds, and frequently on banks of rocks hardly covered with vegetable earth. The value of a maguay plant near its efflorescence is, at Pachuca, five piastres, or 11 2s. 4d. In a barren soil the Indian calculates the produce of each maguay at 150 bottles, and the value of the pulque furnished in a day at from 10 to 12 sols. The produce is unequal, like that of the vine, which varies very much in its quantity of grapes. Plantations of the maguay are found in New Mexico, which bring in annually nearly 2,000*l.* sterling. The cultivation is an object of such importance for the revenue, that the entry duties paid in the three cities of Mexico, Toluca, and Puebla, amounted, in 1793, to the sum of 817,739 piastres, or 178,880*l.* sterling. The expenses of perception were then 56,608 piastres, or 12,383*l.* sterling; so that the government drew from the agave juice a net revenue of 761,131 piastres, or 166,497*l.*, or more than 3,800,000 francs. A very intoxicating brandy is formed from the pulque, which is called Mexical. The plantations of the maguay will not be succeeded by those of the vineyards until the fetters imposed by the government shall have been removed, and till the jealousy of the old country of the cultivation of the vine and the olive shall have subsided. Some vineyards and olive-grounds are, nevertheless, not wanting. The grape of the best quality is that of Zapotitan, in the intendancy of Oaxaca. The wine of Passo is in great estimation, which keeps well for many years, although no pains be used in its making.

Cacao.

The Spaniards learnt from the Indians the method of decocting the fruit of the cacao, and have since diffused this knowledge amongst other nations. Herera, the historian, compares the leaves with those of the chestnut-tree; the plant is so delicate, that to preserve

it from the rays of the sun they always set it near some tree which is already capable of shading it. The flower of the cacao-tree is white, and it produces fruit twice a year. The fruit is found in a pod, grooved like a melon, and covered with a white skin, in the bud of each flower; each one contains from 20 to 30 nuts, of the size of large almonds, very compactly set. There are two kinds of cacao, the wild and bitter, which the Indians used to prize highly, and as it is still in some repute, they endeavour to cultivate and improve it; the other is distinguished by its quality, according to the soil or country in which it grows. The best cacao is produced in the province of Soconusco, but the produce there is so small, that it barely supplies the people of property in New Spain; and for this reason very little is brought to Europe. The second, in point of goodness, is that of Machala and Irucoeso, in the province of Guatemala; the third, that of Notina, in the same province; the fourth, that of Rio de la Magdalena, in the kingdom of New Granada; the fifth, that of the island of Trinidad; the sixth, that of Caracas, in the province of Venezuela; and the seventh, that of Guayaquil. Europe is chiefly supplied from the abundant crops of the two last places, where the cacao is nearly the only fruit they cultivate.

The butter extracted from the cacao is very fresh, and is applied to various purposes in medicine.

The vanilla is a plant of the thickness of a small *Vanilla* vine branch, the fruit of which forms a considerable branch of trade. It is customary to mix it with chocolate, to give the latter an agreeable flavour; it is analeptic, cephalic, and stomachic. The English esteem it as a singular specific for hypochondriac diseases; but it must be used with great moderation, in spirits of wine. All the resinsous substance may be extracted, and a few spoonfuls of this essence will give colour and a very agreeable taste to spirituous liquors.

The herb of Paraguay is an odorous shrub, of Paraguay, which there is an incredible consumption throughout the kingdom of Peru, being the herb of which they make their mate. It has obtained the name of Paraguay from the province of that name, which is the only part in America where it grows, and it enjoys a very considerable commerce in this article. The trees, which form very thick woods, are more than 100 leagues from the capital, and in the midst of infidel warlike Indians, yet they never fail to go and pluck the leaves. The neighbouring people are all engaged in this lucrative commerce and employment, which consists in laying the leaves on plates to be dried by fire, and in rubbing them with the hands till they are nearly as small as steel-filings; and, without any further preparation, they pack it up in bags, of seven or eight arrobas, to send it to Peru or Chili, embarking it on the river Paraguay and La Plata, for Buenos Ayres. According to the cosmographer, Don Casme Bueno, the quantity gathered annually exceeds 12,000 arrobas. The herb is of two kinds: one, which is the most tender part of the leaf, and falls off first, which is the finest and most esteemed, and is called *camini*; the other contains the fibres and stalks of the leaves, and is somewhat coarser, and is called *yerba de palos*, or the herb with sticks. Whoever has been in Peru, and has observed the continual use of the mate, is alone competent to judge of the riches which must have accrued, and daily do accrue to the province of Paraguay,

8 AMERICA.
Political and Moral State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.
Herbs for
dyeing.

from this commodity, even allowing it to be sold at the low price of six piasiras each bushel.

Amongst the herbs for dyeing, and which are exceedingly numerous, those most worthy of notice are the anil, or indigo, and the cochineal. The latter, however, is not a plant, but an insect growing upon a plant called nopal, which, with the exception of the leaves, resembles in every respect the tunas of Andalusia.

The insect resembles in shape the lady-bird, and, when arrived at its full size, is no larger than a flea. It feeds and lives on the nopal, and deposits its eggs on the leaves. The juice of this plant, which is its only moisture, is converted into its own substance; and, instead of being fluid and aqueous, assumes a beautiful carmine hue. In the months of May and June, the plant is in the most vigorous state, and this is the most favourable time for depositing on the leaves the almost imperceptible eggs; a task which the Indians perform with the most wonderful patience; and, in the short space of two months, it arrives at the state we have mentioned; but, in the mean time, it is exposed to a multiplicity of dangers. The northern blasts and violent showers of rain carry away the eggs, and the frost withers and destroys the leaves; nor are there any other means of preventing these calamities, than by making fires at some distance, and filling the air with smoke, which preserves them from the inclemency of the weather. They are exposed to no less danger from different birds which hunt after them, and from the grubs which are engendered in the nopal; and, notwithstanding the greatest vigilance to prevent these disasters, the loss is very great. When the insects have attained their full size, they are gathered into glass vessels, taking care not to let them fall; but of this there is no danger when they are at liberty on the leaves, on which they enjoy a most delicious food, as if in their own habitations, skipping from one leaf to another without leaving the plant, so that it is no unusual thing to see the leaves entirely covered with insects. After they have been in the glass vessel some time, they die, and are put into bags. The Indians have three different methods of killing them; one with hot water, another by fire, and, thirdly, by exposing them to the sun; and hence proceed the different degrees of colour, which is sometimes dark, at others very lively, it being always necessary to proportion the heat, and those who make use of hot water know the precise point to which it should be heated. Those who prefer fire are also very particular that the heat be moderate, and the fineness of the cochineal, in this case, depends upon the vessel not being heated at the time the insect dies. But, according to the general opinion, the method of exposing them to the sun is the best. Besides, the precaution in killing the insect, a knowledge of the proper time when they ought to be taken off the leaves, is not less necessary to preserve their quality, and experience alone can teach the cultivator this necessary criterion for which no fixed rule can be given. Hence it happens that, in those provinces where the cochineal is cultivated, the inhabitants of one village differ from those of another in the signs which they require for gathering them; and it frequently happens that two in the same village do not agree. The cochineal, in some respects, may be compared with the silkworm, particularly in depositing its eggs. The insects reserved for this purpose are caught at their full growth, and put into a box tightly closed, and

Cochineal.

in this prison they deposit their eggs and die. The boxes are kept shut till the time for placing the eggs on the nopal, and the quantity contained in the shell of a hen's egg is sufficient to cover a whole tree. The most singular circumstance attending the insect is, that it does not injure, in the smallest degree, the plant on which it feeds, only extracting from between the slender segment of the leaf the most succulent part of the juice. The principal places in America in which the cochineal is cultivated, are Oaxaca, Xacalla, Cholula, New Galicia, in the kingdom of Mexico, in Guatemala, and Chiapa, in Loxa and Ambuto, in the kingdom of Quito, and in Tucuman, and some other provinces of Peru. But the greatest quantity is produced in Oaxaca, as the inhabitants of all the towns make this their only employ, and carry on a very extensive trade in this article.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

The indigo plant is about two feet high, and has long, round leaves: the nil which is extracted from the leaves, differs from that which is procured from the branches; the first kind is distinguished by the name of Serguise, from the village where it is prepared, situated a few leagues from Surat, in the East Indies. The nil is prepared in the following manner: when it begins to lose its foliage the plant is cut, and the collateral branches are stripped off and put into a sufficient quantity of water, in a hoghead, and left in infusion from thirty to thirty-six hours; afterwards the vessel is somewhat inclined, so that the water, which has already assumed a green colour, almost approaching to blue, may ooze into a vat; then with poles, in the form of a pestle, capped with iron, it is agitated and churned till the surface is covered with scum. In this state they infuse a proportionable quantity of oil of olives; one pound of oil is sufficient for the liquor extracted from seventy pounds of nil. After it has undergone this operation, the scum, which resembles the froth of milk, is taken off, and the liquor is left to settle. When it has remained in this state a competent time, the cork is opened, and the water runs off, leaving the dregs in the bottom like lees of wine. The sediment is then put into small linen bags till the water ceases to flow. Finally, it is placed in shallow wooden boxes, and the nil is prepared. When the top of the nil is covered with a dark violet colour, it never fails to be good. There are several methods of judging of its quality: if the surface of the water be of a dark violet colour; if the nil, when stirred gently with a nail, yield a copper colour, rather inclining to red; if when broken it neither moulder into dust, nor discover any white particles within, it never fails to be of a genuine kind. The second species is prepared in the same manner as the former, with this exception, that the leaves and branches make part of the composition. The best kind comes from Guatemala. When it is melted in the fire like wax, and leaves little recement behind, it is an evident sign that the nil is good. That which comes from St. Domingo resembles the former, except that it has not such a lively colour, yet for its good quality it holds the second rank; that of Jamaica the third, and that from the Windward islands the fourth; all of which are esteemed in proportion to their cleanness and purity. It is used in the composition of dyes, and by washerwomen to give a fine colour to their linen. Painters pound it with white lead, because of itself it turns black; when mixed with yellow it becomes a beautiful

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

Mica.

green. Confectioners and apothecaries use it to give a blue colouring to their respective confections, and to tinge their syrup with violet. In New Spain, they call the plant *guisquil*; or, more properly, *hualquil*.

The membranaceous mica, otherwise nursery-grass, is also found here in the greatest perfection, both with respect to its transparency and the size of its lamina. The country people make artificial flowers of it, and, like the Russians, use it for windows, the thin plates which it forms being preferable to glass, from their being pliable and less fragile, and possessing, what appears to be a peculiar property, of freely admitting the light, and a view of external objects to those within, whilst persons without are prevented from seeing any thing in the house.

Gums.

An infinite number of the trees exude gums of a resinous, mucilaginous, and balsamic nature; among these may be enumerated the liquid-amber *steracitum*, of two species, the *croton sanguinum*, yielding the gum called dragon's blood, and of which there are three species, the *dividivi*, a tree like the tamarind, and affording an excellent black dye; the *storax officinalis*, exuding through its pores a fragrant gum of this name, which is used for incense in churches, and is also of use in pectoral complaints; the aloes, of great medicinal virtues, and of which there are seven or eight species; the anime, called by the French *carbaril*, and which, dissolved in spirits of wine, has been found effectual against the gout and nervous complaints; and the *sarasapilla*, the *sassaparilla*, and the *guaiacum*, an infusion of which is so often used for purifying the blood, and which has been found peculiarly efficacious in venereal complaints, but it must be taken regularly for forty days to produce any good effect, at the rate of one pound per day, the patient using for his ordinary drink a weaker portion of the same decoction.

Balsam of
Tolu.

The famous balsam of Tolu takes its name from a town so called in New Granada. It is a resinous, dry, solid gum, of a bright yellow colour; it is of an agreeable scent and good taste, in which last particular it differs from other balsams, which are sour and bitter. It is procured, by incision, from a tree resembling a small fir, whose leaves are always green. This balsam is greatly esteemed, and is brought into Europe in small cocoa-nut shells, about the size of a lemon, and possesses the same virtues as the balsam of Gilead. In the Pharmacopoeia of London, it enters into the composition of balsams; but its principal virtue consists in curing the greatest wounds with wonderful celerity. The Peruvian bark, so famous at present for curing intermittent fevers, is peculiar to this country. It is distinguished into three kinds—red, yellow, and white; but the red is found to be the best and most efficacious. The Jesuits carried this bark to Rome as early as 1639, but the natives are supposed to have been acquainted with its medicinal qualities many ages before. Amongst the other medicinal plants, ought not to be omitted the *calaguala*, the decoction of which is the most powerful specific known for extracting bad humours; the *accinchinali*, of wonderful virtue in dissolving and expelling extravasated blood, and healing internal wounds; the *magney* and *gonyubs*, of similar virtues; the *canchalagua*, and the *culen*, both extraordinary fine vermifuges, the former being also a good antiscorbutic, and useful in the quartan ague, not to mention others indispensable in our Pharmaco-

peia, or necessary to our comforts, such as *jalap*, *S. AME-*
tobacco, *giager*, *pimento*, &c. *RICA.*

Political
and Moral
State.

In the southern provinces, where the moisture of the climate is aided by the warmth of the sun, the woods are almost impervious, and the surface of the ground is hid from the eye under a thick covering of shrubs, of herbs, and weeds. In other parts, although the forests are not encumbered with the same wild luxuriance of vegetation, the trees of various species are generally more lofty, and often much larger, than are to be seen in any other parts of the world. The trees are often so thick as to afford 600 planks, Forest-trees. each of twenty feet long and of one foot and a half in width, and some have measured twenty-four yards in circumference. In Chili alone there are known ninety-seven different kinds of trees, only thirteen of which shed their leaves: amongst the plants of that kingdom there are 3,000 not mentioned in botanical works.

Of all the trees in America the largest is the *ceiba* (*bombax ceiba*). It produces a sort of white wool, very fine and soft, which they apply to several purposes. A very brisk trade is carried on in this article in the district of Puerto Viego, in the province of Guayaquil and kingdom of Quito. Of the tree they make boats of one entire piece. In Darien is a hollow tree of this species, in which twenty persons have sat down to dinner. The *quebrachs*, or *break-hatchet*, takes its name from its excessive hardness: there are two species, red and white. In Buenos Ayres they make of this wood axletrees for the cars, which, in Tucuman, sometimes cost 1,800 or 2,000 piastres, on account of the great difficulty and expence of the carriage; but they last for ever, and the expence which has once been made need never be renewed.

The *mangle* is a tall, bulky tree, which grows spontaneously near the sea-coast; the wood is very strong and straight, and therefore much used in building houses. Lemori says there are three species. The largest is 25 feet high, and 20 inches in diameter. The manner in which this tree grows is very astonishing: from the branches, which are flexible, high, and long, there issue small bunches of filaments, which reach the ground, spread, and strike, and, in a short time, become as large as the tree from which they proceeded; in this manner they increase in such a degree, that whole woods spring from a single tree; and Frazer, in the account of his voyage, says, that in the island of Cayenne, the creeks are grown over with mangles, and that the oysters adhere to the trunks and to the branches which hang downward and are covered by the tide, and there breed. The wood of the mangle is solid, heavy, and has very long close grains, and is used in making boats; the leaves resemble those of the pear-tree; the flowers are small, and are succeeded by berries similar in outward appearance to those of the cassia. These berries are filled with a pulp like marrow, of a bitter taste: some Indians eat it, when they cannot procure better food. The root is soft, and is used by fishermen to cure the bites of venomous animals. These trees are so thick and their roots so interwoven, that in many places you may walk 20 leagues without touching the ground. The roots are a great hindrance to fishermen's boats, and afford a safe asylum to the fish.

The *maragon*, producing a fruit so called, is the size of an apple-tree; the fruit is acid and fibrous, and

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

extracted by suction: they make furniture of the timber. The mata-palo, in the beginning, is only a shrub or twig, always growing near some other tree, round which it entwines, and, by its malignant influence, deprives it of all its sap, and prevents it from receiving any more from the earth, and in time dries it up, however strong it may have been, whilst itself continues to increase till it becomes a large tree. Some are 20 geometrical feet in circumference, and are made into canoes. This tree, in Guayaquil, distils a kind of gum, possessing great virtues for healing ruptures. There are five species of mata-palos, which bear a near resemblance to each other.

The pinus cuspidata of America much resembles the European fir, but is of a distinct species. It sometimes grows to such a size, that it measures 90 feet in circumference. The wood is chiefly used in building, on account of its durability. It is transported from the island of Chiloe, where it principally abounds, and forms a very lucrative branch of commerce to Peru. One of these trees contains, in general, from 6 to 800 boards, 20 feet long and half a yard broad. The inhabitants of these islands are so dexterous in the partition of these trees, that they will divide them without the least waste. Molina says, that hogsheds made of this wood will preserve water during a voyage at sea free from corruption.

The Brazil wood derives its name from the country in which it grows. It is found in the greatest abundance, and is of the best quality, in the province of Pernambuco; but it is also found in many other parts of the western hemisphere, and in the East Indies. It generally grows in uncultivated lands and craggy rocks. The tree is large, crooked, and knotty; the leaves are of a beautiful red, and exude an agreeable odour. Notwithstanding its apparent bulk, the bark is so thick, that a tree as large as a man's body with the bark, will not be so thick as the leg, when peeled. The wood is cut into large pieces, without the rind, and is a considerable article of commerce amongst the Portuguese. When cut into chips, it loses the pale colour which it before had, and becomes red, and, when chewed, has a sweet taste. It is used for various purposes by cabinet-makers, and admits of a beautiful varnish; but its principal use is in dyeing red, and though the colour is liable to decay, yet, by mixing with it alum and tartar, it is easily made permanent: they also make of it, by means of acids, a sort of liquid lac, or carmine, for painting in miniature.

Mahogany.

A great deal of mahogany is found about the bay of Honduras, and about the isthmus of Panama, though it is indeed common to all the provinces of South America, and in some grows to an excessive size. From that procured at Panama you may make tables five yards long and two and a half broad of one board. When grown on a barren soil it is hard and of a close grain, and more finely variegated than when it proceeds from damp lands. The ligum vite, chiefly peculiar to the island of Jamaica, is not wanting on this continent, though it is thought to have come originally from Canada: certain it is that one species of it is found in China.

Minerals.

MINERALS.—The minerals of South America form one of the most important and distinguishing features of this continent. Its mines of silver and of gold, as

we have already seen, are richer than any others in the whole world, besides which it abounds in minerals of copper, lead, tin, quicksilver, brimstone, loadstone, and coal. Iron-mines are very rare, though some indications of this metal are found in that kingdom, and the scarcity of it in some parts of other mining districts, as well in Mexico as in Peru, prevents the whole advantages which might otherwise be derived from the inexhaustible sources of wealth, of which the greater portion of this continent, particularly that in and bordering on the Andes, may literally be said to be composed.

It is impossible to give in this short compass an account of the infinite variety of stones and fossils with which this country abounds: vast numbers of them have never been known to naturalists, so as to be classed in their works; but, amongst those of a more curious nature, we may particularize a few. The piedra de erus, or stone of the erous, very much resembles green marble, and is chiefly found in the new kingdom of Granada. In whatever direction this stone be broken, it displays a black cross perfectly drawn, and it is said by the natives to possess a singular virtue in curing the rheum and fevers. The great abundance of this stone makes it very common, and of little value. M. Bommé says that it appears to be a sort of madrepora fossil, whose veins cross each other in such a manner, that whether they are cut horizontally or vertically, there is the figure of a cross, nature filling up the spaces with a hard argillaceous earth. The same author asserts, that the same stone is found in Portugal, Santogne, Normandy, and Guienne, and particularly near Santiago in Galicia; and that the Spanish silversmiths engrave them in gold and silver. The girasol is a precious stone, also found in Granada, partly transparent and partly opaque. It has a milky look, emits a weak lustre blended with blue and yellow, and it sometimes has the colour of the rainbow, or a gilt colour. When cut in the form of a sphere or semi-sphere, it reflects the rays of light every way, but not so well as the opal. It is as yet uncertain whether this stone be a species of the opal or ealedonim. The most beautiful are of a milk-white colour, shaded with blue and yellow beautifully intermixed. This stone, which is harder than the opal, is brought from the east, but those of a softer nature from the west. They are to be met with in the island of Cyprus, Gallieia, Hungary, Bohemia, as well as in several parts of America. Sometimes they are found together, with the opal inclosed in another red tender stone, clouded with black. The name girasol was given to this stone by the Italians. There is a green stone, called echalinites, found in the silver-mines in the kingdom of New Galicia, to which they attribute the virtue of alleviating the pain of the hip-gout, or sciatica. The ancient Americans held these stones in great esteem. They vary in colour, but the most esteemed are green, of which there is a large altar-stone in the cathedral in the town of Puebla de los Angeles.

The Spaniards find on this continent, as also on the sand of the sea-shore of the island of Dominica, a small stone, shaped like a lentil, which they call limpia-ojos, or eye-cleaner. It is put under the eye-lid, and by the

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

Stones and
fossils.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

motion of the eye is carried round the ball, extracting in its way any matter or body that may have got into the eye, and comes out afterwards of its own accord. The mineral naphtha, is of a liquid consistency, clear, pellucid, of a strong scent, and very inflammable, and, when pure, burns without leaving any residuum. It is found in large quantities on the surface of fountains, at the foot of some mountains in Persia, Tartary, and China; and if a light be applied to the surface of the water, it burns for a considerable time, emitting a very offensive smell. Genuine naphtha is very scarce in Europe, and we are as yet ignorant whether it be found in any part of it, that which we have being counterfeit. In America, it is found in the province of Piura, in the kingdom of Peru. When distilled in the alembic it gives an oil, more liquid than the substance, and of a weaker smell. What remains after distillation is very much like amber, and Dr. Hall supposes it has the same principle. He also says, that with an acid extracted from crude marcasite, he has made of this fluid a pellucid and ductile substance, which had all the properties of amber, except consistency and brightness, which produced, by distillation, true salt and oil of amber. The medicinal virtues of naphtha are the same as those of the common petroleum, but less active. The Persians use it both internally and exteriorly, taking a few drops for the choleric; but its chief use is for the lamp.

Of the actites, or eagle-stone, well known in Europe, there are great quantities in Peru, particularly in the province of Huamalis, where there is a complete bed of them. This stone is of a ferruginous nature, and has a cavity within, sometimes full and sometimes empty, and of various figures. Some are round or oval; others again are of a triangular, square, or flat form: the superficies are sometimes smooth and sometimes rough. It was an ancient opinion, that it derived its name eagle-stone from being found in an eagle's nest, and that it had a power of preventing abortion.

The huano, which, according to prevalent opinion, was esteemed nothing but the dung of a bird of that name, bred in the small islands situate in the South sea, is now pronounced by naturalists, and most incontestably proved, to be a fossil earth. In the province of Costa it is used to fertilize the land. One handful of this earth, strewed about the roots of a plant of Indian wheat, makes it grow with such vigour, that it produces two hundredfold. In this manner an incredible quantity of this fossil is consumed. The province of Chancay alone draws from these islands annually 90,000 bushels of huano, and others consume as much in proportion. There is also another earth found here, very analogous to the kaolin of the Chinese; another kind called kovo, producing an excellent black dye, is also found in Chili, and is represented by Feuille and Frazier as superior to the best European blacks.

Quadrupeds.

QUADRUPEDS.—The quadrupeds of America are as numerous, in proportion, as any other part of the living creation in those regions. Those introduced from Europe have, we have already seen, increased and multiplied beyond all example, so that in the provinces of La Plata, in particular, it is impossible for any one to distinguish what animals do or do not belong to himself; and thus each, when he wants horses, goes out and catches as many as he wants, or kills as many

as he requires, though from the latter nothing is taken but the hide, whilst the carcass is left to birds of prey.

The goat has thriven very well, but the sheep have degenerated, and their wool has become extremely coarse, excepting in Chili, where it is as fine as ever. The horses and mules are distinguished for being very sure-footed and active. The horned cattle have acquired much in point of size, while their flesh has become more palatable and nutritive. The sheep breed twice a year, and generally have twins. Their fleeces yield annually from ten to fifteen pounds of wool each. The common price of cattle throughout the country is from fifteen to twenty francs, but in the sea-ports, the price is fixed, by an ancient regulation, at ten crowns, of which the commandant of the port receives four and the owner six.

It is somewhat remarkable that none of the ferocious animals found here assimilate to the lion, the tiger, the wolf, &c. of the old continent. Though under the influence of a similar climate to Africa, even the climate of Peru and of Caracas produce nothing more like the lion than the puma (*felis onza* size jaguars), being equal to its prototype neither in size, fierceness, colour, nor name. Its head, indeed, has some resemblance to that of the lion and tiger. The tail is shorter than that of either of the two last-mentioned animals; it climbs trees, and is at the same time both timid and cowardly, and flies at the sight of a man, so that it does not differ less from the real lion in its natural dispositions, than in the shape of its body in other respects; we have not a complete description of this animal. Modern naturalists place it in the genus of the felices, and in the species of jaguars, which they believe is the ounce of the ancients.

Cunaguara.

The beast most resembling the tiger is the cunaguara (*felis onza*), found chiefly in the province of Guiana: it bears a near resemblance in its shape, actions, and dispositions, and can only be distinguished from it in the size, which is less, and in the difference of the ground brown colour of the spots. It is also called cat, and lobo cerbal, or hart-wolf; it is very like the wild cat, and of the size of a common dog; it feeds on prey like the tiger, and may be tamed if taken young, but it is always necessary to have it chained during the night, or it would destroy all the hens and turkeys that may come in its way. Of all the quadrupeds pertaining to the order of wild beasts, the mochilera (*Didelphis marsupialis*) is, perhaps, the most peculiar to South America. These animals have ten fore teeth in the upper mandible, and eight in the lower; the grinders are large, the tongue grained; and it has a pouch formed by the folding of the skin of the belly, in which it preserves its young, and opens and shuts at pleasure by means of the union of several muscles, and of two bones situated before the pubis. The interior of this pouch is filled with small glands containing a yellow substance, which gives the whole body a fetid smell, but when taken out and dried loses the nauseous odour and acquires that of musk. This animal is a native of South America. It is said that the female brings forth five, six, or seven at a birth, and that as soon as they are born she deposits them in her pouch, and continues to suckle them in it till they can walk. When the young are frightened, they instantly shut themselves in the pouch. The mo-

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-

RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

The anta.

tion of this animal is so slow that a man may easily catch it without running; but they climb trees with great facility, and hide themselves in the leaves, or hang by the tail from the branches. Though it is a voracious animal it feeds on fruit, sugar-canes, and leaves. There are five species, which differ from each other merely in point of size; they are found in almost every part of America.

The anta (tapir iris), also peculiar to America, is about the size of a calf of two months old; it has neither tail nor horns; its head is large and fleshy, the trunk strong and nervous; eyes small, legs short, and body arched like a hog. It inhabits the mountains and dry places, and is a great friend to cleanliness: when hard pressed by the dogs it makes to some river, and swims with amazing rapidity till it finds a safe asylum on the opposite banks. Its aversion to light makes it retire into the thickets. Its hide is ball-proof, and its flesh insipid, yet the Indians eat it, and when young and tender, is by some esteemed very delicate. The anta is found in every part of America, and is sometimes tamed. The Brazilians call it tapir; the Peruvians, ahuaia; the Portuguese, anta; and the Spaniards, danta, or great beast. Many have erroneously inferred, from the multiplicity of names, that there are two distinct species. But the most ferocious animal found in these regions is the famocoio (*Felis famococius*) chiefly found in Paraguay. In figure and bulk it resembles the mastiff, and its head is like that of a tiger; it has no tail: in swiftness and ferocity it is matchless. If any person comes within view of this animal, he may reckon himself as become a secure prey to it, unless he have the opportunity of climbing into a tree to evade its pursuit. When thus disappointed the animal rears his fore feet against the tree, and roars bodeously till others come to his assistance; then they gnaw the tree about the root till it falls to the ground. If the distressed fugitive has no arms to kill them, his death is inevitable. To diminish them the Manmicias Indians, where they are most abundant, enclose themselves in a circumvallation of palisades, and begin to bellow till these animals, attracted by their cries, crowd to them, and begin to gnaw the stakes to find an entrance. Whilst they are thus employed, the Indians shower their arrows upon them with such skill and dexterity that they never let one escape. In this manner they kill great numbers.

Rabo pe-
ludo.

In Guiana is found the rabo peludo, or naked-tail, a voracious animal, of the vulpine species, which is also naturally ferocious, though it principally feeds on birds, seldom appearing abroad in the day. The females have under the belly a sort of pouch, hairy in the inside and close, in which they nurse and carry their young, which are generally attached to the pups, inclosed within the pouch, and do not quit their hold till they can follow the mother. The tail, when reduced to a powder and given in a quantity of about two scruples, possesses great virtue in destroying viscidities in the bladder and kidneys. According to William Piso, there are two other species, less than the one described. The most rare species is about the size of a young cat of two months old, which has a bag at the bottom of the neck, which it fills with mair.

There is an animal of the pig kind, the sus tajacu of Linnaeus, called the pig of the woods, which has an aperture on its back, whence it emits a most intolerable stench when closely pursued. If, on killing the animal,

the part be instantaneously cut out, the flesh affords good eating; but should that operation be neglected, even for a short period, the taint contaminates the whole carcase. The domestic pigs are by no means good, for they feed so much upon beef that their flesh is very hard and coarse. There is an animal of the opossum kind, about the size of a rabbit, called a zurilla, the skin of which is streaked black and white, and is considered of some value. When attacked, it ejects a fetid liquor, which is of so pungent a nature that if it falls on any part of the dress of its pursuers, there is no possibility of getting rid of the stench but by continual exposure to the weather for some months. The zurilla is very fond of eggs and poultry, and sometimes enters a house in quest of its prey; the inhabitants immediately hasten out and leave their unwelcome visitant in quiet possession as long as she chooses to stay; well aware that the slightest attempt to drive her out would expose them to an ejection from the premises for ever.

The alpaca, which may be esteemed a subaltern Alpaca species of the camel kind, is a quadruped peculiar to Peru and Chili; it only differs from that animal in its size and compactness. The neck is long, the head small, the ears large, the eyes round and big, the beard short, and the upper lip a little open. Its legs are rather long in proportion to its bulk, its hoof cloven, and its tail long; its hair is long and rather coarser than that of the vicuña, but fit for spinning: in the parts of generation it also resembles the camel, male and female. Like that ruminating animal, it has four ventricles. The second contains between two ventricles, of which it is composed, a number of cavities calculated to deposit water. This animal, like the camel, is domestic, and will carry from seven to nine stone; it will fall on its knees for the convenient reception and exoperation of its burden. The shape and disposition of the hoof, and the closeness of the hair, will admit neither shoe nor harness; they are slow, but sure-footed even in the most rugged roads. Notwithstanding the great resemblance which the paca bears to the camel, it has some peculiarities which distinguish it from that animal. Destined to inhabit the mountain, amidst snow and ice, it has received from nature many advantages which enable it to endure its hard fate. Like the quadrupeds of the polar regions, it has a great thickness of fat between the skin and the flesh; and so great is the fluxion of blood in its veins, that the most intense colds are incapable of penetrating it; the enormous load of fat with which it is endowed, prevents the blood from being consumed by the excessive heat of the sun. In the ventricle are formed five bezoar stones. The under mandible, like that of the camel, is furnished with six incisors, two canine teeth, and several grinders; but in the upper jaw, the two first kinds of teeth are wanting, in which respect it differs from the camel kind. The ears are pointed, and better made than those of the camel; its nose is simple, its neck straight and well-proportioned, its tail beautiful, and adorned with long hair as soft as wool; it makes a noise like the neighing of a horse. When irritated, it neither assails with its mouth nor beels, but ejects from its nostrils some viscidities on the offender. Some have erroneously asserted, that this viscid matter creates the itch.

The vicuña, though erroneously considered by Count Vicuña.

S. AME-

RICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

Buffon, to be the alpaca in its wild state, is an animal of a different species, though of the same genus and, though inhabiting the same mountains, they are never found in each other's company. The vicuña rather resembles the goat than the camel. Its wool is now well known, and greatly esteemed in Europe, and is made into very fine cloth. The vicuñas are very abundant in the Cordillera of the Andes, and live on the most steep, craggy parts of those mountains: instead of receiving any injury from rain and snow, they, on the contrary, seem to derive much benefit from them; for if they be brought into the plains, they very soon grow lean, and are covered with a sort of ring-worm, which kills them in a short time. Hence it happens, that they have not been reared well in any part of Europe. They feed in flocks, like goats, and they no sooner see a man than they escape with great velocity, driving their young before them. The hunters join in large bodies, surround some hill on which they are known to feed, and following them gently, they drive them towards some narrow passage, over which they have previously drawn a rope, on which they hang bunches of old rags: as soon as the vicuñas, which are naturally timid, see these, they are so frightened, that not daring to proceed any further, and huddling together, they permit the hunters to catch, shear, and kill them. Notwithstanding the great numbers which have been daily killed for the sake of the meat, which is excellent, from the time of the conquest of America, the flocks are still undiminished, and it is probable they must have more than one at a birth.

Alco.

The alco, or native dog of the new hemisphere, does not seem to have differed greatly from that of the old, except that it possessed not the power of barking. The natives of St. Domingo fattened them with care, and accounted their flesh a great delicacy. The number and variety of the canine species are now so great in various parts of this continent, as rather to induce the belief that all that do bark were not brought from the eastern hemisphere. Any description of the monkey tribes would lead into a detail too extensive: suffice to say, that they are found in all the variety known in other parts of the globe.

Birds.

Birds.—The woods and groves of South America abound with various birds of exquisite plumage, and melodious voices, many of which are not known in the Old World. The trill, or thrush of Chili, has a note equally harmonious with that of the European; but, as if partaking of the associations produced by the boundless extent of their native regions, they always pine and die if confined in a cage; its flesh exhales a disagreeable smell, and these two circumstances cause them to be so little sought after, that they are extremely abundant. There is a curious bird which they call in Peru the *predicador*, or preacher, from its imitation of a person preaching, in its natural action and gestures; its flesh is very good to eat. The *mono* has the extraordinary talent, in its whistling, of imitating the voices of men, dogs, and all other animals; but what is still more singular is, that not possessing the means of defending itself from its enemies, on account of the shortness of its beak and claws, it searches protection in the company of wasps, with whom it lives in the strictest union, and builds its nest in such a manner that they may defend it. This bird may, perhaps, be the same with the *cuchucho* of the Portuguese. There

is another bird which the Spaniards call the *organo*, from its imitation of that instrument; and another the *trumpeter*, from a similar power of imitation.

The *carquinqui*, or *lince's* bird, is larger than a hen, and is considered the domestic fowl of Peru. It spends the whole day in the useful occupation of clearing the fields of insects, and in the evening returns home to sleep. It is a mortal enemy to the snake, which it attacks, opposing its wing as a shield to guard against the sting; and having killed the snake, it separates the head from the body and eats it. The inhabitants of Quito say, that if the snake happens to bite the bird it runs immediately in quest of a herb which is a secure remedy for the poison.

Eagles, both of the grey and blue species, as well as other birds of prey, are found here in great numbers. Here are also parquets in immense flocks, pigeons, great red-legged partridges, small partridges, wild ducks, and wild turkeys. Ostriches of a large species are very numerous; they are so fleet and active that even when well mounted it is impossible to get near them but by surprise: the stroke of their wing is said to be inconceivably strong.

The condor of America is said by Molina to differ in colour only from the vulture of Switzerland, called *laemmen gryer*; this immense bird, the largest hitherto known, builds its nest on the rocky prominences in the most rugged parts of the mountains. They lay two large eggs, far exceeding in magnitude those of the turkey. Their usual food is the flesh of animals which they find dead, or which they kill: like wolves they frequently attack flocks of sheep and goats, and will kill calves a year old when separated from the mother. To effect this several of them unite, and besetting the calf on a sudden they surround it, with their wings extended, and pull out its eyes that it may not escape, when they tear it to pieces in a moment. The peasants, who watch every opportunity of destroying these aerial pirates, wrap themselves in the skin of an ox newly slain, and lay themselves flat on the ground: the condor, deceived by the appearance, thinking it some dead body, approaches the peasant, who immediately seizes their legs with his hands, which are protected with strong gloves. As soon as the bird is seized, other peasants, who had lain in ambush, run to assist in securing and killing the captive. Others more cautious make a small inclosure with palisades, and place in it the carcass of some dead animal: the condor, whose eye is very piercing and sense of smell very quick, immediately falls upon it, and loads itself in such a manner that it cannot rise on the wing, through the small extent of the inclosure; otherwise, if it gets upon any eminence it flies with the greatest ease, however much it may have eaten, rising to a such a height that it hides itself entirely in the clouds, or looks no larger than a thrush.

The *frigate*, or *frigate*, has its name from the circumstance of its being seen soaring out at sea at the distance of 300 leagues from land, though it cannot support itself on the water. It is about the size of a hen, but its wings are very long: with these it skims above the surface of the water with great ease, and strikes with such dexterity, that it never misses its aim. It pursues other sea-fowls for the sake of the fish which it takes out of their bellies. Father Lobat says, that its flesh is rank; it is very nourishing, and tastes something

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

The condor.

S. AME-
RICA.

Faithful
and Moral
State.

like the water-hen. Its grease, applied as an ointment, alleviates rheumatic pains. As it always follows ships, the appearance of this bird is looked upon as a certain sign that some vessel is at no great distance. There is a small island not far from Guadeloupe, called the island of Fragatas, from the great numbers which resort thither to pass the night and to build their nests. This bird is not now very common; the diminution of their species is owing to the great quantities that have been killed for the sake of their grease. The hunters strike them on the head with thick sticks, and they fall stunned to the ground. Two or three fishes, of the size of herrings, have been taken, half-digested, out of their stomachs.

The tropic (phantom) wetherus can soar as high as the frigate, but has the power of resting itself on the water, being able to swim like a duck. The Indians very much esteem the long feathers in the tail, with which they adorn their heads, and even thrust them through the cartilage of the nose to imitate mustachios.

FISH, REPTILES, INSECTS, &c.—Amongst the amphibious animals of the creation none is more worthy of remark than the caiman, or alligator. The species found in America are, in many instances, different from the crocodile of the Nile, the first having no voice, whilst the latter can cry like a child. Its colour is grey, its aspect ferocious, and it is covered with a shell so very hard, that it is impenetrable to ball, which protects all its body in such a manner, that it is impossible to hurt them, except in the eyes and in a tender part under the fore-legs. It is very timid, and flies at the least noise; but when tempted to human flesh it is voracious and daring. The eyes are situated in two prominences, which are the only part of it that are visible when it is in the water; it comes to land to bask in the sun and to eat, which it cannot do in the water; it swallows a quantity of large stones, which serve as weights in its stomach to make it sink in the water; the mouth is very formidable, being furnished with seventy-two teeth, the twenty grinders being in double rows in each jaw. The flesh is insupportable to the taste, and the oil extracted from it is such as; nor can its bones or shell be turned to any advantage. The stomach has a strong smell of musk, extremely fetid. The caiman is excessively abundant in the rivers and creeks, and along the sea-coast. The female lays at each incubation 40 or 100 eggs, like the ostrich, which she deposits in the shore, making a hole and covering them with sand, at the same time counterfeiting others, to prevent them from being discovered. But the gallenazos watch them from the trees, and as soon as the caiman retires, they descend to pull them out and eat them. If it were not for those birds, and for the circumstance of the old alligators eating their young ones, which they do till the latter are too large for them to swallow, they would soon vie in numbers with the flies. The eggs which escape the search of the gallenazos remain in the sands forty days before the embryo arrives at a state of perfection, at which time the female returns and takes them out. Experiments have several times been made of covering them with dung, and they never failed to come out at the aforementioned period. Some have been seen in the rivers Guayaquil and Magdalena 24 feet in length. The head of a full-grown alligator is about three feet long, and the mouth opens nearly the same length; the

eyes are comparatively small, and the whole head in the water appears, at a distance, like a piece of rotten, floating wood; the upper jaw only moves, and this they raise so as to form a right angle with the lower one. They open their mouths while they lie basking in the sun, on the banks of rivers and creeks, and when filled with flies, mosquitoes, and other insects, they suddenly let fall their upper jaw, with surprising noise, and thus secure their prey. They have two large, strong, conical tusks, as white as ivory, which are not covered with any skin or lips, and which give the animal a frightful appearance. In the spring, which is their season for breeding, they make a most hideous and terrifying roar, resembling the sound of distant thunder. The alligator is an oviparous animal; their nests, which are commonly built on the margin of some creek or river, at the distance of 15 or 20 yards from the water, are in the form of an obtuse cone, about four feet high, and four or five in diameter at their bases. They are constructed with a sort of mortar, made of a mixture of mud, grass, and herbage; first, they lay a floor of this composition, on which they deposit a layer of eggs, and upon this a stratum of their mortar, seven or eight inches thick, and then another layer of eggs; and in this manner, one stratum upon another, nearly to the top of the nest. The Indians in Guayaquil catch them

with the tolete, which is a very strong piece of wood, shaped into three-quarters of a yard long, sharpened at both extremities: at an equal distance from each end they tie a thong of ox-hide, which they keep in their hands, and play with the caiman with great dexterity and in perfect security; for though it can run swifter than a horse, yet, as it has no joints to assist it in turning, it is obliged to circumscribe a circle with the whole length of its body, so that by a single turn they laugh at the ferocity with which it runs to its prey with its deformed mouth wide open. When they have fatigued it by frequent attempts to catch them, they thrust the tolete horizontally into its mouth, placing it erect when it enters, by which means it remains fastened in both jaws. It was not known that this animal was productive of any good before the year 1721, when it was discovered, by a negro in the city of Panama, that the grinders are an efficacious antidote against all sorts of poison, by only placing them in some part where they may touch the fish. From a number of experiments, which have confirmed the truth of this circumstance, it is customary to wear rings, crosses, &c. made of the grinders of the caiman.

The lizards, and other amphibious reptiles of that Other genus, found in the waters of the Orinoco and Amazonas, are innumerable, all differing in some slight degree of variation. The iguana, which is about a yard long, has frequently found in its inside a stone about as large as a small turkey's egg, which is of a pale ash colour, and composed of different coats of lumina like an onion. Reduced to powder, and taken in warm water, it is a most efficacious remedy against the stone. The liron, also amphibious, is very small and beautiful, resembling the dormouse. The greatest singularity respecting it is that its belly is divided into two skins, which it opens and shuts at pleasure, like a doublet, pressing the sides together with such force that the juncture is scarcely perceptible. These two skins are lined, interiorly, with a soft and almost imperceptible fur. Within these skins the female carries

S. AME-
RICA.

Faithful
and Moral
State.

Fig. rep-
sents, in-
sects, &c.
The Allig-
ator.

Made of
tolete, which
is a very strong
piece of wood,
shaped into
three-quarters
of a yard long,
sharpened at
both ends.

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

six young ones, attached to the umbilical gut and to a small twisted nipple, which each young one holds in its mouth, from its first formation till it is brought to light. Hence if you catch a female fifteen or twenty days gone with young, on opening the belly, you may discover the six young of the size of small mice, in the surprising and unnatural state in which they are engendered thus supported, which is as singular as to cause universal admiration. In the province of Venezuela it is called the little water-dog.

Sea-cow.

The manati, or sea-cow, is a large amphibious animal, which seems to correspond with quadrupeds by the junction of the fore feet at the breast, and with the cetaceous as being destitute of hind legs and feet, and has only in place of these a very large tail, which it spreads like a fan horizontally; the head is larger than that of an ox, the eyes small, and is without an iris, and the holes which conduct to the organs of hearing only a line in diameter; it has no teeth in front, but a hard callous substance which serves to cut the grass, and thirty-two grinders; it is also destitute of a tongue. It has two fins placed near the head; the skin is an inch thick, and is covered with hair of an ash colour. Its usual weight is from 5 to 600 lbs.; the flesh is good and fresh, and tastes rather like real than fish, and is more esteemed when dried and pickled. The fat is as sweet as butter, and the skin is made into thongs, &c. It likes the fresh water better than the sea, and is found in abundance in the Maragnon and the Orinoco.

Sea-lion.

The sea-lion is more active, beautiful, and better shaped than the other phocæ, though of a roundish form, and covered with a dark-brown hair; its back, from the shoulders to the tail, is very short; the neck and head are long, like those of the goat; its mane is very conspicuous, and gives it something of the outward appearance of the African lion, and an exclusive right to be called the lion-marine, or sea-lion. The name which Admiral Anson gave it, and which Linnaeus afterwards adopted, is certainly very improper. The Indian natives of Chili, being unacquainted with the lion, gave it the name of thopel-lame, or the hairy-lame. It also bears a striking resemblance to the African lion, in the shape of its head and in the nose, which is long and flat, and bare from half the length to the end.

The amphibious tortoise differs from the land tortoise by its size, deformity, and feet, which are adapted for swimming, and resemble the fins of a fish. The Indians take them in great quantities. For this purpose they wait till they come out to lay their eggs in the sand, and then going on one side, turn them on their backs without a possibility of their being able to rectify themselves, on account of the flatness of their shell. They are from two to four feet long, two or three broad, and some weigh 400 lbs. They lay about 300 eggs at each incubation.

Fish.

In the South sea, on the coast of the kingdom of Quito, there is a fish, called manta, which is found in such shoals that it has given its denomination to the port of that name. It is very large, resembling the porpoise, and the body is surrounded with a membrane of an oblong figure, three or four yards long and two broad, and nearly a hand in thickness. With this skin it seizes a man, of whom it is the mortal enemy, and squeezes him till he is drowned. For this reason the

divers carry with them a knife with two edges, and as soon as they perceive the fish begin to cover them, before they press them tight, they take the knife and cut all round; and thus, after frequently stabbing the creature under the belly, at once kill it, and ensure their own safety. For the epicure there is an endless banquet furnished by the rivers of South America; the boguilla, of delicious flavour, is common to the lake of Chucuito, in Peru; it is about four inches long, and three broad; the Indians sell them at six dollars per thousand. The guacurito is plentiful in the Orinoco; its great characteristic is its great partiality for blood, which is so predominant, that a few drops on the side of the canoe will draw them in shoals. The capitan is a delicious savory fish, found in the rivers of the kingdom of New Granada. It is the bagna of other provinces, but those caught in Granada have a more delicious taste than those of any other part. It has been remarked, that when the bones of the head are separated, each one represents some one of the instruments of the passion of our Redeemer, forming the spear, cross, nails, &c. The common bagna of South America abounds in most of the rivers, and is properly esteemed one of the most delicious fishes. The bobo, or fool, is also very common, having its name from the facility with which it suffers itself to be caught.

The snakes of South America are, generally speaking, large and venomous. The boa (constrictor magnus) is said to have the property of attracting with its breath birds and other animals for its prey. It is a native of America, and is found in many parts of that country; it has 240 rings on its belly, and 60 on its tail; it is amphibious, and so very large that some are upwards of 36 feet in length; the body is very thick, greatly resembling the trunk of a large tree; it is of a dusky pale colour, and the upper part of the back is marked with numerous spots; the tail is of a darker colour, and the sides are beautifully speckled; the head is covered with small scales, and it has a black streak a little above the eye; it has no grinders, nor is its bite venomous; the tongue is fleshy, and very thin; the part above each eye is a little elevated; the scales are small and very smooth, and the tail is not more than one-eighth part of its body. The Indians adore this monster, the skin serves as an ornamental part of their dress, and the body is eaten by them.

It generally lives in caverns and very thick woods, taking its station near some tree, round which it twines its tail and springs out upon any thing that passes within its reach. As soon as it has got possession of its prey, particularly if it be some large animal, it surrounds the body, squeezing it very hard to break the bones, which it readily accomplishes by the force of its circular muscles: after this is done, it passes its tongue over the skin, leaving on it a kind of saliva, to facilitate deglutition, and by degrees swallows it. If its prey happen to be a deer, or other horned animal, it begins at the hind feet and finishes at the head, leaving the horns hanging out of the mouth till the body is digested, and they then fall. After it has devoured a large animal, it is incapable of motion for two or three days. The hunters, when informed of this circumstance, avail themselves of the opportunity and kill it. When irritated, it sends forth terrible hisses. It frequently rolls in mire, and then hides itself among the fallen leaves, waiting for prey near some path fre-

S. AMERICA.

Political
and Moral
State.

S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.

quenched by wild beasts; and in this state the hunters have sometimes set their foot upon it, mistaking it for a fallen tree. This snake is found in the kingdom of Terra Firma, in the kingdom of New Grenada, and in many other parts of America. In the province of Chaco they are called ampalabas, and by the Dutch, in their colonies, smugglers.

The flying snake is peculiar to the province of Guayaquil, in the kingdom of Quito, where it is, with great reason, more feared than any other. It is about three palms in length, slender, of a dark colour, and very venomous. The vulgar persuade themselves that it has hidden wings, which it expands when it wishes to fly; but its flight is nothing more than a contraction of the body, and the flying off like an arrow, taking incredibly large jumps. This snake is the chinchinton of Guatemala.

The coral snake is a yard long, and of an inch in diameter, with a very beautiful skin; but its bite is instant death. The effect is so instantaneous, that the person who is bitten immediately swells and begins to shed blood from every part of his body, all his veins being burst, and he expires in an instant, drowned in his own blood. There are very few who are cured of the bite of this animal; and if it happen to be in a vein, it is absolutely impracticable, because the activity of the poison does not allow time to apply the proper remedies. This serpent is very frequent in every part of America. Bonare confounds it with the yacumam of the Amazonas, but the difference between them is very great.

The distinguishing mark of the rattle-snake is, that it has a rattle in the end of its tail, consisting of several sounding shells, or rather a small shelly bag with a little bone in the inside, which rattles when the animal moves, and serves to warn those who hear it to guard against its bite, which is mortal. It every year receives an increase of one bell, or rattle. There are five species: the horridus, or American rattle-snake, is of a deep orange colour, or blackish on the back and ash-coloured on the belly, from four to five feet long. The second is the miliar, ash-coloured, with black spots, peculiar to Carolina. The third, the dryinas, of a whitish colour, with a few spots of yellow. The fourth, the darysus, spotted with white and yellow; and, fifthly, the mutus, of a rhomboidal figure, with black spots on the back, and a streak of the same colour behind its eyes. This last is a native of Surinam. They are all found in North and South America, where they are very numerous; the bite of any of them is so extremely venomous, that it kills in a very short time.

There is no cause operating more powerfully against the comfort of the inhabitants of these regions than that of the numerous kinds of insects with which they are infested. In every city and colony they are, almost without exception, equally annoying; and most of them unknown to European climes. The comenjan is a very diminutive insect, resembling the moth in its destructive qualities, but so very active, that, in the space of one night, it will penetrate the hardest substances; and there have been instances of its having perforated from one side to the other, in the above-mentioned time, a bale of paper, containing 24 reams. It is very frequent in hot, rainy countries; and the greatest precaution is necessary to prevent it from entering the

magazines, for it would destroy every thing in a very short time. Tar is generally used to prevent its effects; and quicklime is recommended by Linnaeus.

The coya is a very venomous insect, generated in the hot provinces, such as that of San Juan de los Llanos, and particularly in the plains of Aciva. It is the same shape and size as that which is known in Europe by the name of cochinita de San Anton, or cochineal of St. Anthony. It neither stings nor bites; but if it happen to burst, and its blood touch any part of the body, except the soles of the feet and the palms of the hands, it is said to produce violent and often fatal convulsions. As this is the effect of a sudden coagulation of the blood, the ordinary remedy is to make a fire of straw, and expose the patient freely to the action of the flames. The instinct in animals which are pasturing and see one of these insects near them is very singular; they instantly snort and gallop off in another direction.

The mosquito de Gusano is of a cream-colour, and when it bites it leaves behind the seed of a small grub, which increases daily in magnitude. At first it is covered over with a skin, and causes very intense pain. It afterwards breaks out into a wound, and, if not properly attended to, ends in a gangrene, which puts an end to the existence of the unfortunate sufferer. This insect has been extended to several provinces in which it was not formerly found, by means of the cattle.

The nigua is a very small kind of flea, which easily penetrates the stockings, and introduces itself under the nails and into the joints and top of the toes. The pain which it causes on piercing the skin is like the bite of a common flea. As soon as it has fixed its situation, it begins to corrode the flesh around it, and causes a slight itching. In this state it attains the size of a small pea and lays its eggs, which are so many other young niguas, which settle near the mother, and live in the same manner, increasing with such wonderful celerity, that if care be not taken to pull them out, they corrupt all the flesh near them, and cause malignant ulcers and frequently gangrenes. When the bite of the nigua is felt, any bad effects may be easily prevented by breaking the skin where the insect is situated, which is readily known by the colour; and gently removing the skin, it may be extracted with the point of a needle, putting a pinch of snuff, or ashes out of a tobacco-pipe, into the wound. The greatest care is necessary to prevent any wet from entering the sore part, as it would infallibly occasion spasms. The negroes and other people of colour, who are very dirty, frequently lose the use of their feet for want of dislodging these insects at the proper time, and many have been obliged to submit to amputation of the leg. Pigs are also very subject to this disease, and their feet are always full of this insect. In Peru it is called pigue.

The centipedes here are found from three to ten inches in length, and have the power of hiding with both head and tail, the wound causing a fever and violent pain. There is also a small insect called the alcuva, generated amongst the herbs in Peru, and very prejudicial to the flocks. It eats its way into the inside of a beast, settles in its liver, and causes an ulceration, of which vast numbers die. Salt is the best preservative against it. The ants, in many provinces, are exceedingly numerous, and would be altogether intolerable, but for

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S. AME-
RICA.Political
and Moral
State.Rattle-
snake.

Lacerta.

S. AME-
RICA.
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AMERI-
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*Political
and Moral
State.*

a quadruped peculiar to South America, called the ant-eater, which animal has the power of shooting out its tongue and inserting it into the ant-holes, from whence, when it is covered with them, it withdraws it, and so swallows them by myriads.

But, of the indigenous worms, insects, &c. of this continent, it is hardly possible to give an exact account, any more than of other portions of its natural history. In Chili alone there are thirty-six species of insects; and the tunicated cuttle-fish found here is 150 lbs. weight. In the same province there are thirteen species of crabs and craw-fish found on the coast, and four species in the fresh waters. There are 135 species of land birds, and of quadrupeds thirty-six. The various kinds of esculent fish found upon the coast are computed by the fishermen at seventy-six, most of them differing from those of the northern hemisphere.

Conclusion.

Conclusion.—In the preceding pages has been given, in a condensed form, a general description of the continents of North and South America. As a portion of our tetraquetous globe, the reader will not fail to have seen that in few respects does this hemisphere yield in interest and importance to that of the eastern. Indeed, whilst the drama of human events appears to be losing much of its late vigour and excitement in the Old World, the scene is continually shifting, with magnificent and surprising objects, in the New. Every day produces new actors and actions of accumulated interest, nor is it possible for the spirit of political foresight to divine what will be the denouement of events in a great measure so unparallelled in their importance.

Whilst in the southern hemisphere a whole people

S. AME-
RICA.
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*Political
and Moral
State.*

are successively rising against the constituted authorities of their ancient dominion, we behold in the United States a conglomerated mass of population, consisting, as it were, of the disjected particles of every nation in the universe, a people of yesterday, flourishing under a government and laws in many respects replete with human wisdom; and a population already increased beyond all precedent in the history of empires, widening, in regular yearly succession, the mighty basis of its dominion, and, with a colossal power, threatening to hold in its subjection an extent of coast of some thousand miles, commanding on the one side the ports of the Pacific, and on the other those of the Atlantic. In the British possessions on the Northern Continent, and in the West Indies, it has been shown, are sources of commercial wealth, with which any trading communi- cation with the Old Continent has not been able in profit or amount to yield any parallel, and which are so far from being either exhaustible or likely to decrease, that the open trade to the continent of South America, so much the subject of present speculation, would still augment the value of those islands, from the numerous entrepôts which must necessarily be then established in them.

All further information, therefore, which it has not been possible to include (agreeably to the plan in which it has been treated) in the article America, will be found under those of BRASIL, CANADA, CAPE BAYTON, CHILL, EAST MAINE, HUDSON'S BAY, INDIANS, ISTH- MUS, LAEBANDOR, MEXICO, NEW BRUNSWICK, NEW- FOUNDLAND, NEW SOUTH WALES, NOVA SCOTIA, PARAGUAY, PERU, UNITED STATES, WEST INDIES, and the several United States respectively.

AMERICAN COMPANY, the RUSSIAN. Considerable success having attended the Russian voyages to the Aleutian islands, and along the north-western shore of North America, in the middle of the last century, two Russian mercantile houses, of the names of Schel- koff and Golikoff, projected, in 1785, the formation of a regular company, to encourage the fur-trade of these regions. Schelkoff himself, the head of one of the establishments, was the commander of all their early expeditions. They erected forts for the protection of a chain of factories on most of the islands, and in- duced a number of respectable merchants to join in their extensive and lucrative adventures at the expence of the natives, from whom they did not fail to seize every opportunity of wresting the staple of the district. Many cruelties were charged upon their conduct at this time, and the Emperor Paul was upon the eve of sup- pressing the association altogether, when the company pledged itself, through its active agent, M. Von Resa- noff, to more regular proceedings. In 1799 it was for- mally established with considerable privileges. The present emperor took it under his particular patronage at his accession; and the intelligent minister Ro- manzoff has introduced many useful changes in its constitution. The condition of the fur-collectors of the company, called promischleniks, is said, however, to be still wretched in the extreme, and only to be ex- ceeded by that of the oppressed Alutians, who are, in turn, their slaves.

AMERICANA, in Zoology, a name given by some

writers to a very small animal of the lizard species, found in Brazil.

AMERIMNUM, in Botany, a genus of plants be- longing to the class Diadelphina, and order Decandria.

AMERONGEN, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of Utrecht, and district of Zegst, 14 miles S. S. E. of Utrecht. This town contains 1020 inha- bitants.

AMERPORE, a town of Hindostan, in the district of Mookmynpore, on the N. W. of the Baymatty river. It forms a part of the territories of the rajah of Nepal, and lies at ten miles distance from Mookmynpore, and 137 from Putna, in Bengal. E. lon. 85°, 28'. N. lat. 27°, 31'.

AMERSFORT, a considerable town of the Nether- lands, in the province of Utrecht, on the river Eem, or Ems; the second in importance in the whole pro- vince. It is situated in the midst of meadows, fertile in grain and pasturage, at the foot of a hill called Amersfortberg; and the river, by the assistance of smaller streams, is navigable up to the walls of the town. It was successively one of the towns having a vote among the states of the province; the capital of the quarter of Zoosdyk, in the department of Utrecht; and under the French domination, the chief town of a canton, in the department of Zuyder Zee. This town, which is fortified, forms the principal point of mer- cantile communication between Germany and Am- sterдам, from which it is distant only about 32 miles, and it has intercourse, by well-conducted canals, with

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every part of Holland. There is a glass-house of some note in the place, at least for a Dutch manufactory of this description, and a good trade is carried on in dimities, bombazens, tobacco, and corn. The reformed church, dedicated to St. George, contains the remains of Jacques de Campe, the architect of the Hotel de ville of Amsterdam. The inhabitants are Calvinists, and amount, according to Reichard, to 8,584.

AMERSHAM, See ALMOUDRIAN.

AMERTUTH, or MERTUTH, in Ancient Geography, a small town to the W. of Upper Galilee, which Josephus fortified against the Romans.

AMESBURY (formerly written AMBROSEBURY, and sometimes AMBERBURY), a town of Wiltshire, seven miles and three quarters from Salisbury, and 77½ W. S. W. of London. It is situated on the river Avon, and the parish contains that noble monument of antiquity, Stonehenge, which well claims to be treated in a separate article. See STONEHENG. Amesbury itself is an ancient town, being called, according to some writers, after "a famous prince, Ambrosius" therein buried, and who erected here a British monastery for 300 monks. "It has been thought," says Tanner, "to have been one of the two given by king Alfred to the learned Asserius." In 980, we hear more distinctly of Alfrida, or Ethelfrida, the queen-dowager of Edgar, erecting a monastery for nuns here, of the Benedictine order, who were expelled, in 1177, for their irregular lives, when Henry II. made it dependent on Fout Elvald, in Normandy, and here his queen retired and was buried. It was again separately endowed, however, in 26 Henry VIII. and was surrendered in the thirty-second year of this rapacious prince, valued, according to Speed, at 558l. 10s. 2d. per annum. Ruins of this place are still seen. Mr. Addison was born here. Inhabitants between 700 and 800.

AMESBURY, in North America, See ALMESBURY.

AMERSTRATH'S, a town of Sicily, near the Halcus. It resisted the besieging army of the Romans seven months; but was obliged to yield after a third siege, when the inhabitants were all sold for slaves.

AMETHYST, } *Amethystos, non ebrius, a,*
AMETHYSTINE. } *μέθε, from wine; restraining from wine.*

Applied to the name of a certain jewel, according to Pliny, because it resists drunkenness; an opinion which Plutarch rejects. *Symp. i. 3.*

And the tables, where on men even, stone ben of emeralds, some of amethyst, & some of gold, full of precious stones.

See John Maundeville, p. 333.

PAU. Alack, alack, his lips be sorrowful cold;

Dear soul, he's hot his colour: have ye seen

A stringing heart? all crimson, every drop

Of blood is turned to an amethyst,

Which married bachelors hang in their ears.

For's Broken Heart, act iv. sc. 2.

As for the amethyst so well the herb as the stone of that name, they who think that both the one and the other is so called, because they withstand drunkenness, miscount themselves, and are deceived: for in truth, both are named so of the colour; and as for the leave of the herb, it hath no fresh and lively hue, but resembleth a wineless weak wine, as one may say, that either drinketh that and hath lost the colour, or else is much decayed with water.

Holland's Flucker's Mosaic.

From thee the supple, solid ether, takes

His line celestial; dark of evening tinct,

The purple streaming amethyst is thine.

Thomson's Summer.

High on silver wheels

The ivory car with azure supplies shone, —

The pearl, its emerald amethyst, and all

The various gems, which India's mines afford

To deck the pomp of kings. *Glouce's Leonidas, book iv.*

A kind of amethystine flint, composed of crystals or grains.

Gires.

AMETHYST, in Mineralogy, is a variety of the family of quartz, which was well known to the ancients. That which is found in the East and West Indies is the scarcest and most valuable. It is of a reddish or yellowish violet-blue colour, of different degrees of intensity; and, in its pure state, of the same hardness and general chemical properties as the oriental topaz, ruby, and sapphire. Its shape is usually that of hexahedral pyramids, yet it often occurs in blunt-edged pieces. See MINERALOGY, Div. ii.

By the action of fire, the colour may be extracted, when its transparency causes a double refraction, and such a beautiful brilliancy, that it is sometimes substituted for the diamond, from which it can only be distinguished by its want of hardness. The German amethyst is of a violet colour, and Spain produces three sorts of this gem. Those of Carthagena are esteemed the best in Europe. A spurious kind of amethyst comes from Germany, which contains some lead, and derives its colour from the vapours of the mines. Glass, spars, and crystals may be coloured to form very good imitations. In the year 1690, there were some made in France that would have deceived a lapidary, who only saw them when set. The amethyst may be successfully imitated in glass, by fusing 10 lbs. of clear glass, made without magnesia, with one dram of zaffer, and one ounce and a half of black magnesia.

AMETHYST, in Heraldry, signifies the purple colour in the coat of a nobleman, used in blazoning with precious stones. In gentlemen's escutcheons it is called purple, and in those of sovereign princes mercury.

AMETHYSTEA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Diandria, and order Monogynia.

AMETHYSTINE, in Antiquity, a garment the colour of the amethyst, a medium between the Tyrian and hyacinthine purple.

AMETHYSTINUS, in Conchology, a species of Voluta. Its native place is not known.

AMETHYSTINUS, in Ornithology, a species of trochilus, or humming-bird, native of Cayenne.

AMEWELL, a considerable town in North America, in Hunterdown county, New Jersey, containing about 6,000 inhabitants.

AMGINSKAIA, a small village and fortress, seated on the river Amga, in Russia, about 104 miles S. E. of Yakutsk. This was at one time the seat of the magistracy of Aldan; but at present it does not contain more than twenty farm-houses and a church.

AMHARA, or AMHARA, a division or kingdom of Abyssinia, comprehending all the provinces westward of the Tacaze, those to the E. being included under the appellation of Tigre. Amhara, considered as a province, is confined to a district of about 120 miles in length from E. to W. and about 40 in breadth, lying between the two rivers Basilio and Gesla, immediately S. of Lasta and Begemder. The country is extremely mountainous, and is the residence of the principal nobility of Abyssinia. The natives are described as particularly brave and handsome: they are thought to be superior in arms to double the number

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AMHARA.

AMHARA. of persons in any other part of the country, particularly in the use of the lance and the shield. This district also derives additional importance from the lofty mountain of Gesheh, formerly the place where the king's sons were confined. It is now almost entirely in the power of the Edjon Galla. The language, or dialect of Amhara, has been called the royal language. See the article **AMHARIC**.

AMHERST, one of the twenty-three counties lying between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters, in the state of Virginia, North America. It is seated on the James river, and has a population of nearly 20,000, about one-fourth of whom are slaves.

AMHERST, the county town of Hillsborough, in New Hampshire state, but originally belonging to the state of Massachusetts, when it was called Soubegan West, on account of its being seated on a branch of the river Soubegan; 60 miles from Portsmouth, and 53 from Boston. In the year 1790, an academy was founded in this town, called the Amherst Academy. The town was incorporated in the year 1762, and was about that time greatly infested with wolves, but they are all said to have been expelled in one day by an incessant firing of guns and beating of drums.

AMHERST is likewise the name of a township in Hampshire, Massachusetts, about 91 miles from Boston, and eight from Northampton. There is another township of this name in Cumberland county, Nova Scotia.

AMIA, in Ichthyology, a species of scomber; country not known.

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Amicable is more immediately derived from *amicus*, one who can love a friend.

For, as saith Solomon, the amiable tongue is the tree of life; that is to say, of life spiritual.

Chaucer, *The Parson's Tale*.

And if a man were in distress,

And for her love in business,

Her heart would have full great pite,

She was so amiable and free.

Id. *Resonant of the Rose*, fol. 192, c. 1.

The similitude of her face was cheerful & amiable; but her heart was sorrowful for great love.

Id., 1559. *Father*, ch. xv.

The shepherdes, by reason of the rancour and sodain miracle, we all at us thoroughly taken with a verie great feare. But the angel when he took away this feare with speaking amiable unto them.

Id., *Luke*, cap. ii.

The strength also of the spirit continually encreased in him, daily more and more shewing it self forth in his countenance, in his pace, in his talk, and in his dayes; in all which there was not so much as any one poeint, but it was even full of the spirit of mildnesse and humilitie, of civilitie, of amiablenesse, and of godly wile.

Id., *Luke*, cap. ix. f. 53, l.

He had a most amiable countenance, which carried in it something of magnanimity and meekness, that at the same time bespoke love and awe in all that saw him.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

Now for whatsoever we can love any one, for that we can be his friend; and since every excellency is a degree of amiability, every such vertuous is a just and proper motive of friendship or loving conversation.

By Taylor on Friendship.

As for those differences concerning predestination, which Arminius and his followers have borrowed from the Lutheran divines,

the divines of both parts, in that amiable conference at Leipsic, professed their agreement in all the main and important parts.

By Hall's Peace Maker.

AMIALE

Even those, that break the peace, cannot but prize it: how much more should they bid for it, that are true friends to it; and to that amiable, that attends it!

Id.

I would fain contribute to make womankind, which is the most beautiful part of the creation, entirely amiable.

Spectator, No. 57.

By the irresistible evidence of reason, and by the native amiable-ness of truth and right; by the additional weight of the authority of God, and the powerful motives of religion; a man is of necessity obliged to approve what is good, and strongly invited to act in conformity to that obligation.

Clerke's Sermon.

Xerxes was declared the successor, though not so much by the strength of his plea, as by the influence which his mother Artabanus had over the inclinations of Darius, who was absolutely governed in this matter by the authority she had with him. That which was most remarkable in this contest was the friendly and amiable manner in which it was managed.

Profectus's Connections.

I found the king abandon'd to neglect,
Seen without awe, and serv'd without respect.
I found my subjects amiablely join
To lessen their defects by citing mine.
The priest with pity pray'd for David's race,
And left his text, to dwell on my disgrace.

Prior's Solomon, book iii.

Then dress'd by thee, more amiable fair,
Truth the soft robe of mild persuasion wears:
Then to assenting reason giv'st again
Her own enlighten'd thoughts.

Thomson's Winter.

A heart so well disposed to love virtue for its native amiable-ness and excellence, is secure without any abhorrence of vice.

School of Men.

Or, if the broader mantle be the buck,
He chooses some companion to his suit.
From side to side, with amiable aim,
Each to the other darts the nimble bolt,
While friendly converse, prompted by the work,
Kindles improvement in the opening mind.

Dyer's Fleece.

O wond'rous pair!—Unpassing, pleasing sight!
Where love and virtue amiablely light;
Where death alone is to the victor dear,
And safety's all the vanquish'd wretch can fear.

Brooke's Jeres. Delta, book ii.

AMIALE, or **AMICABLE NUMBERS**, in Arithmetic, are pairs of numbers whose aliquot parts are equal to each other. Though these numbers were previously investigated by Descartes, Christ. Rudolphus, &c. they are said to have derived their present name from Francis Schooten, who, in his *Exercitationes Mathematicae*, gives the following rule, originally suggested by Descartes, for their development. Let $a = 2$ and a be some integer number, such that $3a^2 - 1$ and $6a^2 - 1$ and $18a^2 - 1$, be all three prime numbers; then will $(18a^2 - 1) \times 2a^2$ be one of the amicable numbers, and the sum of its aliquot parts the other. Or, let the number 2, or some power of 2, be assumed; such, that if 1 be subtracted from three times the assumed number, six times the assumed number, and 18 times the square of the assumed number, the three remaining sums may be all prime numbers. Now multiply the last prime number by double the number assumed, when the product will be one of the amicable numbers sought, and the sum of its aliquot parts the other. From the number 2 itself, the first, or least pair of amicable numbers is thus derived: 1 subtracted from three times this sum, gives the number 5; from six times this sum 11; from 18 times its square 71; mul-

AMICABLE
—
AMIANTHUS.

typling which by 4 (the double of the assumed number), we have 284 for one of the amicable numbers, the sum of whose aliquot parts is 220, the other. 18,416 and 17,296; 9,437,056 and 9,363,584 are two other pairs of amicable numbers.

In Leybourne's Mathematical Repository, some properties of amicable numbers, of the Cartesian form, have been lately investigated by Mr. Gough, where a and $a \pm z$ are amicable numbers of a common measure, a , multiplied by the primes x, y , and z .

Dividing a pair of amicable numbers, according to this gentleman, by their greatest common measure, and increasing the prime divisors of these quotients by unity, the products of the two sets thus augmented, will be equal. Put $q =$ the sum of the divisors of a , then if a be given q is given; but q must be less than a ; and if two sets of primes, d, x , and r, y, z , can be found, which will make $(1 \times d)(1 \times x) = (1 \times r)(1 \times y)(1 \times z)$, &c.; and also give the following proportion, as $a : q :: (1 \times d)(1 \times x) : r, y, z$, $-(1 \times d \times x)$ then will $a d x, a r y z$, be amicable numbers. In the amicable numbers of Descartes, no two of the primes, x, y , and z , can be equal; nor can any of them be $= 2$; nor can a be a prime: q must be less than a , yet greater than $\frac{1}{2}a$, and must be a power of 2. If the primes x, y, z be given, making $x \times 1 = (y \times 1)(z \times 1)$, to find if they can constitute amicable numbers: divide $x \times 1$ by $y \times 1$, and call the quotient p ; then if p be not 2, nor a power of 2, the thing is impossible; but if p be the same power of 2, divide $x \times 1$ by $p \times 1$, and put the quotient $= f$; then if f be neither 2, nor a power of 2, the thing is impossible; but if $f = 2^n$, the common multiplier $a = 2^f$.

AMICABLE BENCHES, in Antiquity, benches designed for the advocates in the Roman courts of law (*scamni amicabilia*). Others contend for their being the benches of the assessors, or judges *pedagii* in those courts.

AMIANTHUS, or MOUNTAIN FLAX, in Mineralogy, a species of the asbest family, generally of a silver-white, or very pale green colour. It is sometimes found in small bundles, but is more commonly amorphous. Its lustre is various, from glimmering to highly shining, and is either weak, pearly, or silken. Its fracture is fine, and usually straight and fibrous. When broken it splinters into long fragments. It is sometimes opaque, but mostly rather transparent; it is very elastic, has a greasy feel, and is so soft as to yield to the pressure of the nail. See MINERALOGY, Div. ii.

The amianthus is generally found in serpentine or pot-stone rocks; the purest and best is brought from the Tarentaise, in Savoy, Corsica, the isle of Elba, and Crete; but Zoblitz, in Saxony, Salberg, and Swartwick, in Sweden, Portsey, in Scotland, Cornwall, and the isle of Anglesa, also furnish this mineral. Its fibres are more flexible, and less subject to the action of acids than the more flexible kinds of asbestos, for which it is sometimes mistaken.

The eastern nations early discovered its incombustibility and fibrous texture, and wove it into cloth, which, when dirty, they threw into the fire, whence, without being injured, it came out a bright and shining white.

The Romans used a cloth made of this mineral to wrap the bodies of their friends in, that their ashes might be preserved; but it ceased to be in request

AMIANTHUS.
—
AMICUS CURIÆ.

when it became general to inter instead of burning the dead. A paper may be made of it by the usual process; and the threads of the amianthus may be used as wicks for lamps.

AMIANTHUS, formerly a town of some note, but now an obscure village near Pallandros, in the island of Cyprus, and which is supposed to have derived its name from the circumstance of an abundance of the above mineral being found in the neighbourhood of the Romans.

AMICE, } *Amicio*, amictus, to clothe; It
AMYTTE, } *almuzia*, from *almucia*, so called
as *amiciendo*, Menage. Wachter thinks the barbarous Latin *almucia*, and the French *amasse*, are from the German *mutze*, a covering of the head, from *meiden*, to cover.

Amice is particularly applied to the first of the six vestments common to the bishop and presbyters, which was fastened round the neck, and spread round the shoulders.

Men, knowing y^e words of God, think also that their costly gay amices of calash, are very superfluous and vain.

Bald's Images of both Churches, part iii.

[In the ceremonies of the mass.] The amice on the head is the kerchief that Christ was blindfolded with, when the souldiers buffeted him and mocked him saying: prophesie unto us who smote thee? *The White Wives of W. Tyndall*, &c. f. 277, c. 2.

Thus passed the night so foul, till morning fair

Come forth, with pilgrim steps, in amice gray;

Who with his radiant finger will'd the rose

Of thunder, clasp'd the clouds, and laid the winds.

Milton's Per. Reg. book iv.

We have heard of Aaron and his linen amice, but those days are past; and for your priest under the gospel, that thinks himself the purer, or the cleaner in his office for his new-wash'd surplice, we esteem him for sanctity little better than Apollonius Thyanus in his white frock.

Milton's Deism. on *Rem. Defence*.

How quick ambition hastes to ridicule!

The sire is made a peer, the son a fool.

On some, a priest, succinct in amice white,

Attends; all flesh is nothing in his sight!

Pope's Dunciad.

AMICE, a small island, off the eastern coast of Africa, near cape Delgado, in 8. lat. 10°, 35'.

AMICON, a river of Russia, in Siberia, on which is a settlement for providing travellers with post-horses or rein-deer. This river is the principal source of the river Indjirkra.

AMICTUS, in Antiquity, the uppermost garment worn by priests upon considerable occasions. In Roman Antiquity, the amictus is say garment worn over the tunica.

AMICU, a lake of South America, in the province of Comana. Its waters run S. through the Parima river into the Amazons.

AMICULUM, in Antiquity, an upper garment worn by females; sometimes confounded with the palla. As worn by the men it was also called the *ehlamys*, or *paludamentum*.

AMICUS CURIÆ, in Law. A stander-by may inform the court, as *amicus curiæ*, if a judge is dubious, or mistaken in matter of law. 2 Co. Inst. 178. Or any one, as *amicus curiæ*, may move to quash a vicious indictment; for if there were a trial and verdict, judgment must be arrested.

AMID.
—
AMIENS.

AMID', } A. S. *On-midden*, on-middes (in
Amynar', } Chaucer amiddes), is medio, in the
mid or middle.

A temple *two knode fair y now*, & a *married a middle*,
Dut she told wonder gret, & was ying som be tiddle.
R. Gloucester, p. 14.

The *riche Cressus*, whilom king of Lide,
Of whiche *Cressus*, Circe sore his draddie,
Yet was he caught *emiddes* all his pride,
And to be leen torn to the fire his ladde,
Chaucer. *The Merchant's Tale*.

Out of the fertile ground he caus'd to grow
All trees of subtil kind for sight, smell, taste;
And all amid them stood the tree of life,
High eminent, blooming ambrosial fruit
Of vegetable gold. Milton's *Par. Lost*, book iv.

Amid that scene, if some relenting eye
Glance on the stone where our cold relics lie,
Devotion's self shall steal a thought from heaven,
One human tear shall drop, and be forgiven,
Pope's *Eloise to Abbeard*.

Lo! where the stipling, wrapt in wonder, roves
Beneath the precipice o'erhanging with pine;
And sees, on high, amidst th' encircling groves,
From cliff to cliff the flaming torrens shoue:
White waters, woods, and winds, in concert join,
And echo swells the chorus to the skies.
Beattie's *Minstrel*.

AMID AMER, a ridge of mountains in Abyssinia, once supposed to form part of the Montes Lamee of the ancients. It is, in fact, the centre of a triple ridge, composed of the Afomasha, Amid Amid, and Litchambara mountains, disposed in the form of three concentric circles, the Amid Amid being of an elevation of about half a mile. The whole are curv'd with beautiful pasturage, and the inhabitants, in Bruce's time, are said to have preferred to cultivate the tops, as more secure from the depredations of their hostile neighbours. Villages are scattered over them, built of a white kind of grass, which makes them very conspicuous at a distance. Hail is frequent here, but snow is never seen.

AMIDA, in Mythology, an idol in whom the Japanese place great confidence, and for whom they have built many temples, the largest of which is at Jeddo. Their legend says, that Amida lived some thousand years a life of rigid virtue and humiliation, when, by his own choice, he was translated to another state, and has since been worshipped in Japan. An image of this idol is exhibited at Rome. Camo, the son of Amida, is also admitted into the pantheon of Japan, and has 1000 elegant statues placed in due order in his grand temple, near the city of Menco.

AMIDA, a city of Mesopotamia, mentioned by Ammianus Marcellinus, as having been taken by the Persian king Sapor, with the sacrifice of 30,000 of his veteran troops. It is also called Constantia, in honour of the Emperor Constantius, who fortified it. In a. n. 501, it again sustained a dreadful siege by the Persians, but was restored shortly after to the empire: it relapsed again to the Persians on the decline of the Roman power, and, finally, fell to the Saracens and Turks, the latter of whom call it Diarbeckir.

AMIENS, a city of France, supposed to be the Samarobriva of the ancients. Prior to the Revolution it was the capital of the province, and was the chief town of the Amiennois, as well as of the whole of Picardy. It is now the capital of the department of the Somme, being situated on that river, which is navigable to the town, and contains a population of about 40,000 inhabitants.

AMIENS.
—
AMISS.

It is a pleasant well-built place, having several regular squares, a strong citadel, a cathedral, and other public buildings. A considerable trade in serge and other woollen stuffs, manufactured in the neighbourhood, is carried on by the inhabitants. Here also are manufactures of ribbons, linen, green soap, &c.; so that, in a commercial point of view, Amiens has long held a distinguished rank in the trading towns of Europe; nor is it by any means destitute of interest in the annals of history. The Spaniards, in the year 1597, obtained possession of this town by a singular stratagem. A small body of soldiers, dressed in the garb of peasants, were sent with a cart-load of walnuts. The gates being opened for their admission, the walnuts were so contrived as immediately to fall from the cart to the ground. This circumstance attracted the notice of the soldiers of the garrison, who began eagerly to gather them. While thus engaged, the disguised Spaniards, followed by other troops, entered the town, and soon took possession of it. The celebrated treaty of peace between France and England was signed at this city, on the 25th of March, 1802. Amiens is 10 leagues from Abbeville and 13 from Arras.

The AMIENNOIS is a fertile district, once a generalité, and comprising the greater part of Picardy Proper, the Boulonnois, and Calaisis. It was originally a county under the bishop of Amiens, by grant from the king; it then passed through private hands into the family of the count of Flanders, who undertook a war for its defence against the French crown, in which the latter was victorious. Charles VII. granted it to Philip of Burgundy, but Louis XI. again annexed it to France, and since 1585, when the Emperor Charles V. formally renounced all title to this district, it has remained in the undisturbed possession of that power. M. Neckar calculated its area at 458 square leagues; its revenue at 15,200,000 livres, and population at 533,000.

AMILICTI, in Chaldaic Theology, heavenly beings, the third in order among the intellectual powers, or existences.

AMINEA or AMMINEA, in Ancient Geography, a district of Campanian, noted for its wines. Also a town in Thessaly.

AMIRANTE, in Spanish Naval Affairs, the superior officer of the navy, filling a similar place to that of the lord high admiral of England.

AMIRANTE BAY. See ALMIRANTE BAY.
AMIRANTE ISLANDS, an obscure group of islands in the Indian ocean, to the S. W. of the Sechelles, opposite the coast of Zanguebar, in Africa.

AMISENUS SINUS, in Ancient Geography, a gulf on the Euxine, adjacent to the above town, and called after its name.

AMISS', s. } A. S. *missian*, to err; Dutch,
Amis', adv. } *missen*, to err, to be deceived;
German, *missen*, to want. Chaucer uses *mis*, as well as *amiss*, adverbially.

Error, fault, deceitfulness, deficiency.

After fyfteen dawes, þai he hadde y ordeyned þis
To London he wende, for to ascende þai þer was erpe.
R. Gloucester, p. 144.

"O deunt," said þe king, "þis is a folid man,
"When he with trecheryng þis nyght away so ran.
"þei red him alle a myse, þat counsil god ferde.
Weneþ he our men Ingilise for to trechere so!"
R. Bruce, p. 164.

AMIS.
—
AMIT-
TERE
LEGEM
TERRÆ.

Chaucer also uses *Amysse* as an adjective.

(Thou) hast confessed thyre anyon goyng.

Tyt of Love, book ii.

For in this world certain no wight ther is,

That he no doth or sayth wouten envie.

Chaucer. *The Franklin's Tale*, v. l. p. 450.

We have sinned with our fathers, we have done amysse, and
drall wickedly.

Bible, 1539. Ps. cxi.

To scandalise you is an thing my entent,

But to correcten that is my intent.

Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, vol. ii. p. 243.

O rakel hand, to do so fowle a mys.

Id. *The Manciple's Tale*. lb. p. 274.

Floure of goodnes, root of lasting blisse,

Thou well of life, whose stranges were purple blood,

That flowed here, to crosse the fowle cause

Of sinfull man, behold this brimish flood,

That from my melting heart distilled is.

Fairfax's Toss, book iii. c. 8.

Love is too young to know what conscience is:

Yet who knows not, conscience is born of love?

Then, gentle cheater, urge not my amys

Lest guilty of my faults thy sweet self prove.

Shakespeare. *Sonnet cii.*

As the worm eats out the heart of the plant that bred it, so what-
soever is due *amis*, naturally works to other end but destruction
of him that doth it.

Hale's Golden Remains.

He who labours under a sense of his own defects, honestly owes his
best endeavours to mend what is amys.

William's Religion of Nature.

The sunnits gain'd, behold the proud above

That trowns it yet not all its pride secures

The proud retreat from injury impress'd

By rural carvers, who with knives deface

The panthe, leaving an obscure rude name,

In characters uncouth, and spelt amys.

Crozier's Task, book i.

AMISTOWES, or AMISLOWES, a town in the circle
of Koniggratz, Bohemia, 10 miles S. W. of Bionow.

AMISUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Pontus,
and once the capital of the kingdom. It stood on the
site of the modern Samson.

It was founded by a colony of Milesians and Athenians commixed, and was
originally a free city of Greece, but fell to Pharnaces,
king of Pontus, by conquest, and ultimately to the
Romans, under the command of Lucullus. *PLINY*,
x. 93.

AMIT. } *A. mitto*; to let out; to let go.
AMIS'ION, } To send away; to lose.

Better is water congealed by frigidty of the air; whereby it
acquirith no new form, but rather a consistence or determination of
its diffusivity, and smiteth not its essence, but condition of fluidity.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Many shall further query why magical philosophy excluded
deceptions, and needles transitorily placed do naturally distract
their enquiries? Why geomancers do imitate the quintuple figure,
in their number's characters of acquisition and emission, &c. &c.

He shall not fall on trile or trivial disquisition.

Brown's Garden of Cyrus.

AMITERNUM, in Ancient Geography, a town of
Italy, whose inhabitants assisted Tullius against Æneas;
situated, according to Strabo, on the declivity of a
hill, and once possessing a temple and theatre of some
celebrity. It was taken by Carillus, A. U. 460, and
subsisted until the quarrels of the Guelphs and Gibe-
lines. Nallius was born here. *VIRG.* *Æn.* vii. 710, &c.

AMITTERE LEGEM TERRÆ, or LIBERAM LEGEM,
is a law phrase for a disability to appear as witness in
any court of justice; and is incurred by perjury, out-
lawry, or any other infamy. Defeat in the waging of
battle, a mode of appeal decided in the nineteenth cen-
tury. XVII.

tury to be English law, is also attended with this dis-
ability. *Glanvill.* lib. ii. c. 5 Eliz. c. 9. He that is out-
lawed loses his law, so as to be incapable of suing
any of the king's subjects, but he may be sued himself.

AMITY, *amis*, *amicitia*, to love. See AMIABLE.

AMMAN. Loveliness, kindness, friendliness, affectionate attach-
ment.

For excellent and wonderful art thou (O Lord) and thy face is
full of amys.

Bible, 1539. *Psalter*, ch. 13.

And god sende grace that the spirit of the gospell maye by keynes
lyne the heartes of you in mutual amys amys concord, as your meane
are in this gospell booke aptly coneyned.

Udal, fo. 110, preface.

We bade him speak from whence, and what he was,

And how by stress of fortune sunk thus low;

Archers too with friendly aspect mild

Gave him his hand, sure privilege of amys.

Adrian's Tr. of a Story in Avid III.

Debatful strife, and cruel enmity,

The famous name of brightness slowly shewd;

But lovely peace, and gentle amys,

And in amys the passing hours to spend,

The mightie martiall handes doe most commend.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. 6.

Some conceive it a pleasant sight, in the city of London, to behold
the suitors of the several shires, after hearing of a woman, pass in a
decent equipage to some hall, there to dine together, for the con-
tinuance and increase of love and amys amongst them.

Father's Gen. Worthies of England.

In every cause there were young placentas, and branches of amys,
which the Indians call *E'maihu*; these, as we afterwards learnt,
were brought as tokens of peace and amys.

Cook's Voyages.

AMIXOCORES, a barbarous tribe of Indians, men-
tioned by Alcedo as inhabiting a portion of the king-
dom of Brazil, south of Rio Janeiro.

AMIKAS, in the customs of the Mogul empire, was
the name of the audience-saloon of the emperor, at-
tended by six steps of missy gold, and adorned by a
profusion of emeralds, rubies, and other precious stones.
It was valued at several millions of money.

AMLI, and AMLIAK, two of the Aleutian islands in
the Northern Pacific.

AMLWCH, a sea port in the island and county of
Anglesea, North Wales, 18 miles from Holyhead, and
261 N.W. of London. Before the year 1763, this was
a place of little or no note; but since the fortunate dis-
covery of the copper mines of the neighbourhood in that
year, it has risen into considerable importance, and has
become a town of much business connected with the
working of them. The harbour was made at the ex-
pense of the Parys Mine Company. It was cut out
of the solid rock, and is capable of admitting thirty
vessels of two hundred tons burden each. The mines
are extremely rich with copper ore; they are about
two miles from the town. Here is an elegant modern
church, consecrated by the present bishop of St. Asaph
(then of Bangor) in 1801, and said to have been erected
at the expense of 4,000*l.*, the whole of which was de-
stroyed by the Mine Company. Population 4629. See
ANGLESEA.

AMMAN, a town and district of Palestine, 52 miles
from Jerusalem. It is the Rabban Ammon of the Scrip-
tures; and the Philadelphian of profane history. When
this place was the chief city of the Ammonites, it was
besieged and taken by Joab; and here was slain the
unfortunate Uriah. This town is also remarkable in
history from the circumstance of the crucifixion of one
of its governors, who having sent a rich vest, with
other valuable presents, to Mahomet, was ordered to
be put to death by the emperor Heraclius.

31

AMIT-
TERE
LEGEM
TERRÆ.
—
AMMAN.

AMMA-

NIA.

AMMO-

NITES.

AMMANIA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Tetrandria, and order Monogynia.

AMMER, a range of mountains in the kingdom of Algiers. It is inhabited by a tribe of Arabs, to whom it gives name.

AMMERLAND, a market town in Upper Bavaria, circle of the Isar, district of the Wolfrahusen, near the lake of Wurtn. It contains two castles; but is not a place of much note.

AMMERNDORF, a village of Bavaria, circle of Regal, district of Cadolzburg. It was formerly in the principality of Anspach; and is now chiefly valuable on account of the hop plantations in its neighbourhood.

AMMERSEE, a lake in Upper Bavaria, circle of the Isar, nine miles in length, four and a-half broad, and extremely deep, abounding with fish of various kinds.

AMMERWEYER, a town of France, the head of a canton in the department of the Upper Rhine. This town, which is about four miles N. W. of Colmar, consists of three distinct villages, containing altogether about 400 houses. Excellent wine is made in the neighbourhood.

AMMODYTES, in Zoology, a species of Coluber; called also *Vipera Illyrica*, from being found in the eastern and mountainous parts of Illyria. The poison of this reptile is very subtle, producing death in a few hours. See *ZOOLOGY*, Div. ii.

AMMODYTES, in Ichthyology, the name given by Linnaeus to a single species of fish, sometimes called the Sand Lance, found upon the sandy shores of the northern seas.

AMMON, in Heathen Mythology (either of *or*, but *or* warm; or perhaps from Ham, the son of Noah; or from *ammon*, sand), a celebrated surname of Jupiter, in Egypt. Its origin is attributed by the Greek mythologists to the circumstance of Jupiter having appeared in the form of a ram to Barchus, or, as others affirm, to Hercules, and discovering to him a spring of water in the sandy desert of Libya, when himself and his army were on the point of perishing by thirst. On this spot he therefore built a temple to the god, who is generally thought to have been worshipped under the form of a ram. It was about nine days journey from Alexandria, and maintained one hundred priests. The elders were the mouth of an oracle, which early became famous, but the recognizing of Alexander the Great for the son of their God, brought it into universal contempt. The statue of the idol was composed of brass, in which precious stones were melted, mounted upon a gold pedestal. 2 Curt. iv. c. 7. Lactet. vi. r. 847. assert that near the temple of Jupiter Ammon there was a fountain, the waters of which were warm in the morning and evening, and cold at noon and midnight. STRABO. i. 17. HEROD. ii. c. 32. LACTANT. in 3 Tack. 476.

AMMONIA, or **VOLATILE ALKALI**, in Chemistry. See *CHEMISTRY*, Div. ii.

AMMONIAC GUM, in Medicine, a gum produced in Africa, and the East Indies, from a plant of the umbelliferous kind, and supposed to have been used by the ancients in the composition of incense.

AMMONIAC SAL, a saline substance, formerly used in dyeing in this country, and on the continent. See *CHEMISTRY* and *MANUFACTURES*, Div. ii.

AMMONITES, in Conchology, a large family of

univalve shells, which are frequently called snakestone, from their supposed resemblance to a snake when coiled. They are found either petrified, or else inclosed in a strata of marl, slate, clay, or iron ore. The animal itself is extinct.

AMMOSCHISTA, in Mineralogy, a gross grit stone, of which there are six species.

AMMUNITION. *Munio, munitus*: from *munus*, to look after, to defend.

Stores prepared for defence; for any means of hostility.

The colonel staid to put in the ammunition he brought with him, which was twelve barrels of powder, &c.

Cicero.

Though they study to rob me of the hearts of my subjects, the greatest treasure and best ammunition of a king, yet can not they deprive me of my own innocence, or God's mercy, nor obstruct my way to heaven.

As Jove's loud thunder-bolts were hur'd by him,

The like our cyclops on their anvils beat;

All the rich mines of learning ransack'd are,

To furnish ammunition for this war;

Uncharitable soul our reason when,

And double edges on our passions sets.

Duncan's Progress of Learning.

My uncle Toby was sadly put to it for proper ammunition; I say proper ammunition,—because his great artillery would not bear powder; and 'twas well for the Shandy family they would not.—For so full were the papers, from the beginning to the end of the siege, of the innocent fringes kept up by the besiegers; and so heated was my uncle Toby's imagination with the accounts of them, that he had infallibly shot away all his estate.

Sterne's Tristram Shandy.

AMMUNITION, in a military sense, includes all kinds of warlike stores and resources; but particularly powder and ball, shells, bullets, cartridges, grape-shot, tin and case shot, grenades, &c.

FIXED AMMUNITION comprises loaded shells, carcasses and cartridges filled with powder, shot fixed to powder for convenience of firing quick, &c.: ball and blank cartridges.

UNFIXED AMMUNITION is round, case, and grape shot, or shells not filled with powder. All the ammunition for the navy, except hand-grenades, is delivered to the gunner of each ship unfixed, and it is his duty to keep a sufficient number of cartridges filled for use. By 12 Car. II. c. iv. sec. 13, the exportation of gunpowder, and ammunition of all sorts, may be prohibited at the pleasure of the crown; and by 1 Jac. II. c. viii. sec. 2, the importation of ammunition, arms, or any warlike stores, without his majesty's licence (which is only granted for the furnishing of the public stores), subjects the importer to the forfeiture of the articles, and treble their value, as well as the penalty of a premunire.

AMMUNITION BREAD is a name given to bread served under contract with government to soldiers in garrisons or barracks. Ammunition shoes, stockings, &c. are similar phrases.

AMMUNITION WAGON, a four-wheeled carriage with shafts, generally drawn by four horses, and loaded with about 1,200 lb. weight, adapted for the conveyance of provisions and tools. The sides are railed in with staves and ravs, lined with wicker work.

AMNESIA, in Medicine, is used either for the transitory loss of memory, which is sometimes the effect of fevers, or for its final lapse in old age.

AMNESTY, from *a, not*, and *mnescere*, to remember. Commonly applied to a public declaration that all

AMMO-

NITES.

AMNES-

TY.

AMNES-
TY.

acts against the established authority shall be *forgotten* and pardoned.

AMOL.

Suppose a great kingdom, consisting of several provinces, should have revolted from their sovereign, disclaiming his authority, neglecting and disobeying his laws; that the good prince, out of his goodness and pity toward them (and upon other good considerations moving him thereto, suppose the mediation of his own son), instead of proceeding then with deserved vengeance, should grant a general pardon and amnesty. *Burton's Sermons.*

We learn from ancient history, that Theseus passed a general amnesty for all past offences; and first introduced that word, as well as practice, into Greece. *Hume's Essay.*

AMNESTY. The practise of granting a public pardon, or oblivion of crimes, has been traced by historians up to the period of the expulsion of the thirty tyrants from Athens, when the first act of this kind was called *epistemia*. They have occasionally obtained, in the history of all civilized nations since, either absolutely, or in a qualified sense; of the latter description, were the acts of amnesty granted by Charles II. on the restoration of the royal authority in England, and recently by Louis XVIII. in France on a similar occasion.

AMNIAS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Bithynia, emptying itself into the gulf of Amasia.

AMNIOS, in Anatomy, (*αμνιος*, a lamb, i. e. lamb's-skin.) The soft internal membrane which contains the fetus, and the waters, sometimes called *amnios liquor* (liquores amnii). This fluid, formerly thought to afford nourishment to the fetus, is now understood to be principally a protection in the early stages of its growth; in proportion to which it varies in fluidity, colour, and quantity.

AMNISUS, in Ancient Geography, a port of Crete, on a river of the same name; where the goddess Lucina was said by the Cretans to have been born, and where she had a temple. The nymphs were called *Amnisades*, or *Amnisides*.

AMOAS, a village of Palestine. It was formerly a town of consequence, and was first named Ammaus, or Emmaus; and afterwards Nicopolis; but ought not be confounded with the castle of Emmaus, whither our blessed Saviour went on the day of his resurrection. It was once the see of a bishop, who was suffragan of Caesarea. It is 10 miles from Rama, and 22 from Jerusalem.

AMOBÆUM, (*αμοβαιον*, alternate), in Ancient Poetry, a colloquial kind of poem, where both parties speak the same number of verses alternately; it is likewise applied to epistolary writing, as "epistola amobæum."

AMOENIA, or **AMOERIA**, a town of Duches county, New York, six miles from Sharon, containing upwards of 3,000 inhabitants.

AMOGLOSSUS, in Ichthyology, a flat-fish of the sole kind, known in some parts of England by the name of the lantern.

AMOI, a river of South America, in the province of Quito, which falls into the Tigre.

AMOLA, in Geography, a river in the kingdom of New Granada, South America, which falls into the Magdalena.

AMOL, or **AMU**, a town of Asia, in the country of the Tabacks, in Independent Tartary. It is seated on the river Gihon, about 150 miles from Samarcand. It is a large, populous, and trading place, and was taken by Tamerlane in the year 1392.

AMOLA, or **AMULA**, a jurisdiction of the kingdom of New Galicia, in Spanish North America. It contains seventeen settlements, the capital of which is Tuzacuero, and signifies, in the Mexican language, the land of many trees, from its abounding with them.

AMOMUM, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Monandria, and the order Monogynia, the dried root of the zingiber, a native of the West Indies; well known as the ginger of this country.

AMOMUM, in Medicine, an aromatic fruit, or seed, much esteemed as a narcotic. It is a production of the East Indies.

AMOND, a river of Caermarthen, South Wales, which runs into the Longhen.

AMONESTE. See **AMONISH**.

AMONG, } Variouslly written emonge,
AMONGST, } amonge, amonges, amongst,
AMONGST, } amongst; is the preter-perfect Lemang, Lemang,
Lemung, or among, among, among, of the AS. verb *menag-an*, *mengan*, and means *mixed*, *mingled*. Tooka
I. 417.

pis kind was deled a yre among pe sonas y wyrs.

R. Glouceter, p. 33.

He tol his sord in hand, pe cnyce let be falle,
& medeled him in po pres, among pe barons alle.

R. Bruce, p. 18.

But it is not so among you but whoever wold be maad greiter
schal be yowre mynystr; And who ever wold be the first among
you schal be yrevout of alle. *Wiclyf, Mark, chap. x.*

Amonges other of his honest gentles

He had a gardin walled all with son.

So fyre a gardin wote I no wher son.

Chaucer. The Marchantes Tale, vol. I. p. 402.

The kynge with all hole entent

Then at laste heen saeth this,

What kynge men telle that heis

Emonge the folke touchinge his name,

Or it be price, or it be blame.

Gower, Cms. A. book vii.

And she toke his childe in hande

And yafe it souke; and euer amonge,

She wept, and otherwhile songe

To rocke with her childe asleep. *Id. Ib. book ii.*

But first or that I thider fare,

For that I wold that my love

Amongen you ne be withdrawe.

Id. Ib. book vii.

I stonde as one amongst all fall.

Id. Ib. book viii.

You are chosen to relate the tyranny

Of our proud masters; and what you subscribe to,

They gently will allow of, or hold out

To the last tenn.

Mar. I'll instantly among them.

Messenger's Bondman, act iv. sc. 1.

Bis. Marry, my good lord, quoth he, your leadership shall ever
find amongst an hundred Frenchmen forty but shots; amongst an
hundred Spaniards, threescore braggarts; amongst an hundred
Dutchmen, fourscore drunkards; amongst an hundred Englishmen,
fourscore and ten madmen; and amongst an hundred Welshmen—

Bis. What, my lord?

Bis. Fourscore and nineteen gentlemen.

Marston's Malcontent, act iii. sc. 1.

At every turn she made a little stand,

And thrust among the thorns her lily hand.

To draw the rope, and every rose she drew.

She shook the stalk, and brushed away the dew.

Dryden's Palamon and Arcite.

We had been travelling, all the morning, among mountains perfectly smooth, and covered with herbage; and now found ourselves suddenly among crags and rocks, and precipices, as wild, and hideous, as any we had seen.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

AMONG. Bred up a Jew, under a religion extremely technical, in an age and amongst a people more zealous of the ceremonies than of any other part of that religion, he delivered an institution, containing less of ritual, and that more simple, than is to be found in any religion which ever prevailed amongst mankind.

**—
AMOR.
RETTE.**

Fahey's Ex. of Christianity.

AMONOOSUCK, Upper and Lower, two rivers of New Hampshire, North America, which have retained their Indian name. They rise in the White Hills, the former on the northern, and the latter on the western side. After a course of 15 miles, the Upper Amonoosuck, approaches the Amorisoggin river, within about three miles, across which there is a carrying place. It now runs S. W. and W. about 18 miles into the Connecticut, at Northumberland. The latter, sometimes called the Great Amonoosuck, also falls into the Connecticut, after receiving from the Franconia and Lincoln mountains a considerable stream, about 40 yards wide at its junction with this river, called the Wild Amonoosuck. This is about two miles from its mouth, which is just above the town of Haverhill, in Lower Coos, and is 100 yards wide. The Lower Amonoosuck is noted for its sudden and violent floods, which, after a few hours rain, create so impetuous a stream, as to put in motion stones of a foot in diameter.

AMORBACK, a bailiwick, castle, and small town of Germany, on the Muidt, in the Odenwald, anciently included in the electorate of Mentz, but now belonging to the grand duchy of Hesse. The town, which is about 20 miles N. E. of Heidelberg, contains not above 1,500 inhabitants, but there is a rich beneficed abbey in the vicinity, whose revenues have been taken at 14,000 l. a year. The bailiwick contains an extent of 200 square miles, in which are several large forests, 70 villages, and 18,000 inhabitants; the annual revenue is supposed to be about 5,200 l.

AMORCE, in Military Affairs, a word sometimes used to express the finer gunpowder which is used for priming; also for a port-fire, or quick-match.

AMORCEANS, in Literary History, an order of Gemaric doctors, who commented upon the Jerusalem Talmud; they succeeded the Mischnic doctors, and after continuing 250 years, were followed by the Seburans.

AMORETTE, Amo, to love. Amor, love.
AMORIST, Amorette, parvi Amores,
AMOROUS, little loves (says Skinner).
AMOROUSLY, An amorous woman (Tyr-
AMOROUSNESS, what). Also applied to Love-
AMOR. tokens.

Amor is loving, fond; easily inspired with the passion of love; relating to the passion of love.

Amor, now applied to the gallantries or intrigues of love, is commonly used by the old Scotch poets for love, amor.

For also well love he acts
Under rages as riche racheite
And eke as well by amorettes
In mourning black, as bright burnettes.

Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, f. 136. c. 3.

For no man may be amorous
Ne in his loving verruous
But he love more in mood
Men for here will, than for here good
For love that profite doth abide
Is false, and litch not in no tide.

Id. Ib. l. 141. c. 2.

Of amors he was dreynow,
Uncladout, and amorous.
And for the fane of woful speche
Strange amorettes wold he seeke.

Gower. Con. d. book. i.

Plato (by your leave), in twenty of his youthful years, was no less addicted to delight in amorous verse, than he was after in his age painful to write good precepts of moral Philosophy.

Georgius. The Stock Grev.

That ther n' is non so grillicitie
In marriage, no never wold shol by,
That thou shal let of your situation,
So that ye use, as skill it and reason,
The lustre of your wif eternally.
And that ye please hire nat to amorette;
And that ye keep your eke from other sinne.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, vol. i. p. 389.

Mas. And will she not return? then may the sun
Stable his horses even, and no day
Gild the black air with light? If in mine eye
She be not placed, what object can delight it?

Tas. Excellent amoret! Here's his then, melancholy.

Nabbes's Mercenarie, act. ii.

Whoever esteemeth too much of amorous affection, quicketh both riches and wisdom. *Bacon's Essay on Love.*

After. Do you hear, Sir Bartholomew Bayard, that leap before you look; it will handsomely become you to reathe the box to that gentleman, and the capatude of your desires, upon this daintie, that is so amoretly taken with your dainties.

Romley's Match at Midnight, act. v.

'Tis true, no lover has that power
To force a desperate amour,
As he that has two strings this bow,
And burns for love and money too.

Butler's Hudibras.

And, after long debate, at last he found
(As love itself had marked the spot of ground)
That grave for ever green, that crumpled haub,
Where he with Palamon fought hand to hand:
That where he fell his amorous desires
With soft complaints, and felt his hotbed fires
There other flames might waste his earthly part,
And burn his limbs, where love had burn'd his heart.

Dryden's Palamon and Arcite.

I can readily believe that *Lindamor* has wit and amoretment enough to make him find it more easy to defend fair ladies, than to defend himself against them.

Boyle's Occasional Reflections, sec. 5. vol. 6.

Like mortal man, great Jove (grown fond of change)
Of old was wont the softer world to range;
To seek amors; the vice the monarch lov'd,
Soon through the wide ethereal court improv'd.

Gay's Trivia, book II.

When amoret to more can shine,
And still own she's not to divide.
Then some and merit shall supply
The blushing cheek, the sparkling eye.

Dr. J. Warton's Poems.

Chastrens of night, whose amorous song
(First heard the tatted groves among)
Warms wint'ns Malba to begin
Her revels on the circled green.

Dr. Warton's Ode to the Nightingale.

AMORGO, or **AMOROS,** in Ancient Geography, one of the Cyclades, formerly called *Hypera*, and the birth-place of *Simonides*. A part of the dress of the Greeks was denominated *Amorog*, from a kind of red stuff manufactured in this island, which once contained the three considerable towns of *Arconis*, *Minos*, and *Egiale*. The country, according to *Sonnini*, still yields abundance of corn, wine, oil and figs, and is diversified with noble hills, and ragged precipices. The inhabitants are remarkably courteous and superstitious, and the women handsome.—*SUIDAS. STRAB. X.*

**AMO.
RETTE.**

AMORGO.

AMORIA.
—
AMOR-
TISE.

AMORIA, a town of Natolia, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Sakaria, 50 miles S. W. of Angora.

AMORILLY, *i. e.* Merrily.

The second lesson Robin Redbreast sang
Haile to the God and goddess of our lay
And to the lectern amorily he sprang
Haile (qd. eke) O fresh season of May.

Chaucer. *The Court of Love*, l. 355. c. 3.

AMORISCOGGIN, a river of Main, in the United States, North America, which runs into the Kennebec.

AMORIUM, in Ancient Geography, a city of the Tolistobii, on the river Sangarius, in Asia Minor, which after the sixth century became the capital of the New Galatia, and an episcopal see; it also gave its name to a war prosecuted in the year 838, between the Caliph Motassem, and Theophilus, the emperor of Constantinople, who having seized the town of Sozopetra from the Caliph, and treated the inhabitants with the most barbarous cruelty, Motassem, in revenge, prepared to attack Amorium, with a powerful army. The most considerate of his counsellors recommended the emperor to evacuate the city, but he was resolved to defend it to the last, and would have obliged the Caliph to raise the siege after a vigorous attack of fifty-five days, and the loss of 70,000 men, had he not been informed by a traitor of the only weak place in the wall. Thirty thousand of the imperial troops had fallen in the defence of Amorium, and as many more were taken prisoners and treated with great inhumanity.

AMOROSO, in Italian Music, tenderly, affectionately, and supplicatory.

AMORPHA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Diadelphica, and order Decandria, a native of Carolina, where the inhabitants manufacture an inferior kind of indigo from its young shoots, from which it has been designated bastard indigo.

AMORT. Amort, from the verb *amortir*, to deaden. Applied to those whose perceptions are deadened; lifeless, spiritless, inanimate.

—Where is Puffin now?

I think her old familiar is asleep.

Now where's the bastard's braver, and Charles his gillies?

What all amert? *Shakespeare's Tit p. Henry VI.* act iii.

PETE. How fares my Kate, what sweetest all amert?

HOW. Mistress, what cheer?

KATE. Faith as cold as can be.

Shakespeare's Taming of the Shrew, act iv.

DIN. Do not discourse;

I know you are high and jovial.

NOV. Jovial doctor;

No I am all amert, as if I had lain

Three days in my grave already.

Mansel's Par. of Love, act iv. sc. v.

Chorus, when he came from Pungilla's house, and had not so good welcome as he did expect, was all amert.

Barton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

T. SMALL-ISH. Where's your spirit, sister?

W. SMALL-ISH. What, all amert? what's the matter? do you hear?

BOV. What's the reason of this melancholy?

THOATE. Ily heaven I know not!

Barry's Rem-Ally, act iv.

AMORTISE. Fr. *Amortir* (de morte qui vent dire inutile et sans fruit). To destroy the use of, to make dead, to render fruitless.

But for amorce as the good works that men do while they ben in good lif, ben all amortised by shene following, and che with all the

good werkes that men don while they ben in dedly sinne, ben utterly ded, as for to have the lif perdurable.

Chaucer. *The Penitence Tale*, vol. ii. p. 896.

For vulgar and received opinions, nothing is more usual, or more easily complained of, than that it is imposed for antiquity and presumption, for men to authorize themselves against antiquity and authors, towards whom envy is ceased, and reverence by time amerciated.

Bacon's Fifth Lobstreath.

My Lord of Binstow's re-entry into the court (who the last week carried the sword before the king), albeit so with new discourse, as if he should be restored to the vice-chancellorship, which yet lyeth amerciated in your noble fiscal.

Cheltenham.

AMORTIZATION, in English Law, an alienation of lands by mortmain, or the leaving or transferring them to a corporation or fraternity, and their successors. It is also used for the right or privilege of taking lands in mortmain, which is called the right of amortization. Many statutes have been made on this subject, and particularly to prevent the leaving of lands to religious bodies or fraternities, from the time of Magna Charta to the present reign; generally there must be licence of the king and lord of the manor before any amortization can take place. See MORTMAIN.

AMORWE. } On morrow; on the morrow.
AMOR'INGS. } On mornings; on or in the mornings.

so ye lyngs's men unite amowr, we he was bi gone,
Heo kude as wodcosen, and wende be were ynowe.

R. Glouceter, p. 139.

A-morwe when the day began to spring,

Up rose our hoste, and was our aller cook,

And gadred us together in a flock.

Chaucer. *The Prologue*, vol. i. p. 34.

And amercus it was don that the pryests of heu and the elders
sam and scribes wæren gadered in ierusalem.

Wiclif. Deeth, chap. ix.

And it chousen on the morrow, that their rulers and scribes gathered at Jerusalem.

Bible, 1509.

CLOT. I would this musicke would come: I am astuned to gize her musicke a morning, they say it will penetrate.

Shakespeare's Cyn. act ii.

GAET. On with it Jacques, thou and I

Will live so finely in the country, Jacques,

And have such pleasant walks into the woods

A mornings, and then bring home riding-roads,

And walking staves.

Bonamont and Fletcher. Noble Gent. act ii.

AMOTAPE, a town of the corregimiento of Piura, in Peru, on the coast of the South sea, about a mile from a river of the same name. It is in the direct road to Piura, and there are some valuable mines of naphtha in the neighbourhood, that furnish a considerable trade to the town. S. lat. 4°, 50'. Long. 80°, 42'.

AMOU, or AMOUR, a town of the department of Landes, in France, the chief of a canton, nine leagues S. W. of Mont de Marsan.

AMOVE, } A. move; to move from.
AMOV'AL, } is used by Fabian and others for
AM'OTION, } the uncomposed, move. We
now more commonly use, to remove.

When she had heard all this, she not amored

Neither in word, in chere, se countenance,

(For as it seemed, she was not agreed)

She sayde.

Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, vol. i. p. 339.

When Theoprice he was warned of the conspiracy of thyre Jil. kynges, that intended to warre loyally upon hym, he was therewith greately amored, it procured for him defence & his best moove.

Felton, p. 104.

AMOR-
TISE.

AMOVE.

AMOVE.
AMOUNT.

Therewith amarrd from his sober mood,
"Aud lives be yet," said he, "that wrought this act?
And does the heavens afford him vital food?"
"He lives," quoth he, "and boasts of the fact,
Ne yet hath my knight his courage crookt"
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. 1.

The King of Connaught and his Irish, seeing the king [Henry III.] and the Earle of Pembroke, (who was heir to the great Strongbow, had goodly possessions in those parts) wholly embosied in the enterprise of Britaine, had lounded the klinge people, with a purpose and hope, vterly to expell and aweare our nation from among them.
Speed's Hist. of Gr. Britain.

The rights of personal property are liable to two species of injuries: the amission, or deprivation of that possession; and the abuse or damage of the chattels, while the possession continues in the legal owner.
Blackstone's Commentaries.

AMOUA, a sea-port town of Madagascar, to the N. E. of the Island, and opposite to that of Nosse; wax and tortoise-shell abound in the neighbourhood.
AMOUINS, a town of France, in the department of the Arriège, two leagues E. of St. Lizio.

AMOUNT, *v.* } Fr. *Amont*. From ad montem
AMOUNT, *n.* } (Ménage), to a mount.
To go or come up; to rise, to ascend.
To come to in the whole.

& he knight bare on his arme, he redy accoutre,
Also myselfe brent gold, as antique vance amounte.

R. Bruner, p. 54.

& William wist of alle, what it said amounte,
Of ledyng & of thralle pe exterie purghe amounte.

Id. p. 83.

All be it that I cannot soume his stile,
Ne cannot clembes over so high a stile,
Yet say I this, as to comen ment,
Thou much amountest all that ever he ment,
If it so be that I have it in mind.

Chaucer. The Squire's Tale, vol. i. p. 423.

I not what yu fortune accomple,
But what thinge Danger make amounte
I not well: for I have amied.

Gower, Con. A. book viii.

They feeding there a while, amounted forth, and went in this
So far as eyes of man could then perce, or marks could make.

Arden's by Thom. Phier, book vi.

So up he rose, and thence amounted straight,
Which when the carle beheld, and saw his guest
Would safe depart, for all his subtle sleight;
He chace an hutter from among the rest;
And with it hung himself, untold, unknown.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. c. 9.

Thy substance, valued at the highest rate,
Cannot amount unto a hundred markes.
Therefore by law thine art condemn'd to die.

Shakespeare's Com. of Errors, act i.

The motion which is not percolated through its slowness, is easily
and commonly reduced to zero, by the result or amount of the motion.
Bacon's Novum Organum.

I thought, I'll swear, I could have liv'd no more
Than I had done before;
But you as easily might account,
Till to the top of numbers you amount
As cost up my love's score.

Cowley's Parnass. Increase.

I have heard it affirmed, that what is paid of all kinds to public
uses of the state-general, the province, and the city, in Amsterdam,
amounts to above sixteen hundred thousand pounds sterling a year.
See His. People, or the United Provinces.

We shall not much regret at a loss, of which we cannot estimate
the value, but of which, though we are not able to tell the least
amount, we know with sufficient certainty the greatest, and are
convinced that the greatest is not much to be regretted.

Rambler, No. 17.

AMOUR, St. a town of Franche Comte, France, AMOUR
in the department of the Jura, arrondissement of Sans le
Saulnier. Inhabitants 2880. 65 miles N. E. of AMPHIBOLITHUS.
Lyons.

AMOUSHE, a cape and port of the province of
Tiensan, North Africa; the former is the termination
of the mountains of the Shenoosh, and the latter, ac-
cording to Dr. Shaw, is a very safe harbour in westerly
winds.

AMPALLA, AMPALIA, or AMPULIA. See AMA-
FALLA.

AMPATRES, a barbarous people of Madagascar,
who inhabit the forests of the southern coast.

AMPELIS, in Ornithology, a genus of birds belong-
ing to the order Passeres; of which all are natives of
Africa, or America, except the garrulus, or waxen chat-
terer, which sometimes breeds in the north of Great
Britain. Pennant asserts that it pays an annual visit
to the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, where it subsists
upon the berries of the mountain ash.

AMPELITES, or CANDLE COAL. See COAL.

AMPELUS, in Ancient Geography, a promontory to
the west of the isle of Samos. There were also towns
of this name in Cyrene, Liguria, and Crete; and a town
and promontory in Macedonia.

AMPELUSIA, in Ancient Geography, a promontory
of Mauritania, known to the moderns as Cape Spartel,
in Africa. MELA. l. c. 6.

AMPER, a river of Upper Bavaria, which rises on
the borders of the Tyrol, runs through the lake of
Ammer, and falls into the Isar, below Mueberg.

AMPERES, or AMPHERICUM, in Antiquity, a vessel
which the waterman wrought with a pair of oars, similar
to nur scullers.

AMPPING, a small town of Lower Bavaria, on the
Isar, in the district of Muhlendorf, circle of the Isar, 16
miles S. of Dingolfingen.

AMPHIA, or AMPHIA, in Ancient Geography, a
town of Messina, in the neighbourhood of Laconia,
mentioned by Pausanias and Stephen Byz.

AMPHIARTHROSIS (of *amphi*, either, and *arthrosis*,
articulation), in Anatomy, an obscure articulation, that
has no conspicuous motion, and yet is not without a
sensible one, as in the metatarsal bones of the ver-
tebrae.

AMPHIBALLUS, a large surplice worn by the
monks in the middle ages, that entirely covered the
body.

AMPHIBIA, in Zoology, animals of the third class
in the Linnæan system, who, by their peculiar anatomy,
are able to live either upon land or in the water. Their
bodies frequently are bare, and they are characterized
by having no hair, feathers, or mamme; having vertebrae
and coldblood; and respiring by lungs. They can live
a long time without food, are not easily killed, and
have a peculiar faculty of reproducing those parts of
which they may have been deprived. Some of them
cast their skins annually, and many spend the winter
season in a state of torpor.—See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

AMPHIBOLITHUS, in Oryctology, a part, or the
whole of an amphibious animal converted into a fossil,
of which there are many instances. Tortoises, toads,
and crocodiles have been found in stone quarries many
feet deep, as in Oxfordshire, at Elston in Gloucester-

AMPHIBIOLOGY. shire, in Switzerland, Brabant, Malta, and various parts of Saxony.

AMPHIBIOUS. *Ἀμφί*, about, on each side, and *βίος*, life. *Ἀμφί*, from its application to that which is unfixed, undefined in space or time, is further applied to that which is uncertain, doubtful. To animals, whose peculiar element of life is doubtful; shiding at one time on land, and at another in water. To that which is of a mixed or doubtful nature.

A part provided them [frogs] a while to swim and move in the water, that is, until such time as nature excluded legs, whereby they might be provided not only to swim in the water, but move upon the land; according to the amphibious and mist intention of nature, that is, to live in both. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Would you preserve a numerous finny race?
Let your force dogs the numerous otter chase
(Th' amphibious monster ranges all the shores,
Darts through the waves, and every haunt explores):
Or let the gin his roving steps betray.
And save from hostile jaws the scaly prey.

Gay's Rural Sports, Cant. I.

Fantastical ideas and notions of every conceivable kind, and even of substances, immortal and mortal, celestial and infernal, divine and human, or amphibious beings, that partake of the two natures, stare us in the face whenever we look into the histories, traditions, and philosophical remains, that are come down to us from the remotest antiquity. *Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.*

No lands are ancient deserts, but lands hidden in sedge: that is, not in free and common sedge, but in this amphibious subordinate class of villous sedge. *Blackstone's Commentaries.*

AMPHIBLESTROIDES, (*ἀμφίβλεστρον*, a net, and *ειδής*, like), in Anatomy, that part or coat of the eye denominated the retina.

AMPHIBIOLOGY, } *Ἀμφίβλην λόγον*: from
AMPHIBIOLOGICAL, } *ἄμφι*, about, each way;
AMPHIBIOLOGY, } *βλέω*, to cast; and *λόγος*,
AMPHIBIOLOGY, } *speech*, speech.
Speech that may bear each way; that has opposite tendency; and therefore ambiguous, doubtful.

He hath not yet the goddess understood
For goddess spoke in amphibologies
And for a while, they tell us twofold lies.
Chaucer. Troilus and Criseide, book iv. l. 123. c. iii.

The fallacies whereby men deceive others, and are deceived themselves, the antients have divided into Verbal and Real. Of the Verbal, and such as conclude from mistakes of the word, although there be no less than six, yet are there but two thereof worthy our notice; and unto which the rest may be referred; that is the fallacy of equivocation and amphibology; which conclude from the ambiguity of some one word, or the ambiguous syntaxis of many put together. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

As at plays, masks, great feasts and banquets, one singles out his wife to dance, another courts her in his presence, a third tempts her, a fourth flatters with a pleasing complement, a sweet smile, ingratiates himself with an amphibious speech, so that every companion in the society did to his Glycimeris, *solides et intermixtum pulchre emularetur convivia.* *Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.*

The Casuists vary; and, out of respect to their own laws, are much perplexed in their resolutions: making the great scruple to be in the juridical interrogations, which, if the judge have not proceeded in the due form of law required in such cases, may warrant the offender's denial; and, secondly, making difference, as the quality of the offence, and danger of the punishment: which, if no less than capital, may, they say, give just ground to the accused party, either to conceal the truth, or to answer with such amphibious and equivocations as may serve to his own preservation. *Ep. Hall's Cases of Conscience.*

Never was there such an amphibious quarrel, both parties declaring themselves for ye king. *Huvel.*

AMPHIBIOLOGY, in Grammar, a loose manner of expression, whereby the sense may be construed into a double meaning. It has a similar application to phrases,

or sentences, with the word equivocal, in respect to words. The ancient oracles were generally given in this way, that they might receive their interpretation according to the events. The English language admits of fewer amphibologies than most modern ones.

AMPHIBRACHYS, in Poetry, the name of a foot of three syllables, having a long one in the middle, and a short one first and last, such as *ἀμάρτι, ἔσπερε*.

AMPHICLEA, in Ancient Geography, a town or city of Phocia, to which the Amphictyons gave the name of Ophites, in their decree against the Phocian cities. Bacchus had a temple and an oracle in this city, where many cures were said to have been wrought.

AMPHICTYONS, or AMPHICTYONES (according to some ancient writers, from *ἄμφι*, about, and *τύς*, to dwell), in Ancient History, were representatives of certain neighbouring states of Greece in a general assembly, whose origin appears to be contemporary with that of the oracle of Delphi, at which place they held some of their most celebrated conventions. Its origin is attributed by some writers to Amphictyon, a son of Deucalion, by others to a son of Helenus of this name; and is a subject of considerable obscurity. The celebrity of this council for wisdom and integrity, and the influence it possessed over all the affairs of the Greeks for ages, were strong temptations to the setting up of fictitious claims of this kind to flatter the predominant states or interests of the day. Strabo attributes its origin to Acrisius, king of the Argives. A modern writer in the *Edin. Transactions* (vol. iii. p. 150 &c.), has conjectured that the Hellenes, being the founders of the oracle at Delphi, as well as of that of Dodona, they naturally chose the former place, both for its central situation and as deriving considerable interest from its religious institutions, for the council of the parent states, when they began to grow jealous of the oriental colonists. It is well known that one of the most important offices of the Amphictyons was that of a guardianship over the treasures of the Delphian oracle; while it is equally clear, from all history, that sacrifices to a common deity were regarded as the strongest token of civil union. This account of its institution, moreover, will accord with the mixed offices and general control over the interests of Greece that were exercised from a very remote period by this council; and with the fact that of the two deputies, generally supposed to have been sent from each state represented, one of them was called *ἱερόμαχος*, as a superintendent of religious ceremonies; and the other *ἡσυχαστής*, as appointed to settle private and civil differences. Both of these, however, had a right to hear and vote upon all cases that concerned the interest of their constituents; the former was chosen by lot, the latter by suffrage.

Of the states represented by this council, different lists have been given by Pausanias, *Æschines*, Strabo, &c. Pausanias enumerates but ten; the Ionians (including the Athenians), the Dolopians, Thessalians, *Ænians*, Magnesiens, Melians, Phthians, Dorians, Phocians, and Locrians. *Æschines* reckons eleven, adding the *Clitans*, and substituting the *Perrebiens* and *Boeotians* for the Dolopians and *Ænians*. Strabo states, that the Amphictyons from the first institution represented twelve different tribes (in which Harpocration and *Suidas* concur with him) and gives the following list, viz.: Ionians, Dorians, *Perrebiens*, *Boeotians*,

AMPHIBIOLOGY.
—
AMPHICTYONS.

AMPHICTYONS. Magnesiæ, Æcheus, Phthians, Melians, Dolopians, Enianians, Delphians, Phocians.

The power with which this council was invested was almost unlimited. It could declare war against a foreign enemy, or even against a state represented in its own body; if it were guilty of any violent aggression on the rights or privileges of the rest, or of any single member of the league. In like manner it could demand that hostilities should cease amongst any of its constituents, or towards any of their foes; and from its decisions no appeal was attempted. The laws and regulations of every individual state were here to be subordinated to the general good; it could decree public honours and impose fines on the different states, which, if not paid at the appointed time, were doubled; but no state could be deprived of its right of sending deputies, nor of its running waters. Nor could the safety of the temple of Delphi, its ornaments, or its treasures, ever be compromised. These were fundamental articles of the union, against every violation of which, universal war was to be declared, and the members of the council took an oath to this effect, the form of which is preserved in *Æschines*, *Orat. sept. Philippicæ*. It closes with invoking the "vengeance of Apollo, Diana, Latina, and Minerva," on its violators. "May their soil be barren," it is added, "their wives produce only monsters; may their adversary prevail in every law-suit; may they be conquered in war; their houses be demolished; and themselves and their children delivered to the ravages of the sword." The form of this oath was, according to *Æschines*, settled by Solon. At the opening of every session, an ox was solemnly cut in pieces, and sacrificed to the Delphic Apollo, as an emblem of their union in their sacred charge over the worship of the god, and with each other. They also, after the overthrow of Cirrha, revived and improved the Pythian games; of which, from this time, they had the official controul. They added the gymnastic exercises, and changed the prizes; what before had been valuable, into garlands and crowns of laurel, &c. We have had occasion, in another place (*Hist. and Bibl. Division*, vol. ix. p. 375), to notice the successful opposition made by Themistocles to a proposition for excluding three cities from their right of representation, who did not join in resisting the Persian invasion under Mardonius. He, at that time, speaks of thirty-one cities been included in the representation.

The ordinary periods of the meeting of the Amphictyons were in the spring and autumn of the year; though instances occur of their being called together at every part of it, and even of their continuing their session throughout the year. Some of their earliest meetings were held at Thermopyæ; but even at this period, there are writers who speak of the members residing at Delphi (*M. Valois, Mem. Acad. Belles Lettres*, v. iii), over the concerns of which city it is certain they exercised a very ancient charge. Others again state, that they regularly held their spring meeting at Delphi, and their autumnal session at Antheln, in the vicinity of Thermopyæ.

Solon distinguished himself by conducting the first interference of Athens, with the interests of the Delphian oracle, and by several regulations of the Amphictyonic council. The neighbouring tribes of the Phocians asserted an exclusive right to the controul of the sacred ceremonies, and the charge of the treasure of the place; when Solon, putting himself at the head of his country-

men, whom he devoted as an "army to the god," re-established the impartial administration of the Amphictyons, and obtained the applause of all Greece, for his steady and wise arrangements.

History, which is always more busy with the evil than the benevolent deeds of mankind, notices the proceedings of this celebrated court very rarely from the time of Solon to the Phocian or sacred war, which lasted ten years; when various occurrences conspired to give it a new importance. The accumulated treasure of Delphi had long tempted the cupidity of the Lacedæmonians, while the great preponderancy of the votes of the northern states of Greece in the Amphictyonic council, was a constant check to their ambition. They therefore, at an early period of their ascendancy over the minor states, offered to take the Delphians under their particular protection, and gradually secured an authority over the city and its institutions, which greatly rivalled that of the Amphictyons. But amidst the reverses that occurred to Lacedæmon in her struggle with Thebes for ascendancy, the latter power appealed to this celebrated court, now regularly holding its sessions at Delphi, and a fine was levied on the Lacedæmonian people to the amount, according to Diodorus, of 500 talents, or nearly 100,000*l.* sterling. Neither Thebes, nor her allies, however, had power to levy this by force, and after remaining unpaid beyond the limited time, it was doubled. The value of the precious metals at this time deposited at Delphi (which, as well as its offerings to the god, contained a kind of separate fund or bank, composed of the redundant property of every considerable state of Greece, and considered as an inviolable treasury), was upwards of 2,000 talents, or more than 2,000,000*l.* sterling. This treasure seems to have become, at this period, an object of appendency to both the Thebans and the Lacedæmonians. But the former possessing the greater influence with the Amphictyons (now fast declining in their reputation and integrity), a further decree was procured against the Phocians, the allies of Lacedæmon, which fined them also in a large sum, for an alleged profanation of the sacred Cirrhan land. At the expiration of the appointed time for the payment, this fine too was doubled. We now find a congress of the Phocian cities called by Philomachus their general, in which he ventured to stigmatize the conduct of the Amphictyons as the most intolerable oppression, and called for resistance to their decree as "a not less just than necessary religious duty." In an oration preserved in Diodorus, he further declares that the presidency of Delphi was originally vested in his countrymen; and that wrongful, though long possession, was the only title which the Amphictyons could show. Shortly after this, making common cause with the Lacedæmonians, he drew together their united forces, to the amount of between 2 and 3,000 men, on the shores of the Corinthian gulf, and crossing it before his daring project was suspected, seized the sacred town and dispersed the council. He then fortified Delphi; and caused the marble inscriptions of the Amphictyonic decrees against Phocis and Lacedæmon (which it was the custom of the council thus to publish) to be erased; but he declared that the treasury should remain inviolate, as well as the temple and its ministers. The Amphictyons now met at Thermopyæ and excluded the Phocians from their right of representation; to which the Lacedæmonians, contriving to make their

AMPHICTYONS.
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AMPHIGENIA.

peace with Thebes and Athens, was about the same time admitted.

The Amphictyonic influence was found, however, to have received a fatal blow; the sacred treasure of Delphi began to be appropriated by the Athenians in their wars with Macedonia; and the voice of the council, instead of being hailed, as heretofore, as the acknowledged call to peace and order, was but as the trumpet of discord throughout Greece. Πάλλα τρυφήν ἐν δαίμονι οὐ καὶ ἴσθι τῆς Ἑλλάδος. Diodorus xvi. 28. Like other "sacred wars," the memorable contests between the rival states became unusually bloody in their character; and the Thebans having declared that a sentence of the Amphictyons condemned the Phocians prisoners to death as accomplices in the sacrilege committed at Delphi, retaliatory measures were adopted by Philomelus, and continued the frequent practice of the numerous states who mingled in the war. After the close of these contests, however, we find Demosthenes the Athenian representative at the Amphictyonic session; and Æschines succeeding him on the triumph of the rival party. At this time it would appear, that Athens sent four deputies to the council; before whom Æschines (to whom we are principally indebted for any authentic details of this institution) accused Demosthenes of being corrupted by the gold of the Amphiensians, who had profaned the sacred land. The greatest irregularities disgraced this session; the Amphictyons inviting the citizens of Delphi to arm and attack the Amphiensians in their forbidden possessions; while to the various disputes connected with these circumstances, we owe many of the splendid philippics of Demosthenes. The Amphictyons ultimately elected Philip, king of Macedonia, for their general, and deputed Cottyphus, their president, to request his acceptance of that office; which presenting to his ambition a happy union of popular and arbitrary power, greatly facilitated the final subjugation of the states of Greece to the Macedonian arms.

On the eruption of Brennus into Gaul, the Phocians so boldly contested his passage, that they were formally restored to a seat in the Amphictyonic council. During the reign of Augustus, we find it an object of a Roman imperial decree, which claimed the admission of the city of Nicopolis to a representation in this body, and declared the rights of the Dolopians, Magnesians, Melians, Phthians, and Ænians, to be merged in those of the Thessalians. In the time of Antoninus Pius, we hear, through Pausanias, of its assembling thirty members regularly, being delegated by the people of whom we have given the list of this historian in the former part of the article; the Romans never appear to have opposed its sitting; but the institution had now dwindled into total insignificance.

AMPHIDROMIA, in Antiquity, a feast observed at Athens, on the fifth day after the birth of every child, denominated the lustral day, when a person ran with the infant round the fire, to dedicate it to the household gods, on which occasion also its name was generally given. *Lys. Hæcchus in Verb.*

AMPHIDRYON, in Ecclesiastical History, a curtain or veil in ancient churches, placed before the door of the bema, or chancel.

—AMPHIGENIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Messenia; in the Peloponnese, which the natives declared to be the birth-place of Apollo.

VOL. XVII.

AMPHILA BAY, a remarkable bay of the Red sea, on the eastern coast of Abyssinia, which contains thirteen marine islands, spread along a breadth of about 16 miles, and formed almost entirely of alluvies of the sea, strongly emaciated together, and overspread with a thin soil. There are no regular inhabitants; but goats, kids, and camels find food here, and a few trees are seen to the leeward.

AMPHILOCHIA, in Ancient Geography, the country round the city of Argos Amphilocheion, in Epirus, east of the bay of Ambracia. The inhabitants were called Amphilochei.

AMPHILOCHI, in Ancient Geography, a town of Galilee, in Spain; according to Strabo, founded by Teucer, when he returned from the Trojan war, and called after one of his companions, Amphilocheus. Its modern name is Orense.

AMPHIMACER, in Poetry, an ancient verse, with a foot of three syllables, the middle one being short, and the first and last long.

AMPHIMALIA, or AMPHIMALLIUM, in Ancient Geography, a town and harbour in the N. of Crete, E. of Sydonia. The ruins of the place, part of which are the foundation of a Greek monastery, are still to be seen to the S. of the gulf of Suda, about a mile from the sea.

AMPHIMASCALOS, in Antiquity, the coats of freedom, which had two short sleeves, covering the arm as far as the elbow, to distinguish them from the slaves, who were only allowed one sleeve.

AMPHIMONE, in Zoology, a genus of sea-worms, consisting of four species, placed by Pallas under the genus Aphrodita, and by Gmelin under the species *Fluxa carunculata rostrata*, and *Campanata* of the *Terebella* genus.

AMPHION, in Entomology, a species of *Hesperia*, found in Germany.

AMPHION, in the Heathen Mythology and Fabulous History, was a twin child of Antiope, the daughter of Nycteus, king of Boetia, by Jupiter, or as it is sometimes stated, by Epopeus, king of Sicyon. (See *ANTIOPE*). He was born on Mount Cithæron, whither his mother had retired from the resentment of her father on her becoming pregnant, and where he was brought up with his brother Zethus, by the shepherds of the district. The name of Amphion is principally known in history as connected with many beautiful fables of the poets. Thus he is said to have been the first of mortals who practised the science of music, which he was taught by Mercury, and to have called the stones of the walls of Thebes together by the inspiration of his lyre.

*Dictæ et Amphion, Thebæ conditor arcti,
Sæva movere sono testudinis, et præce blandi
Ducere quo vellet.* Hæc. *Ant. Pæst.* 394.

To this instrument he added three strings, and he built the first altar that was raised to the honour of his preceptor. Considering his mother to have been ill-treated by her uncle Lycus, king of Thebes, who had married her, he besieged that city, in conjunction with his brother, put the king to death, and tied his first wife, Dirce, to a wild bull, attributing the injuries of his mother to her instigations. Homer describes his labours on the wall of Thebes, the seven gates that he erected, and the towers that defended the whole. Pausanias and Pliny attribute his musical fame to his marriage with the celebrated Niobe, of the family of Tantalus; while others

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AM-
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contend, from a passage in the *Odyssey*, that the husband of this lady was a different person, the son of Jaxus, king of Orchomenos.

AMPHIPOLES, in Antiquity, the chief magistrates or archons of Syracuse, established in the 109th Olympiad, by Timoleon, when he had expelled Dionysius. Their government continued 300 years. *Dion. xxi.*

AMPHIPOLIS, in Ancient Geography, was a city built by Agnon, the son of Nicias, upon the Strymon, between Macedonia and Thraee, and was frequently the occasion of war between the Spartans and Athenians. The inhabitants were called Amphipolitani. *Herod. v. c. 126. Dion. 11, 12.*

AMPHIPPI, in Antiquity, persons who rode on two horses, by springing from one to the other; or a particular description of cavalry among the Greeks, furnished with two horses each, which they rode upon and led alternately.

AMPHIPRORE, in Antiquity, ships adapted to rapid streams and narrow channels, by having a prow at each end, thereby avoiding the inconvenience of turning.

AMPHIPROSTYLOS (*αμφι, both; προ, before; and στῆλος, a column*), in Ancient Architecture, a

temple with a portico of four columns, crowned with a pediment in front, and another exactly to correspond in the rear. The front portico was called the *pronaos*, and the back one *opisthonaos*. *Vitrucvius, l. iii. c. 1.*

AMPHIBENA (from *αμφι, about, and βενε, a shadow*), in Astronomy and Geography, a denomination sometimes given to the inhabitants of the torrid zone, who have their shadows turned to the north at one time of the year, and at the other to the south.

AMPHINSA, in Ancient Geography, a town of the Brutii, in the Farther Calabria, on the sea-coast between Locri and Caulina; its modern name is Rocella. *Ovid Met. xv. v. 703.* Also the principal city of the Oulcani Locrians, so named after Amphissa, or Issa, a daughter of Minareus, where Minerva had a temple, and a statue in bronze. *Liv. xxvii. c. 5. Strabo. ix.*

AMPHITAPPE, in Antiquity, a peculiar sort of cloth or carpet, wore with a warm knap on both sides.

AMPHI-
PROSTY-
LOS.
AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.

AMPHITHEATRE.

AMPHITHEATRE, } *Amphi* Scarpov, from *αμφι*,
AMPHITHEATRICAL, } about, around, and *θεατρον*,
to see, to look.

The amphitheatre begun by Vespasian, but finished and dedicated by Titus, was one of the most famous, the height whereof was such, that the eye of man could hardly reach it. *Hebenit's Apologie.*

He (Titus) first ended it for flats a level ground,
The whole circumference a mile around;
The form was circular; and all without
A trench was sunk, to meet the place about.
Within, an amphitheatre appear'd;
Rais'd in degrees, to sixty paces rear'd;
That when a man was plac'd in one degree,
Height was allow'd for him above to see.

Dryden's Polixenus and Arctus.

Figure to yourself an immense amphitheatre; but such as the hand of nature could only form. Before you lies a vast extended plain, bounded by a range of mountains, whose mountains are covered with lofty and venerable woods, which supply variety of game. From thence, as the mountain declines, they are adorned with urbanity.

Melmoth's Pliny's Letters.

The Italian sports exhibited at Rome, may justly be considered as an effect of the people's contempt for slaves, and was also a great cause of the general inhumanity of their princes and rulers. Who can read the accounts of the amphitheatrical entertainments without horror? Or who is surprised, that the emperors should treat their people in the same way the people treated their inferiors?

Ham's Enquiry. Note.

AMPHITHEATRE, in Roman Antiquities, at first called *Theatrum Venatorium*, or the Theatre for Hunting, and sometimes *Visorium*, from its convenient exhibition of the games to the sight of the people, an open elliptical building, containing numerous seats for spectators, and a spacious area in the centre where the various sports and combats took place. We meet with several remarkable erections of this kind in the later history of the empire; as the temporary amphitheatre of Curio, a

friend of Julius Cæsar's, that of Statilius Taurus, the first permanent building of this kind, in the time of Augustus; the amphitheatres of Nero and of Aulus, and the Flavian Amphitheatre, beside various others scattered over the larger towns and cities.

The area in the middle was sometimes called *arena*, from its being considerably lower than any other part of the amphitheatre, but more generally the *arena*, from the circumstance of its being strewed with sand, to prevent the gladiators from slipping, and to absorb the blood. Lipsius observes, that the whole of some amphitheatres are frequently called by both these names. Around, and on a level with the arena, strong walls were constructed for the temporary or permanent lodgment of the animals brought forward in the games, and from its limits, or from the top of these cells, the seats of the spectators arranged according to their various ranks, graduated upwards to the extremities of the building. The whole exterior circuit of the principal amphitheatres was divided into two or more stories of arcades, opening into arched passages and staircases, which tended towards the centre of the arena, and by communicating with other passages, or corridors meeting them at right angles, led the way to every part of the building. Of these arched entrances, the four which, on the ground floor, formed the diameter of the elliptical, were usually of larger dimensions than the rest; by the longer radii the wild beasts, the gladiators, and those concerned in the management of the games, entered direct into the arena; and by the shorter, in the amphitheatre at Rome, the principal personages among the spectators were conducted to the platform, or gallery attached to the first row of seats round the arena, called the *podium*. Magnificent gateways were generally erected at the extremities of these passages below,

General arrangements of the principal amphitheatres.

AMPHITHEATRE.

AMPHITHEATRE.

four of which, belonging to the amphitheatre at Verona, were standing at the beginning of the last century.

The doors of entrance from the staircases and passages into the body of the amphitheatres, were called *vomitories*, in front of which was a platform which ran round the whole range of those on the same level, and these platforms bore the name of *precinctioes*; the fronts of the walls which bounded them on the ascending side were called *bella*. Short staircases communicated from one precinct to the belt of another. These lines of stairs, all radiating towards the arena, divided the exterior face of the amphitheatre into wedge-like compartments or sets of seats, to which were given the name of *cunei*, and every citizen was placed in that which belonged to his own rank or tribe, according to certain laws of the amphitheatre, and numbers assigned to the *cunei* and to each of the archways leading to them. From the first accounts of the distribution of the seats in the amphitheatre at Rome, we find that in the middle of one side of the podium (the broadest of all the platforms that circumscribed the building), a pavilion was erected for the emperor, called the *suggesum*; the rest of the podium was occupied by ambassadors, senators, the vestals, and ladies of high rank. The front of the podium was guarded with a strong net-work, and rails of iron surmounted with spikes and large rollers of wood, hung vertically, to prevent the hunted animals from leaping over. Married men had distinct seats from the unmarried throughout the amphitheatre; and youths of respectability were placed with their tutors: the upper galleries were naturally accounted the most inferior places; and here generally the plebeians stood behind the women.

The amphitheatres, as open buildings, were exposed to considerable inconvenience occasionally, by the changes of the elements, and were furnished with various inventions to meet them. Down the edges of the benches adjoining the stairs, channels were cut to drain off the rain water, which communicated with ample drainage-pipes below; an awning, or canopy, which would protect the whole circumference of the building, was drawn at convenience over the heads of the spectators, and fountains refreshed the air with the aromatics of the east. On some occasions we read of the whole furniture of the amphitheatre dazzling the eye, with ornaments of gold, silver, or amber; and this net-work in front of the podium, in the time of Carinus, is said to have been formed of gold wire. To these luxuriant innovations in the manner of conducting the public amusements, we find the poets frequently allude. Thus Ovid

Tunc neque marmore pendebant vela theatro,
Nec forent insipida pulvis rubra cressa;
Hæc quæ inferius, immensum Pulvis, sondes
Simpliçiter positum: Scena sine arte falli.
In gradibus vult populus de cæpitæ factis,
Qualibet bisectus fronde tegente omnes.

The strictest attention is said to have been paid to order, and the claims of the different ranks and tribes of the people in the arrangement of their seats; officers, called the *locarii*, had the care of the *cunei*, and the general superintendence of the building was placed under the direction of a *villicus amphitheatrici*.

The history of these edifices presents us with many striking features of the Roman mind and manners.

While stands the Coliseum, Rome shall stand,

says a modern poet, quoting after Mr. Gibbon, from the venerable Beke, a saying of the Anglo-Saxon pilgrim who visited Rome early in the eighth century. "Quamdiu stabit Colyseus, stabit Roma, quando cadet Colyseus, cadet et Roma; quando cadet Roma, cadet et mundus;" for that celebrated amphitheatre concentrates in its ruins, perhaps the most remarkable memorial extant of the grandeur and barbarity of her character.

The games, for the exhibition of which these buildings were erected, were truly Roman in their origin. We have had occasion to notice in another place (HISTORICAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL DIVISION, vol. ix. p. 228), the progress of those political circumstances which formed the sanguinary military character of the Romans. A. v. 490 is the date that has been generally assigned to the introduction of the gladiatorial combats; which, according to Valerius Maximus, were first exhibited by M. and D. Brutus, on the decease of their father; and the elephants taken from the Carthaginians during the first Punic war, about A. v. 502, afford the earliest instance of wild animals being brought into the forum. The custom in the ancient world of sacrificing their enemies to the manes of their great men, was at least as old as the time of Homer (*Iliad*, lib. xxiii.), and it had long been usual to immolate slaves, and persons of low condition, at the funerals of the great; but it was reserved for the Romans to exhibit the combats by which this was generally effected as a public sport. Once introduced, however, it became so favourite a spectacle with the people, that the heir of every considerable family was expected to renew it upon these occasions; and the candidates for public favour found no readier mode of obtaining it, than by indulging the citizens with frequent exhibitions of the kind. The hunting of wild beasts in these games may be allowed, perhaps, to have grown out of a more justifiable intention—that of injuring the Roman people to despise the unwieldy addition of elephants to the armies of the Carthaginians and their Asiatic enemies. It is certain from the testimony of Pliny, that the first display of this kind was with that object; when a few slaves, armed with blunted javelins, goaded through the circus a large number of these animals, taken in Sicily by Metellus. Gradually, however, the attachment of the people to these entertainments, and the magnificence with which they were exhibited, became almost unbounded. The gladiators were regularly trained to their profession; persons of respectability entered into the contests with them, and hundreds of couples came to be exhibited at once in the time of Julius Cæsar. Artificial forests were planted in the midst of the circus, and mountains and caves appeared to abound with the wild inhabitants of the deserts of Africa and the East: thousands of wild beasts of every description have been thus exhibited and slain on particular occasions; after which the centre of the amphitheatre would suddenly be converted into an immense basin of water, and sea-fights be conducted in it on a considerable scale; while the honours of the chieftain or emperor, who thus gratified the multitude, resounded through all the *cunei*.

To Julius Cæsar, or his friend Caius Curio, were History of "the masters of the world" indebted for the introduction of the first regular amphitheatres as the scene of these sports. It would appear, that a singular con-

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.

trivance in the exhibition of the games at the funeral of Curio's father, first suggested the oblong shape which the amphitheatres always retained, while the hunting theatre (*Theatrum Venatorium*), which Cæsar erected for the combats of the beasts and gladiators, on the dedication of the forum, is the first building of the kind to which the term amphitheatre is applied by the Roman writers. Curio's contrivance was this: the ordinary theatres were of a semicircular figure, exceeding no exact semicircle by one-fourth of the diameter; having entertained the people, who were seated in two of these built of wood, with dramatic representations, until noon, he suddenly raised them both to be wheeled round, without disturbing the spectators, and exhibited the gladiatorial games between them. Thus, in fact, the first amphitheatres were of the shape of two of the ancient theatres joined in front. Succeeding favourites of the people vied with each other in improvements upon these erections; a building which passed by this name, partly built of stone, is ascribed, as we have seen, to Statilius, one of the courtiers of Augustus; and the emperor himself is said to have projected a still more permanent erection on the site afterwards occupied by the Colosseum. Nero also distinguished himself by indulging the passion of the people for these shows; and, during the reign of Tiberius, who prohibited many of the private diversions to which the Romans had been accustomed, we read of a theatre constructed by Attilus, at Fedena, a short distance from the city, which would contain from 50 to 60,000 persons. This amphitheatre, overcrowded on a particular occasion, fell to pieces, and maimed a great majority of the spectators. Suetonius says, that 20,000 persons perished by the accident; and the circumstance seems to have given rise to a decree of the senate that, for the future, no man who was not worth 400,000 sesterces, should presume to exhibit gladiators to the public. These erections, generally of timber, are scarcely, however, to be regarded as more than an ingenious scaffolding for the public accommodation, until, under the auspices of Vespasian and Titus, the Roman architecture united with the imperial magnificence to produce that stupendous monument of fallen greatness, the Colosseum, to which we have already alluded.

The Flavian
amphi-
theatre.

This building, sometimes called the Flavian Amphitheatre, and more frequently the Colosseum, from its immense size, measured in its longer diameter 814 English feet, and in the shorter 510 feet. The accommodations for the spectators within occupied the width of 167 feet, leaving for the longer diameter of the arena 281 feet, and for the shorter 176, with 20 feet for the walls, &c. of the building. Its entire circumference measured about 1,770 feet, including a superficial area of 246,661 feet, or something more than four acres and a half of land. Its extreme height was about 164 feet. The exterior elevation was composed of three stories of arcades, presenting successively the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders. The first, or ground floor, was elevated about 3½ feet; from this to the top of the cornice of the columns, was about 33½ feet; the second story was 39 feet high; the third, 38 feet; and the Corinthian pilasterade, which crowned the whole at top, about 46 feet. The outward walls of the Colosseum were of Traverstine stone, cramped together with iron, and without cement. The piers and arches were a mixture of brick and the same kind of stone; the floors of the

passages were paved with flat bricks; and various kinds of stucco and marble facings adorned the inner front. Many of the seats of the podium were of marble, decorated with magnificent cushions and drapery. The number of vomitories that opened into the area of the building, were sixty-four. It contained, according to Lipsius, seats for 87,000 spectators; the galleries above, and the spacious passages and platforms are supposed to have been able to hold from 25,000 to 30,000 more, a collection of human beings that never, perhaps, was gathered together to promote any of the arts of peace! This edifice was begun in the 8th consulate of Vespasian, and was afterwards completed by Titus, in a space of time, according to several historians, not exceeding three years. Embosomed in the heart of the ancient city, it towered above every other object in a general view of Rome, and rivalled the height of most of its surrounding hills; all authors who speak of it in its original magnificence, seem to have imagined that they could not be extravagant in its praise. As a work of far maturer architecture, it certainly outshines the pyramids of Egypt, and all the other wonders of the ancient world. Ammianus does not scruple to speak of it as "a solid mass of masonry, whose summit the human eye can hardly reach." Amphitheatrum molem solidatam lapidis Tiburtini concipit, ad cuius summamitæ regre visio humana conspiciat (lib. xvi. 10). At its dedication, 5,000 wild beasts are said, by Entropius, to have been sacrificed in the arena, and 9,000, according to Dio. It has been calculated in modern times, that 10,779 wild animals, of the various descriptions that were usually exhibited, might stand within its limits. Suetonius says 5,000 were exhibited there by Titus in one day. All the upper works within appear to have been of wood, as we read of a fire which destroyed them A. D. 219, and of another that did considerable damage in the reign of Decius.

For upward of three centuries, human blood flowed in its history. In the Colosseum, mingled with that of every beast of the forest, in undistinguished streams; at length the milder genius of Christianity interfered to abolish these sacrifices to Moloch; but not before many of her primitive martyrs had met every variety of horrid death within the arena. Constantine, on his conversion to Christianity, put down at once all gladiatorial exhibitions in the east; but it was not until the reign of Honorius, that the profession of a gladiator was abolished, or any of the laws respecting them strictly enforced. For sometime after this, the hunting of wild beasts in the amphitheatre was continued, though not upon its former magnificent scale; and down to the early part of the sixth century, the seats of the senators and principal families were zealously preserved. In the course of this century, we finally lose all account of the exhibitions to which these buildings were originally devoted; tilts and tournaments were sometimes held in them in the middle ages; and the ruin only of the Colosseum now stands as the principal surviving link between ancient and modern Rome.

In the time of Justinian, according to Maffei, the attacks of time and man first began to be really injurious to this mighty pile; and the earthquakes and floods of the seventh century, would necessarily mark their devastations upon it. Sometimes we hear of privileges being granted to the different factions, who alternately triumphed at Rome in the thirteenth century, to

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.

"dig out" stones from the Coliseum, as a kind of quarry, and Poggio, who lived in the fifteenth, hyperbolically speaks of the greater part having been reduced to lime. From the twelfth century, the excavated walls had been occasionally fortified, and it furnished a frequent retreat to the popes in their disputes with the factions. In 1312, we find it as a regular fortress, surrendered to the Emperor Henry VII.; and ten years afterwards, it was formally "declared to be the property of the Roman senate and people." At this time a celebrated bull-feast, mentioned by Gibbon, was held within this noble ruin; several orders of benches were restored, and a general invitation circulated throughout Italy to invite the nobles to join, after the fashion of the Moors and Spaniards, in the gallant, but perilous sport. A writer, nearly contemporary with the scene, Lud. Buon. Monaldesco, has given a very interesting sketch of the devices and adventures of the knights, and the families and pretensions of the Roman ladies who crowded to the exhibition.

The porticoes on the south side, and towards the arch of Constantine, are supposed to have been overthrown in the earthquake of 1349. In 1381, a third part of the building, and a jurisdiction over the whole, was granted by the senate and people to the society of Sancta Sanctorum, who formed an hospital within it; and that fraternity exercised their rights to the year 1510. Their arms, which are still seen on what are now exterior arcades towards the church of St. Gregory, demonstrate that the outer circles had fallen down at the time of their occupation of the building; and, therefore, that "the whole exterior circumference" could not be "entire and inviolate," as stated by Mr. Gibbon, to the middle of the sixteenth century. Some of the finest buildings of modern Rome are said to have been constructed out of a small part of these magnificent ruins; in 1531, portions of the stones were exposed to public sale; but "all lesser plunder has been obliterated," says Mr. Hobhouse (*Historical Illustrations* of the fourth canto of Lord Byron's *Childe Harold*), "by the more splendid rapine of the Farnese princes. The baths of Constantine, the forum of Trajan, the arch of Titus, the temple of Antoninus and Faustina, the theatre of Marcellus, added their marbles to the spoils of the Coliseum; and the accounts of the Apostolic chamber record a sum of 7,317,888 crowns expended between the years 1541 and 1549, upon the gigantic palace of Campo di Fiore alone. Whether the progress of decay was anticipated and aided, or whether such blocks only as had already fallen were applied to the purposes of construction, is still a disputed point. Martinielli has dared to believe in the more unpardonable outrage, whilst Marangoni has stepped forward to defend the popes, but candidly owns that Paul III. and Sixtus, may have thrown down many of the inner arches."

Pope Sixtus V. according to Fontana, advanced 15,000 crowns to the merchants of Rome, to establish a woollen-manufactory here; but the project was, for some unassigned cause, relinquished. In 1594, it was partly occupied by mechanics; and "this majestic relic," continues the above writer, "which had been protected as a barrack, a hospital, and a bazaar, and which more enlightened ages considered only as a convenient quarry, seems never to have been estimated in its true character, nor preserved as the noblest monument of imperial Rome, until a very late period."

Marangoni, a Roman canon, who composed a work

entitled *Delle memorie Sacre e Profane dell' Anfiteatro Flavio del Canonic*, in the middle of the last century, gives us an account of numerous martyrs whom the faith of the Catholic church has assigned to this spot. Here, besides the memorable triumph of four females over the lions of the amphitheatre (who refused, he declares, to touch them), we have an account of the temptations of St. Philip Neri by the devil, who appeared to him in the Coliseum in the shape of a naked woman; Pius V. used to speak of the wrath of the arena being cemented with holy blood; and a modern cardinal (Uderic Carpegna), is said always to have stopped his coach opposite to the ruins, and to repeat over the names of all the martyrs who had suffered there, before he would proceed. The "Passion of our Saviour," the "Resurrection," and various other pious farces ("sacra farsa," says a Catholic historian), were sometimes performed here from the close of the fifteenth century, to the pontificate of Paul III. and at about the former date a small church, which, with its adjacent hermitage, is still to be seen within the ruins, was consecrated by a bishop of Grosseto.

In 1671, an application to grant the unoccupied space of the amphitheatre, for the celebration of bull-fights, aroused the attention of Clement X. to the sanctity of the spot, and it was solemnly set apart in the jubilee of 1675, as a monument to the martyrs. Mr. Hobhouse gives us one of the inscriptions of that period, which still appears:

Amphitheatrum Flavium
Non tam operis mole et artificio ac veterum
Spectaculorum memoria
Quam Sacre Immortalium Martyrum
Cruore illuere
Venerabilibus hospes ingredere
Et in Augusto magnitudinis Romanæ monumento
Exercata Curarum servitia
Heros Fortitudinis Christianæ suspice
Et curæ
Anno Jubilee. MDCLXXV.

The arcades were now carefully blocked up from the public; and in 1727, a petition was presented to the reigning pontiff, to permit the solitary hermit, who had charge of the buildings, to let out the grass which grew in the arena. In 1742, after an attempt to assassinate the hermit, it was consecrated anew by Lambertini, and several severe edicts were published, forbidding its spoliation. Pius VII. has added some solid battresses to the tottering walls, at a considerable expence, and sentinels now protect the ruin; but our countrymen who have lately visited it, predict its speedy dissolution.

Of the other amphitheatres of the ancient world, it may be sufficient to remark that, while they were all more or less modelled upon the plan of the Coliseum, and subject to similar laws and arrangements, as far as the circumstances of their respective situations would admit, those of Verona, Capua, Nîmes, and Autun, alone approached the amphitheatre of the capital in the style of their decorations, and the regularity of their management. The dimensions and general plan of the amphitheatre at Verona, have been distinctly perceptible to a late date. We shall avail ourselves of the ample information of Maffei on the subject of its history, and of the various descriptions of other ruins of the kind by modern travellers, under the respective articles of our present Division to which they belong; while in this general view of these structures, a comparative idea of

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.Other am-
phitheatres.

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.—
AMPHI-
TRYON.

the dimensions of some of the principal ones will not be unacceptable to the reader. That of Verona measured 506 English feet in the longer diameter, in the shorter, 405 feet; and the arena was 247 feet long, by 145 wide—the whole building including a circuit of 1,451 feet, and a superficial area of 204,930 feet: equal to about four fifths of the size of the Coliseum itself. The general arrangements which we have already sketched, were strictly regarded in the interior. Its entire height, consisting of three stories of arcades, was about 90 English feet. The amphitheatre at Nîmes was 430 English feet long, by 338 wide, including an area of nearly three acres; here were two stories of arcades, reaching to about 65 feet in height. Its history is curious; and it forms, to this day, one of the most extensive monuments of Roman antiquity in all France. Other buildings of this description, as at Pola in Istria, at Parium in Laeonia, and at Italica in Spain, enclosed one, two, and three acres of ground; and sometimes the sides of adjacent hills were seated, and adapted to the purposes in question: as at Corinth, and Gortina in Candia. Vestiges of amphitheatres, on a smaller scale, are found at Alba; at Otricoli, in Umbria; at Puzzaoli; at Syracuse, Agrigentum, and Catania in Sicily; and at Sandwich in Kent, and Caerleon in Mon-

mouthshire (partly natural vallies), in Great Britain. These details will be sufficient to show, that the passion for the amusements of the amphitheatre was not confined to Rome as an excess of the metropolis, but

Of her great empire.
Of her great empire.

Inured to sights of blood from youth to age, every rank of her people was prepared for deeds of blood; and not only does such a barbarous state of the public manners, pervading the most civilized portions of the world for ages, demonstrate the necessity of a better system of morals, but, as far as motives of policy may be thought to have influenced the successive rulers of the empire to patrolize them, never was there a more striking instance of policy over-strained. Here the best and finest feelings of our nature were perpetually sacrificed to its vilest passions; the hand of the assassin was trained, as his heart was hardened, to strike his future blow, whether at an imperial, or plebeian victim; the sines of subordination were cut in proportion as the love of life for its own liberties, comforts, and great moral ends, was despised; and the mighty fabric of misrule, thus supposed to be sustained, was ultimately broken and scattered, by the very force of that factions courage which was here taught the citizen, at the expense of the man.

AMPHI-
THEA-
TRE.—
AMPLE.

AMPHITHEATRE, a French name for the bottom of a theatre opposite the stage, containing seats that rise one above another, in the place of our front boxes. Also an obsolete garden terrace, ascended by slopes and steps of various forms.

AMPHITRITE, in the Heathen Mythology, was the daughter of Oceanus and Thetis, wife of Neptune, and mother of Triton. She was goddess of the sea, and had a statue in the temple of Neptune at Corinth, and another in the island of Tenos. THROO. 930. OVID, *Met.* i. v. 14, &c. She was often represented by a figure like the human female to the waist, and terminating in the tail of a fish. This was also the name of one of the Nereides.

AMPHITRITE, in Zoology, a genus of worms of the order Mollusca; some natives of hot, others of cold countries. See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

AMPHITRYON, in Heathen Mythology, a Theban prince, son of Alcous and Hippomene, and husband of Alcmene, the mother of Hercules. He obtained and lived with his wife upon equally singular terms. Electryon, king of Mycenæ, having offered his daughter Alcmene, with the succession to the crown, to any hero who would revenge the death of his sons upon the Teleboans, Amphitryon undertook the task. While he was thus engaged, Jupiter himself became enamoured of his promised bride, and assuming the form of Amphitryon, introduced himself to her bed, an amour to which the mythologists trace the birth of Hercules. Amphitryon retarding the next day, was received with a coldness of which he complained, and was shown the cup of the more successful lover who had personated him. Learning from an oracle that this was Jupiter, he is said to have been well contented with his fate, and to have had a son by her at the same birth with Hercules, whom he named Iphiclus. Shortly after his return, he was the accidental cause of the death of his father-in-law by the rebounding of a stick which he threw at a

strayed cow; the kingdom was seized by Sthenelus, the brother of Electryon, and Amphitryon was compelled to retire to Thebes. VIRO. *Æt.* viii. v. 213, &c.

AMPHORA (from *amphi*, and *phoros*, on account of its two handles), in Antiquity, an earthen vessel, used as a measure for liquids by the Greeks and Romans. The Attic Amphora, which was that in use among the Greeks, contained three Roman urns, or 72 sextaries, equal to about 10 gallons 5½ pints English wine measure. The Roman, sometimes called the Italic Amphora, contained two urns, or 48 sextaries, or about 7 gallons 1 pint English.

AMPHORARIUM VINUM, in Antiquity, wine kept in pitchlers, or amphora; to distinguish it from that drawn out of the cask, which was called *vinum dolare*.

AMPHOTEROPLOON, amongst Civilians, signifies an insurance of a vessel, both in its voyage outward, and on its return.

AMPHOTIDES, in Antiquity, a species of armour for the ears, used by the Fugiles.

AMPLE,
AM'PLENESS,
AM'PLIATE,
AMPLI'ATION,
AM'PLITUDE,
AM'PLY,
AM'PLIFY,
AMPLIFICATION,
AM'PLIFIER.

Amplus, which Vossius is inclined to derive from *amplius*, Attice: filled up.

Full, large, wide, in quantity or extent; spread, or diffused in a great degree.

He [Daniel] expresseth the fruits of his repentance, that is to write, God in grace made more ample gifts to the repentant than he took from them, as ye see him to have done to Job.

The exposition of Daniel by George Jeye, ch. iv.

From the Tenters to the parks gate of Greenewich were all houses and fyres cutt downe, and a large and ample waye made for the shew of all persons. *Holl. Henry the 8th.* fo. 828.

AMPLE. The same lord will prosper your endeavors in that behalf, to the end that the most noble Emper, which ye have hitherto had without bloudshed of man, ye may sensibly as well enlarge and amplify, as also defende and maintain.

Udal. Preface.

After the myndes of Virgil, Ovide, and such other fabulous Poets, these .ii. erud. captaynes Romulus and Remus, every one their first bury sheweth of a waddinge above they sought, in 15 payf. c. c. on of the wonderfull tyranny which should followe in y^e great cytic Rome, wherof they were the first amplifiers.

Pole. Actes of Eng. Histories, part ii. pref. f. lii.

And lyke as ye would employe all possible industrie, and diligence to maintaine and amplify the externall possessions of your empire, even so to augment the vertues of the ayde, beinge the more precious possession at the last.

Udal. Preface unto the Kynges Maiestie.

And underneath his feet as written thus,
Unto the victor of the gods this be:
And all the people in that ample troue
Did to that image bowe their humble knee,
And oft committed foule idolatrie.

Spenser's Forrie Queene, book liii. c. ii.

Neither is it necessary, nor commonly used, to ioyne private successes names to publick matters: neither in so mightie & ample a reigne, upon all accident occasion is it so easy to be done.

Jeuel's Defence of the Apologie.

Gods, where e'er they go,
Pring their heaves with them, their great footstepes place
An everlasting soile upon the face
Of the glad earth they tread on, while a sith these
These heaves that amplify mortallity,
And teach it to exultate, and swell
To unjunct and fulness deign to dwell.

Cushman. On the D. of York's Birth.

As for the delights, commodities, sterility, with other enormities of this order (of plants), we are unwilling in thy them over, in the short deliveries of Virgil, Varro, or others, and shall therefore enlarge with additional amplifications.

Branca's Garden of Cyren.

As for the Cathedral of Lincoln, whose floor is higher then the roof of many churches, it is a magnificent structure, proportionable to the amplitude of the diocese.

Faller's Worthies. Lincolnshire.

How may I
Adore thee, Author of this universe,
And all this good to man? for whose well being
So ample, and with hands so liberal,
Thou hast provided all things.

Milton's Par. Lost, book viii.

Suspicion and jealousy are general synonimes; they are commonly distrustful, suspicious, apt to mistrust, and amplify.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

By setche amplifications, and catches in speech, it would appeere, Christe were Peters vicar: and not Peter Vicare unto Christe.

Jeuel's Defence of the Apologie.

Certainly Domians could need no amplifiers mouth for the highest point of praise.

Sidney's Arcadia.

Now let us leave this earth, and lift our eye
To the large convex of y^e azure sky:
Behold it like an ample curtain spread,
Now streak'd and glowing with the morning red;
Amen at noon in flaming yellow bright,
And chasing sable for the peaceful night.

Pratt's Solomon, book i.

Nay, who knows but that there may be even of these many orders rising in dignity of nature, and amplitude of power, more above another?

But yet, without experience, sense, or arts,
Pamphils boasts sufficiency of parts;
Imagines he alone is ample fit
To guide the state, or give the stamp to wit:
Pride plants the mind with an heroic air,
Nor kids he a defect of vigour there.

Fenton's Ep. to Mr. Lambard.

Tridas and Cressida was written by a Lombard author; but much amplified by our English translator, as well as beautified; the genius of our countrymen being rather to improve an invention than to invent themselves.

Dryden's Pref. to Fables.

If your scene be ample, the part you introduce must be ample also. A pultry role is of no value. A grand one is a work of magnificence.

Gulian's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

When the soul has obtained a greater amplitude of thought, it will not then immediately pronounce every thing to be God which is above man.

Watts's Logick.

Nay, being not so wet.
Dry, dry thy tears, they're done their office amply:
Edgar has pardon'd him.

Mason's Eridon.

Having no talents for amplification, and love, moreover of all others, being a subject of which he was the least a master, whom he had told Mrs. Wadman once that he w'd her, he let it alone.

Stearns's Tristram Shandy.

Where the author is obscure, enlighten: where he is imperfect, supply his deficiencies: where he is too brief and concise, amplify a little, and set his notions in a fairer view.

Watts on the Improvement of the Mind.

AMPLEPUIS, a considerable town of France, in the department of the Loire, according to Vosgien, four leagues from Roanne. Its linen manufactories are noted; and the inland trade is good. Population 3,300.

AMPLIATION, is used in a general sense, for enlarging the extent of a thing. On a medal we find the title of ampliator civium given to the Emperor Antoninus Pius, from his having extended the jus civitatis to many states before excluded.

AMPLIFICATION, in Rhetoric, the part of a speech wherein an enumeration of circumstances is dilated upon to excite the minds of the auditors.

AMPLITUDE is a term used in Astronomy to denote the distance of any celestial body, or other object (when referred, by a secondary circle, to the horizon), from the east or west points; the complement to the amplitude, or the distance from the north or south point, is called the *azimuth*. See **ASTRONOMY**, Part ii.

AMPLITUDE is also used with reference to the direction of the magnetic needle, or compass, denoting in this case the arc of the horizon contained between the sun or a star at its rising or setting, and the magnetical east or west points of the horizon; or it is the difference of the rising or setting of the sun or star from the east or west points of the compass.

AMPLITUDE, in Gunnery, is sometimes used for the range of a shell, or other projectile, from its departure out of the mouth of the piece to the place where it falls. Thus the French engineers speak of the amplitude de parabole, &c. In calculating the ranges of military projectiles, are found some of the most important uses of the pure mathematics.

AMPONES, an Indian nation of Paraguay, inhabiting a fertile country amidst the southern forests of the Rio de la Plata. There are several distinct tribes, and their principal food is fish, dried by smoking, and wild fruits. Some gold mines are said to be in their possession, and the shores of their rivers yield the same metal.

AMPSAGU, now the Wed-el-Kibber, according to Dr. Shaw, i. e. the Great River, a river of Africa, which separated the ancient Mauritania Cesariensis on the E. from Numidia Propria, falling into the Mediterranean W. of Hippo. It is also sometimes called Sassegran.

AMPT, in Danish policy, a subdivision of the districts of Denmark, over which a provincial governor is placed, called the amptman, and stifts-ampman, the latter being a post of considerable authority.

AMPLE.

AMPT.

AMPT.

AMFYX.

AMPTHILL, an ancient town of Bedfordshire, having had a charter to hold a market since the year 1219. It is eight miles S. by W. of Bedford, and 45 N. W. of London. Petty sessions for the hundred of Redborne Stoke, are held here. About a mile distant from the town, is an hospital for twelve poor men, four poor women, and a reader, being unmarried persons. There is a handsome market-house, and a charity-school; Amptill Park, the seat of the earl of Upper Ossory, is at a short distance W. of the town. Population about 1,300.

AMPTITZ, or **AMPLITZ**, a lordship, castle, and market-town, in the circle of Guben, Lower Lusatia, near the Neisse. The town is about two leagues from Guben, and the lordship, which is fertile in corn and pasturage, contains also iron-ore in considerable quantities, and five villages.

AMPULLA, in Antiquity, a vessel bellying out like a jug, that contained unguents for the bath; also a drinking vessel at table. Amongst the ornaments and sacred utensils of churches, we find the ampulla answering various purposes, such as holding the oil for chrism, consecration, &c. and a vessel of this kind is still used in the coronations of the kings of England and France.

AMPULLA, an order of Knighthood, instituted by Clovis I. king of France, by the title of kings of St. Ampulla, whose office it is in the procession to bear up the canopy under which the ampulla is carried for the coronation of their kings. The legends of the order say, that this vessel was brought from heaven by a dove, for the baptismal unction of Clovis I. in the year 496, and was replenished by a standing miracle, for each succeeding coronation.

AMPULLACEÆ CONCHÆ, in Conchology, a large family of shells, classed with the genus *Voluta*, or *Buccinum*.

AMPURIAS, a town of Catalonia, in Spain, once a bishop's see, and fortified; but now in a declining state. It is seated on the river Fluvià, and is still the capital of the district of Ampurdan, in the province of Gerona; not far distant is the Castello de Ampurias. It is 58 miles N. E. of Barcelona, and 15 miles E. of Gerona. Population 2,200.

AMPUTATE, } Ampato; am, and puto, to
AMPUTATION, } pare round, to cut away, to cut off.

Nor was this [using of the right hand] only in use with divers nations of men, but was the custom of whole nations of women; as is deducible from the Amazons, in the amputation of their breasts, whereby they had the free use of their bow.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Admitting the same doctrine of an original body, we must, however, observe, that living men may lose several of their limbs by amputation. *Bosch's El. of Moral Sciences.*

The gospel does most certainly require us to renounce some things, which the man of the world may not be very willing to part with. But to accuse the gospel of severity on this account, would be just as rational and as equitable, as to charge the surgeon with cruelty for amputating a gangrened limb, or the physician with ill-nature, for prescribing a strict regimen and a course of searching medicines, to a patient blasted with disease.

Porteus's Sermons.

AMPUTATION, in Surgery, that operation whereby a diseased limb is cut off or separated from the body. See **STRAPIRY**, Div. ii.

AMPYX, in Antiquity, a golden chain, mentioned by Homer as worn across the forehead of a horse.

More recently it was applied to a hand encircled with gold and jewels, which formed a part of the head-dress.

AMRAN, a town in Arabia, situated in a territory of the same name, near the foot of a hill, about 20 miles N. W. of Sana, 90 E. of Lohien. The town is surrounded by a wall, but is not a place of much importance. Also a town and fortress in the province of Gujerat, Hindostan.

AMRAS, **OMBRAS**, or **ARN AMBROSIANA**, an imperial palace in the county of Tyrol, Germany, once of considerable repute for its library and as a repository of antiquities. Charles V. adorned it at a great expence, and the Archdukes of Austria formerly made it their summer residence.

AMRETSIR, formerly called Chak, a town of Hindostan, in the province of Lahore, the principal place of the religious worship of the Sikhs, and thence called *The Pool of Immortality*, which its present appellation signifies. It is situated on the road between Cabul and Delhi, Cashmere and the Dakkan, and is, on that account, a place of great trade and commerce; but its chief importance is derived from the sacred pond constructed by Ram Dass (one of the earlier pontiffs of the Sikh faith), in which the Sikhs and other Hindon tribes immerse themselves, that, as they believe, they may be purified from all sin. This holy basin is 135 paces square, built of brick, having in its centre a temple dedicated to the Hindon saint, Gooroo Govind Singh. Under a silken canopy in this temple, is deposited the saint's book of religion and laws, called Granth. The voluntary contributions of pilgrims and devotees support this place, to which about six hundred priests are attached.

ANSDORFIANS, in Ecclesiastical History, an evanescent sect of the Reformation, so named from their leader, Nicholas Amadorf, at first a zealous Lutheran, but who adopted some of the Antinomian opinions of Agricola; asserting not only that good works were not necessary to salvation, but even an impediment to it.

AMSTADTEN, a market-town of Lower Austria, situated to the westward of the forest of Vienna, on the road to Linz. There are some profitable iron-works in the neighbourhood.

AMSTEL, a small river of Holland, from which the city of Amsterdam derives its name. It runs through the city in its progress to the Wye, an arm or branch of the Zuyder Zee.

AMSTELLAND, a tract of country in South Holland, in the neighbourhood of Amsterdam, taking its name from the river Amstel. It is fruitful in pasturage.

AMSTERDAM, the capital of Holland, and the largest and richest city of the kingdom of the Netherlands. It is situated on an arm of the Zuyder Zee, called the Y, or Wye, at the efflux of the river Amstel, from which it derives its name, originally written *Amstel-redam*, the dam or dyke of the Amstel.

This fine city occupies an extent of 892 acres, and is 3,768 toises in circumference; or, according to another estimate, it is about 18,790 geometrical feet in the area, and 84 English miles round. The Amstel divides it into two parts, the Eastern, or Old, and the Western, or New Town, both of which are intersected by nu-

AMPTX.

AMSTER-

DAM.

AMSTERDAM. merous canals, forming what may be termed small islands, and communicating with each other by no less than 290 bridges; none of them, however, with the exception of that which crosses the Amstel, are worthy of particular notice. This is handsomely built of brick, and has thirty arches; it is 600 feet long, and 70 broad, and is projected by a handsome iron ballustrade, which joins the terrace or promenade in front of the admiralty, a noble building, enclosing its own dock-yard and the warehouses of the East India company. The water of the canals is, in general, about eight or nine feet deep, and the mud at the bottom about six more. Many of them are offensively impure, and there is a uniform greenness spread over the surface. But it is contended, by the medical practitioners of Amsterdam, that these stagnant waters are by no means unwholesome to the city. Several of the streets are lined with trees, forming very agreeable walks and promenades; they are paved with brick, but have no paved pathways; and the houses are remarkably narrow. The Heeren-gragt and Prinsen-gragt, however, contain some noble buildings; and, the river Amstel running into the very bosom of the city, the port formed by the Y capable of receiving a thousand vessels, the hustle of its mercantile pursuits, with the general appearance of wealth and industry, conspire to give Amsterdam a degree of importance superior to many other larger cities in Europe. The harbour, when viewed from a distance, has the appearance of a thick forest of masts; but the entrance from the Texel requires some experience to pass in safety. The dock-yards and arsenals, both of the city and admiralty, are extensive and well contrived for business.

The canals.

Amsterdam yields to the Dutch government a revenue of a million and a half per annum, and is, in every aspect of it, a monument of Batavian industry. The surrounding country through which the Wye has its course, is four or five feet below the level of the stream, from which it is preserved by immense embankments; and the city itself is built upon many thousands of immense piles, driven into the natural swamp on which it stands. It was formerly only a small fishing village; but in the year 1370 it began to be known as a trading town. More than another century, however, elapsed before it was encompassed with walls or any species of fortifications. But at this time Mary of Burgundy took it under her protection, and encircled it with a substantial wall of brick. This was afterwards destroyed by the Guelderlanders, and never wholly renewed. In the earlier records of the Reformation we find this city exposed to the plots of the Anabaptist leaders. The deputies of John of Leyden, who asserted that God had made him a present of the cities of Amsterdam, Dvinter, and Wesel, assembled twelve of their associates at midnight, in 1535, five of whom were women, and running naked at the head of them into the streets, exclaimed, "Woe, woe; the wrath of God; woe to Babylon!" This outrage, though soon quelled, was but the precursor of a more formidable conspiracy, headed by one Von Gellen, and conducted with considerable adroitness and inviolable secrecy. This fanatic raised a sufficient number of proselytes to attack and take the town-house, to which they marched with drums beating and colours flying, and there fixed their head quarters, sustaining a severe siege from the

VOL. XVII.

regular troops that were mustered by the burgo-masters; but being completely surrounded, were all of them put to death. From this period, it gradually increased in size and general importance, till, in the seventeenth century, it was one of the first commercial cities in Europe; particularly after the shutting of the Scheldt and the reduction of Antwerp, by successive wars with the Spaniards. The stability of its commerce was, however, finally fixed by the erection of the bank, Bank. which was instituted by the states of Holland on the 31st of January, 1609, which rendered Amsterdam the grand central point of European exchange; and sustained, with the highest reputation, its bill transactions to an immense extent, with every trading town of note in the world. This, however, has considerably declined. The invasion of this city by the French in the year 1795, led to the discovery, that the deposits in the Dutch bank consisted not so much in specie as had always been held out, but in bonds, which the directors had received from different public bodies, in lieu of cash. This circumstance shook the credit of the bank of Amsterdam to a degree, which it has not, and never will, entirely surmount; so that a great part of its former profitable exchanges have found their way to London and Hamburg. Prior, indeed, to this event, the Dutch commerce had begun to decline; but the merchants of Amsterdam may justly attribute their greatest disasters to the revolutionists of France.

In the year 1787, this city was taken by the Prussians; but they left it the year following. It was occupied by the French from the year 1810, till the overthrow of Napoleon Buonaparte, during which time it was the chief town of the department of the Zuyder Zee, and was deemed the third city in the French empire. In 1785 there were 230,000 inhabitants; but in 1812, they did not exceed 200,000. In 1815, they are stated to have been only 180,179; but this, we think, must be greatly below the truth.

This city is defended, on the land side, by a wall and twenty-six bastions, with a capacious and deep ditch, or fosse. On the side next the sea, however, it has no fortifications; but the entrance to the harbour is guarded by a double row of piles, which have openings at intervals to admit vessels. These openings are always closed during the night. There is a sort of basin outside of the piles, called the Laag, in which lie the heavy laden ships. In case of invasion, the inhabitants could, if they chose, lay the whole city under water in a very short time, by means of enormous sluices in the neighbourhood. The city is entered by eight noble gates of stone. Some of the streets have a very splendid and magnificent appearance, rendered more pleasing by the avenues of stately elms which adorn the fronts of the houses. The shops are also very handsome, particularly those belonging to the jewellers and print-sellers, of which there are great numbers.

Among the public buildings, the stadthouse is by far the most elegant and splendid: it stands nearly in the centre of the town, on a foundation of 13,659 piles, and occupies a spacious quadrangular area: it is a square building, 282 feet in front, 235 feet in depth, and in height 116, without the tower: it has seven small porticoes, representative of the seven united provinces; but has not any grand entrance,—an architectural omission which is said to have been occasioned

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AMSTER-
DAM.

by the prudence of the magistrates, who had the superintendence of the building, for the purpose of preventing free access to a mob, in case of tumult. The whole building, with the exception of the ground floor, which is brick-work, is of freestone, and is said to have cost 300,000*l.* sterling; some say the enormous sum of two millions. The principal architect was John Van Kempen, who acted under the controul of four burgo-masters. The first of the numerous piles on which it is erected was driven on the 20th of January, 1648, and the last on the 6th of October following, when the first stone was laid. It was finally completed in 1655. The interior is in every way worthy the former greatness of the Batavian republic. The burgo-masters' cabinet and retiring rooms, the treasury chamber, painter's chamber, and the council of war chamber, are splendid apartments. The bürger's hall is a magnificent room, with sides of marble, 120 feet long, 57 broad, and 80 high, having galleries 22 feet in width. It is entered under a Corinthian colonnade of red and white marble, by massy bronze gates and railing finely executed. On the floor are the singular ornaments of the terrestrial and celestial globes, delineated in circles of 22 feet in diameter, by solid work of brass and variegated marbles. There are three of these circles; two of which are devoted to the hemispheres of the earth, and one between them to the planisphere of the heavens. At one end is a colossal Atlas, supported by Vigilance and Wisdom, and bearing the globe on his shoulders. From this hall a noble double staircase leads to the tribunal, another principal apartment of the stadhous, which occupies a large portion of the ground floor. Its walls are also of white marble, adorned with figures in bass relief, symbolical of the purposes to which it is devoted.

The statues and paintings with which the interior of the stadhous is adorned, are both numerous and costly. Among the pictures we may briefly notice, *The Signing of the Peace of Munster*, by Vanderhelft; *An Assembly of the States*, a capital picture, by Vandyke; and *The Assembly of the Confederates*, by Rembrandt. The centre of the grand saloon was drawn by Huygens; but, unfortunately, its basement has been injured.

The exterior is richly decorated with basso and alto relievos. On the front is a marble pediment, on which is a female figure supporting the city arms. The figure is in a sitting posture, her chair being supported by two lions, bearing an olive branch in the right hand. On each side are four Naiads, presenting her with a crown of palm and laurel; and two other marine goddesses, presenting her with different sorts of fruits. There is also Neptune, accompanied by tritons, a sea unicorn, and a sea horse. Over these are three bronze statues, representing Justice, Strength, and Plenty; and on the top of the whole structure is a round tower, adorned with statues, and containing a chime of bells.

This magnificent edifice formerly contained prisons both for criminals and debtors; but these have been lately transferred to more suitable abodes; and the stadhous is now converted into a royal palace.

The bank, which, as we have already noticed, was established in 1609, has nothing peculiarly worthy of notice in its structure. The public course, or exchange, built of freestone, and measuring 230 feet in length by 130 feet in breadth, is a very commodious building. There are two galleries, where the merchants may retire

in wet weather; they are supported by forty-six large pillars, each marked with a particular number; and under each is a place for the merchandize of the persons who frequent it. These lower apartments are generally appropriated to foreigners.

Besides these buildings, we may notice the exchange; the four houses of charity; the hospital; the lazaretto, or house for old men; nine houses for orphans; and the foundation of Van Brinen. Here are four houses of correction, and other minor prisons. The admiralty-office, or, as it was formerly called, the court of the princes of Orange; the houses of the East and West India companies; the colleges, and public schools; the botanic garden; the theatres, and the superb gate, called the Harlem-gate, are all worthy the notice of the visitor; as also is the arsenal for the men of war, and several other public establishments; nor should we omit to notice the workhouse, an establishment of the kind which has no parallel in the world. It is capable of holding 1,000 persons.

Among the literary institutions, we may particularize *Literary* in the following:—The society of Felix Meritis, an institution devoted to philosophy and the fine arts; the Academy of Design; the Poetic Society; the Illustrious School, or Athenaeum Illustre; and the School for Seamen.

The churches are not very numerous. The old church, called Oudekerk, has a chapel, with windows of painted glass; the new church, called St. Katharynkerk, contains the tomb of the celebrated Admiral De Ruyter, who died in the year 1676; the tomb of Admiral Bentinck, who died in 1781, at the battle of Dogger's-bank; and the monument of the Dutch poet Vondel. Here also are the southern church, called Zuider-kerk, and some others. These churches of the establishment are Calvinistic; but all other denominations are tolerated. There are two French, one English, one Scotch, one Armenian, two Lutheran, and three Baptist churches; besides twenty-four Roman Catholic chapels, one Quakers' meeting, and two very splendid Jewish synagogues, one for the German, and the other for the Portuguese Jews.

We must not omit to notice the amiable sisterhood of the Beguines amongst the best conducted establishments of Amsterdam, and forming an institution peculiar to that place, as a Protestant town. These ladies reside in a large isolated building, contiguous to which is a church and numerous inferior offices appropriated to their own order; the whole being surrounded with a wall and a ditch. Any female may enter into this society, being unmarried, or without children, upon a certificate of good character, and of her having an adequate income for her own support. Each sister is required to attend stated prayers, and to be within the walls at a given hour at night: she has a small flower garden devoted to her own use; she is not distinguished by any dress, is free to pursue her own former habits during the day, and may marry from, or leave the establishment when she pleases.

Amsterdam, on the other hand, has always been disgraced by the gross profligacy of its licensed brothels or spel-houses, whose keepers are ever on the watch to entrap unemployed or sallow females into their establishments, and obtain the connivance of the police by the payment of a small fine.

The government of Amsterdam is vested in a senate

AMSTER-
DAM.

AMSTER-
DAM.
Government.

or council of thirty-six members, and twelve burgomasters. The members of the council sit during life, and fill up the vacancies that occur in their numbers by their own suffrages. The burgomasters, who are chosen by the citizens out of a double number first nominated by the council, sustain the active magistracy of the city in rotation, the government of each lasting only three months, and the four who are to preside during the year being annually appointed burgomasters' regent, an office very similar to that of the lord mayor of London. These magistrates have the keys of the bank deposited with them. There is also a court of burgomasters, which decides all criminal cases; but in civil causes there is an appeal to the provincial council. The senate of Amsterdam formerly appointed the deputies to the states-general, in which this city only held the fifth rank, although it sent four representatives, or double the number of any other of the cities of Holland.

Manufac-
tures.

Amsterdam has several extensive manufactures, particularly in all sorts of stuffs, serges, woollen cloths, damasks, lace, galleons, velvets, carpets, and leather; jewellery, gold and silver articles, sugar refining, toys, distilleries, and japan and china ware. Here also is an extensive Lombard, or pawn-house, in which business is transacted to a very great amount. The water in this part of Holland is so brackish and feculent, that it is not used for common culinary purposes: hence there are water-merchants, who are constantly occupied in supplying the city with water that is fit for drinking. This they bring in boats from Utrecht and Germany, in large stone bottles, containing about a gallon each. Those who cannot afford to buy it, use rain-water.

AMSTERDAM, NEW, a town in Dutch Guiana, situated between the rivers Berbice and Canje. It is the seat of the government of Berbice. The allotments of land on which the houses stand that face the waters, have trenches all round them, which are filled and emptied with every tide; each lot occupying about a quarter of an acre of land. Here is a neat garden; the circulation of air is kept up; and the cleanliness of every establishment within these precincts is promoted. It stands W. lon. 57°, 15'. N. lat. 6°, 20'.

AMSTERDAM, an island of the South Pacific Ocean, in E. lon. 76°, 54', and lat. 38°, 42', visited by Von Vlaming, a Dutch commander, in 1697; and in 1793, by the British ships which took out Lord Macartney on his embassy to China. It is of the shape of a horse-shoe, nearly closed at the points, containing a harbour or basin in the centre, the entrance to which might easily be made navigable to vessels of any burden. The length of the island, from N. to S., is upwards of four miles; its breadth, from E. to W., about two miles and a half; and its circuit, about eleven miles. The harbour, with its surrounding rocks, is of the shape of an elliptical funnel, or inverted cone, whose longest diameter at the water's edge is 1,100 yards, and the shortest 850; its circumference being 3,000 yards, or about a mile and a half. At the top it is about two miles round. A fertile but very soft and spongy soil covers the island, which bears every where such unquestionable marks of a volcanic origin, that the scientific gentlemen attached to the embassy had

no doubt of the harbour itself having once formed an immense crater.

This island is inaccessible on every side but the E., through the narrow strait by which the basin communicates with the sea; it stands 200 feet out of the water, as seen from the outward shores, and the land slopes upward all round to its internal edge, or the mouth of the crater, which is formed of layers of lava rising about 730 feet from the water below. On the western side of the island, which is nearly perpendicular, the depositions of successive eruptions may be distinctly traced: a glassy layer being lowest, the compost next, the cellular next above it, and over it volcanic ashes and lighter substances, covered by a layer of vegetable mould. In the same quarter, and toward the S. W. are four small volcanoes, with regularly formed craters, containing lava of recent formation, and constantly emitting elastic vapours. The ground in this part of the island is tremulous under the feet, which cannot be kept in one place for a quarter of a minute together, and stones thrown sharply on the surface return a hollow sound. The island generally is penetrated by fissures, from which smoke issues in the day, and flames at night; the latter giving an awful appearance to the surrounding scenery, as seen from our ships in the offing. Several springs of hot water were visited by our countrymen on the occasion above mentioned, of which the average heat was about 212° Fahrenheit's thermometer; and a large party regulated themselves with tench, bream, and perch, taken with a hook and line from the basin, and boiled in about fifteen minutes in the water of the adjacent springs, as it flowed from the ground. The soil is evidently a decomposition of lava, which is continually increasing and spreading a rich mould over all parts of the island for the tall rank grass that abounds in it; the putrefaction of vegetable matters mixes with this lava and with the mouldering ashes, while the long roots of the grass form the principal tie of the whole. So light, indeed, is the soil, that the foot breaks in at every step, as into sand, and the short walk across the island becomes a fatiguing and dangerous journey. One gentleman in the suite of Lord Macartney accidentally plunged his foot through the layer of mould on the western side, and it was severely scalded. The holes that have been made by various visitors have been built in by the sea-birds that abound in the neighbourhood; which, in no small degree, increases the annoyance of the walk.

Near the centre of the island is an area of about 200 yards square, where the heat of the soil is so great, as to admit of no vegetation. Here one of the hot springs is supposed to take its rise, and to break through the interstices of lava to its mouth, which is just above the water in the great basin below. All the springs of hot water, except one, are brackish; this is a pretty strong chalybeate, and flows to some distance in a small collected stream, through a crust of ochre which it has deposited. Its temperature is not above 112°, and the water is very safe for use. Large beds of moss of the marcantia and lycopodium species, variegate the surface of the island in some places, and on part of it being torn away, it disclosed, in 1793, a thin hot mud, in which a thermometer rose immediately to the boiling point. The same substance overspreads the barren spot in the centre of the island, and on removing it,

AMSTER-
DAM.
Volcanic
formations
on Amster-
dam island.

AMSTER-
DAM.

copious streams of vapour arise, while the sound of bubbling water may be heard in applying the ear to the ground. Veins of vitrified matter, in a liquid state, are seen running down in many places into the basin.

This great reservoir, which, if once the crater of a volcano, was one of the largest in the world, now receives the tide regularly through the mouth, or entrance we have mentioned, where it runs at the rate of about three miles an hour. Within the basin it rises perpendicularly eight or nine feet at the full and ebb of the moon. During the winter months, all kinds of storms and agitations pervade this place. Sometimes the whole mass of waters seem to heave upward from the bottom, and whirlwinds scatter them in immense sheets above the surface of the surrounding rocks. The entrance appears to have been formed by a recent irruption of the sea; for, in 1697, Von Vlaming noticed a low bar across it, upwards of five feet above the surface of the ocean; it is still shallow, and accessible only to boats.

The seal
factory of
Amster-
dam.

On the shores of the island immense numbers of seals are taken, of the phocaena species. The ships of the embassy, in fact, were induced to stop here by the appearance of two men making signs from the immense precipices, and who proved to be part of an American crew who were left to procure seal skins for the Canton market. The whole party consisted of five, two American sailors (originally from England), and two Frenchmen, commanded by a native of France. They had been here about five months, and had gathered 8,000 skins; calculating upon finding 17,000 more before the return of their vessel from Nooka Sound. These are worth at Canton, from one to three dollars each. The animal is killed as it is found basking in the sun, and the carcass is left to putrefy before the skin is taken off. Our people, who were here early in the year, found these disgusting objects scattered all round the island, and the stench from them almost intolerable. The summer is the season for their appearance, when they come ashore in droves of from 800 to 1,000; sometimes plunging instantly back at the sight of man, at other times erecting themselves into a menacing posture, and remaining barking on the rocks until struck down. This is accomplished by a slight blow on the nose with a stick; and if 100 could thus be taken during the day, the adventures above-mentioned were content, as it was the full employ of five men to pin them down afterwards in a proper manner. Some of the oil they yield was gathered, and served their people as butter. It is remarkable, that the proportion of female to male seals which came ashore here, is more than thirty to one. In winter, these animals keep in deep water, and amongst the weeds, which seem to shelter them from its inclemencies; while the sea lions (*phoca leonina* of Linnæus), appear in great numbers, and take their place upon the rocks. They are as large as from 11 to 18 feet long, and make such a prodigious bowling round the shore, that the British ships could distinctly hear them at their anchorage, a mile distant. Whales and sharks also abound in the neighbourhood at this part of the year; but none of these latter animals appear to have been objects of commerce with the visitors of the island. Cod and cray fish are caught in every direction.

AMSTERDAM, an island in the Pacific ocean, generally called Tongataboo. See TONGATABOO.

AMSTERDAM, an uninhabited island, in the Frozen sea, near the western coast of Spitzbergen. There is also an island of this name in the Chinese sea, between Japan and the island of Formosa.

AMSTER-
DAM.

AMULET.

AMTSHITKA, one of the Aleutian Islands, 60 miles in length, but very little cultivated, and consisting greatly of rocky mountains, particularly on the eastern side, where they branch out into the sea, and form several distinct islets, with which the whole island indeed is more or less surrounded.

AMTSZELL, a parish, market-town, and castle, in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, district of the lake of Constance, and upper bailiwick of Ravensburg, between that place and Wargen. It has a population of about 2,130 inhabitants.

AMUCHITA, one of the volcanic Aleutian Islands, about 27 miles long.

AMUDARSA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Bactria, in Africa Propria, mentioned by Antonine, and placed north of Septimucia by M. d'Anville. It was formerly a bishopric.

AMUL, a town of Persia, giving name to a district in the province of Mazanderan. It is situated in a pleasant plain, at the foot of a hill, on the river Arasabei. This was formerly one of the best fortified towns in Persia; and there are still some remains of a castle, which the inhabitants say is 4,000 years old. The building of the town itself is ascribed to Shah Suhak, a celebrated Persian chief, in the 11th century, who named it after a favourite daughter. The Arabes crossed by a fine bridge of stone, erected in the year 1680, by a priest of the Mahometan religion, in commemoration of the fate of those who lost their lives in passing the stream at high water. After it was finished, at his sole expence, he is said to have pronounced an anathema against all those of elevated rank who should cross it on horseback, which to this day is religiously avoided. Persons of this description always dismount on approaching it, and walk over in reverential obedience and fear. In the suburbs of the town, there is a palace, two stories in height, said to have been built by Shah Abbas. There are also three sepulchral towers, supposed to have been fire temples of the ancient Guebres. The population amounts to about 800, who subsist by the cultivation of rice and cotton; or by working at the several iron foundries and forges in the neighbourhood of the town. Amul is distant from Casbin about 120 miles.

AMULET. Amuletum; from amolior, amolitus; from *a* and *moler*, a heap or mass; to heave away, to drive away, to repel.

Amulets, made up of relics, with certain letters and crosses; to make him that wears them invulnerable.

Ep. *Half's Coast of Conscience.*

In that day will the Lord take from them the ornaments,
Of the feet-rings, and the net-works, and the crescents;
The pendants, and the bracelets, and the thin sails;
The fires, and the fetters, and the zones,
And the perfume-burners, and the amulets.

Louth's Isaiah.

AMULETS, in the Customs of almost all the nations of Antiquity, were favourite and sometimes very important instruments of superstition and empiricism. They were most frequently suspended from the neck, and contained the name or exploits of some deity, whose protection they were supposed to ensure, and of

AMULET, whose service they were the token or badge. They were formed of all sorts of materials, though precious stones were naturally preferred, and thus they often added to the elegance of dress, what was meant for the safety of the person. In their formation, or their being made into amulets, particular times were imagined to be very propitious, especially after the reveries of the astrologers succeeded the early discoveries of astronomy. Various herbs and plants, gathered at these times, of which the full age of the moon was considered one of the most important, were presented as sovereign remedies for many fatal disorders, the bite of venomous reptiles, &c. The Egyptians had a great variety of them, of which the most popular was the ASBAKAS (which see), a cabalistic word engraven on a stone, to which it gave name. The Jews had an early propensity to using them for similar purposes. Compare Deut. xviii. 10—12, with Jer. viii. 17. In later times the Mishna allowed an amulet to be worn which had previously been three times successful in the cure of any disease.

The Chaldeans, Persians, and oriental nations, also held them in the highest estimation. Amongst the Greeks, parts of animals, minerals, and herbs, were used as amulets, especially in exorcising and conquering the passion of love; and Pliny mentions many that were in use among the Romans. Ovid speaks of Mount Caucasus as celebrated for yielding the necessary plants,

An que
Læta Prometheus dividit herba jugis,

supposed to spring from the blood of Prometheus; and Colchis is mentioned by other poets as noted for similar productions. Amulets were also sometimes appended to the bodies of beasts, for medical and other purposes. They are still commonly worn in the East, and among the Turks, with whom magical words, numbers, and figures, sentences of the Alcoran, prayers, &c. inscribed on scrolls of paper or silk, are in great request in time of war.

Christianity, in the decline of the Roman empire, supplied numerous amulets to her nominal converts from paganism, in crosses, agnus dei's, relics of the saints and martyrs, &c. The pope is said still to claim a prerogative of creating them. (See the article AORTUS DEI.) Their connection with ancient British customs is also important, Burton prescribing some, while he deprecates the use of others, as cures for melancholy—"I say with Renodeus, they are not altogether to be rejected;" he adds—"Piony doth cure epilepsie; pretious stones most diseases; a wolf's dung, born with one, helps the colick; a spider an ague," &c. The celebrated Mr. Bayle mentions the application of some amulets, as a proof of the power of external effluvia over the corporeal system; and states the fact of having cured himself of a tendency to bleeding at the nose, by the application of the moss of a dead man's skull. Several physicians have noticed similar phenomena; and it is well known, from the wearing of camphor and other substances, that the effluvia of various bodies is very powerful in preventing contagion. It may be some assistance to the readers of our early poets, to subjoin a curious extract from the scarce work of Reginald Scot, *On the Discoverie of Witchcraft*, with respect to what was even thought to

be the specific virtues of certain stones worn as amulets AMULET, in the "elder time."

"An agat (they saie) hath vertue against the biting of scorpions or serpents. It is written (but I will not stand to it) that it maketh a man eloquent, and procureth the favour of princes; yea, that the fume thereof dooth turn awaie tempests. Alectorius is a stone about the hignesse of a beane, as cleere as the cristall, taken out of a cock's bellie which hath been gelt or made a capon foure yeares. If it be held in one's month, it assuageth thirst, it maketh the husband to love the wife, and the bearer invincible;—Chelidonius is a stone taken out of a swallowe, which cureth melancholie; howbeit, some authors saie, it is the hearbe whereby the swallowes recover the sight of their young, even if their eyes be picked out with an instrument. Geranites is taken out of a crane, and Draconites out of a dragon. But it is to be noted, that such stones must be taken out of the bellies of the serpents, beasts, or birds, (wherein they are) whyles they live: otherwise, they vanish awaie with the life, and so they reiteine the vertues of those starres under which they are. Amethysus maketh a dronken man sober, and refresheth the wit. The corall preserveth such as beare it from fascination or bewitching, and in this respect they are hanged about children's necks. But from whence that superstition is derived, and who invented the lie, I knowe not; but I see how redie the people are to give credit thereunto, by the multitude of coralls that waie employed. Heliotropius stancheth blood, driveth awaie poisons, preserveth health; yea, and some write that it provoketh raine, and darkeneth the sunne, suffering not him that breatheth it to be abused. Hyacinthus dooth all that the other dooth, and also preserveth from lightning. Dinothera hanged about the necke, collar, or yoke of any creature, taketh it presentlie. A topase healeth the lunaticke person of his passion of lunacie. Aitites, if it be shaken, soundeth as if there were a little stone in the bellie thereof: it is good for the falling sicknesse, and to prevent untimelie birth. Chalcedonius maketh the bearer luckie in lawe, quickeneth the power of the bodie, and is of force also against the illusions of the devill, and phantasticall cogitations arising of melancholie. Cornelius mitigath the heate of the mind, and qualifieth malice, it stancheth bloodie fluxes. Iris helpeth a woman to speedie deliverance, and maketh ruinebows to appeere. A saphire preserveth the members, and maketh them livelye, and helpeth agues and gowts, and suffereth not the bearer to be afraid: it hath vertue against venom, and stathi hieiding at the nose, being often put thereto. A smarag is good for the eyesight, and maketh one rich and eloquent. Mephis (as Aaron and Hermes report out of Albertus Magnus) being broken into powder, and dronke with water, maketh insensibility of torture. Heereby you may understand, that as God hath bestowed upon these stones, and such other like bodies, most excellent and wonderfull vertues: so according to the abundance of humane superstitions and follies, manie ascribe unto them either more vertues, or others than they have." See also DRAYTON'S *Muse's Elysium*, 9th Nymphall; CHALMER'S *Poeta*, vol. iv. which is, in fact, a sort of parody of the above.

AMULETIC MEDICINES is a term that has been sometimes given to sympathetic applications of various de-

AMULEE. scripſions, particularly to ſuch as are ſuppoſed to be efficacious in hæmorrhages, as Digby's Sympathetic Powder, pericaria, lapis hæmorrhoides, &c. Several authors ſince Mr. Bayle have advocated the uſe of certain effluvia medicinally.

AMUR, or **AMOUN**, one of the largeſt rivers of Aſia, having its ſources in the Koutuhau mountains, in the Chineſe territory, E. lon. 109°, and N. lat. 49°. It receives its preſent name from the Ruſſians, after the junction of the Argun and Schilka in one ſtream; the Chineſe call it the Dragon river; and the Tartars, the Saghalian Oula, or Black Mountain river. After an eaſterly courſe of about 1,850 Britiſh miles, it falls into the ſea of Okhotsk, oppoſite to the middle of the iſland, or peninſula of Saghalin, in N. lat. 53°. The Ruſſians have ſeveral ſtations on the borders of this river; and the Chineſe keep a conſtant guard of armed boats at its mouth, being particularly jealous of the poſſeſſion of it.

AMURCA, or **AMUREA**, in Pharmacy, a medicinal potion, which is uſually compoſed of the reſiſe of expreſſed olives. Amurca, when it is boiled in a copper veſſel to a tolerable exiſtence, becomes a potent drug of an aſtringent quality.

AMUSE', **AMUSEMENT**, **AMUSIVE**, **AMUSIVELY**, } Fr. muſer, amuſer. Perhaps from the Lat. muſa. To follow the muſes, to be contemplative or thoughtful as one who follows the muſes; to meditate, dwell upon, to keep the mind fixed, or employed upon. To engage contemplatively, ſoothingly, with ſlight or quiet gratification.

Sufferage yourſelves to be decieved through the volapts and delectation of your eyes, as they do, that amuse themſelves ſomer to leave the ſophiſts and logicians to diſpute, than to leave ſparks of the affairs of the cyrie. *Thucydides. Book iii. p. 80.*

To whom thus Belial, in like gawſome mood.
Leader! the terms we ſet were terms of weight,
Of hard contents, and full of force urg'd home;
Such as we might perceive amuſ'd them all.

And ſtumbled away. *Milton's Par. Loſt. Book vi.*
The goſpel is its greateſt plainneſs and original ſimplicity, is the power of God. The power of God, not to amuse men's underſtandings with needleſs perulations, but to convert their wills to righteouſneſs and true holineſs. *Clarke's Sermons.*

Men are generally pleaſed with the pomp and ſplendor of a government, not only as it is an ornament for idle people, but ſo it is a mark of the grantees, honore, and riches of their country.

See W. Temple, on the United Provinces.
High above our heads, at the ſummit of the cliff, ſat a group of mountainer children, aſſeſſing themſelves with puſhing ſtances from the top; and watching, as they plunged into the lake.

Giſſie's Tower to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.
Forbear, my muſe. Let love attune thy line.
Revoke thy ſpell. Thine Edwin ſets not on.
For how ſhould he at weakneſs elance reſpin,
Who ſeels from every change amusemeſt him.
Bentley's Miscell.

To me 'tis given, whom fortune loves to lead
Through bumber toils to life's ſequeſter'd bowers,
To me 'tis given to wake th' amuseſt reed,
And ſoother with ſong the ſolitary hours.
Whitehead's Elegia. lii.

AMUSETTE, in Military Affairs, a ſmall gun, fixed like a muſket, but mounted as a cannon, ſaid to have been invented by Maſhal Saxe, and employed with great effect by the French at various periods of the late war. It carries a leaden ball, of from one to two pounds weight.

AMUSKAG, or **AMUSKAG FALLS**, are conſiderable cataracts formed by the Merrimack river, New Hampſhire, North America, 16 miles below Concord. The water, at three ſteps or pitches, falls 80 feet in a courſe of about half a mile.

AMUTICA, **AMUTICS**, in Pharmacy, (from *amutare*, to ſcratch), medicines which, by exciting a titillation of the bronchia, ſtimulate it to throw off deleterious matter from the lungs.

AMUTURI, an extenſive river of South America, in the new kingdom of Granada. Having united its ſtreams with thoſe of the Cagunne, it falls into the Orinoco, on the N. ſide.

AMWELL, a village in Hertfordſhire, 21 miles from London, and one from the town of Ware. This village is called *Emme-welle* in the Domesday book, an appellation ſuppoſed to have been derived from Emma's Well, a ſpring of excellent water, iſſuing from the hill on which the pariſh church is ſituated; and one of the ſources of the canal, called the *Tic New River*, deſigned, in 1606, by the celebrated and patriotic Sir Hugh Middleton for ſupplying the city of London with water. See **NEW RIVER**. In the neighbourhood of this village are ſeveral remains of Roman antiquity. This is alſo the name of a town in the ſtate of New Jerſey, North America, 21 miles S. W. of New Brunſwick.

AMY, or **PROCKEN AMY** (of amicus), in Law, the next friend of an infant by whom he ſues, &c. It is ſometimes applied to the ſubjects of a foreign province on friendly terms with us, as **ALLEN AMY**, to diſtinguiſh her from an alien enemy.

AMYCI PORTUS, in Ancient Geography, a harbour of Pontus, on the Thracian Bosphorus, the burial place of Amycus, king of the Bebryces, on whoſe tomb was planted a laurel, which cauſed quarrels amongſt the ſailors if carried on board a ſhip.

AMYCLÆ, in Ancient Geography, a town ſituated between Tarracina and Caieta, in Italy. The inhabitants were Pythagoreans, and thought it impious to take away life even in ſelf-defence, upon which principle they ſuffered ſerpents to multiply nearly to their own deſtruction. In conſequence of an erroneous report that an enemy was coming to ſtorm the town, a law was paſſed in Amyclæ, inflicting a ſevere penalty on any who ſhould in future propagate ſuch a rumour, which procured the inhabitants the name of Tariti, and had ultimately a ſtill more ſerious effect; for when the Dorians approached in reality, no one dared announce their arrival; the Amyclæans conſequently were ſurprized unſmug, and fell an eaſy prey to the enemy. *PLIN. viii. 29. SINOIUS viii. 6.*

AMYCLÆ, a city of Peloponneſus, built by Amyclæus. It was the birth-place of Caſtor and Pollux, and famous for dogs and fruit trees. Apollo, ſurnamed Amyclæus, had a magnificent temple here, environed with groves; and Venus had a ſtatue in the city, erected by Gitiades. —*STRABO, viii. STAT. Theb. iv. 223. METES. MIS. LACON. iv. 2.*

AMYGDALUS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the claſs Icosmndria, and order Monogynia; the almond tree. See **ALMOND**, in this Division, and **BOTANY**, **DIT. ii.**

AMYLUM (of a priv. and *μύλεω*, a mill, becauſe it could be procured from wheat without grinding), a name that has been ſometimes given to the ſubſtance commonly called ſtarch. It is employed medicinally,

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against diarrhoea, in clysters, and externally as an absorbent.

AMYNTA, in Literature, a pastoral comedy, by Tasso, which has been considered in modern times as a standard of that description of composition.

AMYNTOR, in Entomology, a species of *Hesperia*. It is a native of India.

AMYRALDISM, in Ecclesiastical History, the system of the celebrated Moses Amrat, or Amyrclidas, a French Protestant, which in the middle of the seventeenth century, originated several warm controversies in France and Holland. His followers were also, according to Mosheim, sometimes called Universalists, and Hypothetical Universalists, because of the condition of faith attached to their creed, of which the following is a summary: That God, desiring the happiness of all men, excludes none from the benefits of Christ's death, by any decree or purpose of his. No one, however, can be made a partaker of those benefits without faith in Christ: and though God refuses to none the power of believing, he does not grant to all that assistance which is necessary for the improving it to their final salvation. See MOSHEIM, edited by Dr. MACLAINE, Lond. 1811, vol. v. p. 375.

AMYRUS, or AMYRIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Octandria, and order Monogynia.

AMZEL, in Ornithology, the turdus torquatus of Linnaeus, a bird inhabiting the northern parts of Great Britain, where it is also known by the name of ring-nezel.

AN, AS, *Ans*; the article means One.

Robert west Courteshe his gyde suetd adon,
And smot some up by helin, & such a stroke hys get,
but he scalle, & try, & he necke, & he smoldren he to clef.
R. Gloucester, p. 401.

An hey mon her was by fore, but me clepude Dardan.
Of hym cou he gode Percy, but was he fore man
but lord was in Engeland, so y you telle can. Id. p. 10.

Thoume lyer and longe baith.
The sharp arrow ys gone,
That never after in all his lyffe daye,
He spayke two wordes but one,
That was, Fyghte ye, my merry men, whyfys ye may,
For my lyffe daye ben gon. Percy's Reliques, vol. i. p. 11.

AN, the imperative An of the verb Xnan, to grant.

Herketh, both ying and old,
That willeen heuere of battles told!
As ye well a while dwell,
Of bold batayls ich will you tell,
That was, some time, betwene
Christian men and Saracens heuere.

See Otuel, in *Ellis's Romances*, vol. ii.

Lady Helen ran to the deip drew-well,
And kaelt upon her kne.
My bonny sir Ilew, as ye be here,
I pray thee speik to me. Percy's Reliques, vol. i. p. 40.

I wad gie a' my gowd, my childie,
Sae wad I a' my fee,
For ene blast o' the western wind,
To blew the reek frae thee. Id. p. 125.

As ay bi it selis for five schillings — as beuit,
A pare for penges twice, or per had is nouht.
R. Rime, p. 175.

And effoonce be denyede with an oath for I knowe not the man.
Wicif. Matthew, ch. xxvi. p. 22.

3 Prs. Ky, on thou dallist, then I am thy foe,
And four shall force what friendship cannot win.
See *Jonas's Pastoral*.

The martiall mayd stay'd not him to lament,
But forward rode, and kept her ready way
Along the strand; which, as she over-weigh,
She now bestrewn all with rich say.
Of perles and pretious stones of great say,
And all the givell mist with golden ore,
Whereat she wondred much, but would not stay
For gold, or perles, or pretious stones, on hower,
But them dussiped all; for all was in her power.

Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, book iii. c. iv.

If this individual be unknown, or perceived now for the first time,
or if we choose to speak of it as unknown, we prefix what is called
the indefinite article, and say, here comes a man, I see an as: and
this article coincides nearly in signification with the word one.

Bentley's *Elements of Moral Science*.

Rex. I'll sup thee ap.
Pet. Thou'st straight to execution.
Gait. Fool, fool, fool! catch me as thou canst.
Pet. Expell him the house, 'tis a dunce.

For's *Lover's Mel.* act iii. sc. 3.

ANA, a plural termination of the Latin language, which has lately been adopted into this country from the continent of Europe, and which has been most commonly added to proper names, to express a miscellaneous collection of the "sayings of the wise." Thus we have our *Bacmanns*, *Walpoleans*, &c. and the French their *Perronaans*, *Huctians*, and many others of inferior merit. It has generally, and in the best collections, been confined to the oral remarks of eminent men, though sometimes applied to extracts from their writings, as in the *Bacmanns*; and Mr. Southey, in conjunction with his friends, has given us another interesting use of this termination, in two volumes of miscellaneous gatherings, from their common-place books, under the title of *Omniana*.

In the earlier annals of literature, we find an author (whether for his well or woe let the present worthy race of professed authors decide) at once esteemed something more and something less of a man than at present. He was a prodigy of understanding, to be approached every day, and familiarly by his tutelar genius only, while the "one small head" that carried his knowledge, was supposed to be much further removed than we now find it from the sympathies and cravings of human nature. Hence, with the minds that may be said comparatively to have moulded all others, giving themselves (as in the ancient tragedy of Greece) at once birth and maturity to some of the most elegant and dignified pursuits of life, we have nothing like a domestic acquaintance; we never see the mask of the author stripped from the man. The broken fragments and columns of his fame lie around us, and imagination, perhaps, supplies, in many cases, a more perfect ideal structure than the world ever saw; but the most interesting, and not the least instructive, secret of its gradual formation—his personal history—is for ever vanished, for it was never thought of being told. It is remarkable, that of all the distinguished writers of antiquity, few were ever the direct subject of biography: whether in modern times we have not urged this natural and useful curiosity into another extreme, demands much consideration.

D'Herbelot traces the first instances of collections like the modern *Anna* to the east, and it may well be questioned whether we have not, in the maxims or proverbs of Solomon, and particularly in those which the scribes of Herakleia are said "to have copied out," at once the most early and most authentic proof of the practice. He is particularly said to have "spoken"

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ANA. many proverbs, and what the Scriptures contain of them is well known to be only a selection; as, indeed, all those sayings which have become proverbial from their application to daily life, are more than likely to have originated in the midst of its avocations. Wolfius also ranks the *Græmarum* of the Jews in the class of Ana. The *Memorabilia* of Xenophon, and the *Dialogues* of Plato, are undoubtedly of this description, as the able German critic just mentioned, long ago observed. The collections of Arius in the *Enchiridion*, of Diogenes Laertius, Athenæus, and Plutarch, he also mentions in his *History of the Ana* prefixed to his own work of this kind, the *Causibiana*, printed in 1710. But the earliest publication under this title was that of a manuscript collected by the Vassans, two students at Leyden, who had peculiar opportunities of enjoying the conversation of Joseph Scaliger, which they called *Scaligeriana*, sive *Excerpta ex ore J. Scaligeri*, and which was printed at the Hague in 1666, under the care of Isaac Vossius, who obtained it somewhat surreptitiously. This, though the first in order of time, is sometimes called *Scaligeriana Secunda*, from the circumstance of another collection, made by the physician to the family where Scaliger resided, having been published in 1669, entitled *Prima Scaligeriana nunquam ante hac edita*. The vanity of Joseph Scaliger is conspicuous in both these works, which have been thought, on the whole, to detract from his fame, though they contain many proofs of his erudition.

Through the same hands Vossius received the *Perrottiana*, of which he was the first editor, and which contains some few interesting anecdotes of the Reformation and its founders; it has been frequently published in conjunction with the *Thyana*, or the Conversational Maxims of the President de Thou.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, this species of literature was much cultivated in France. Thus we have the *Cherociana*, the *Carpenteriana*, the *St. Exremontiana*, the *Colombariana*, and the *Segraisiana*; respecting the last of which (gathered from behind the tapestry of the house of one of Segrais' friends), Voltaire has observed, "que de tous les Ana c'est celui qui mérite le plus d'être mis au rang des menages imprimés, et surtout des romans insipides."—Excessively pursued by the French, this species of composition, towards the middle of the last century, sunk into utter worthlessness. Amongst other specimens of it, we have a large quarto volume of the French Encyclopedists, beginning with various anecdotes of the letter A, and entitled *Encyclopediana*, designed "solely for the amusement of their readers."

The most respectable works published under this express title, undoubtedly are the *Scaligeriana*, already mentioned, the *Causibiana*, the *Menagiana*, and the *Huetiana*, of the foreign collections;—while the *Walpoleana* is, perhaps, our only successful attempt of this kind at home. Casaubon kept a kind of literary diary, which he called *Ephemerides*, and which, with some other of his loose papers, were left by his son to the Bodleian, Oxford; here Wolfius transcribed them, and published, as we have before stated, with a preface of his own. The *Menagiana* were derived from the periodical conversations held at the house of Menage, for several years, and in which the opinions, &c. so freely and elegantly given, were industriously preserved by his friends. The best edition is that of La Monnaye, published in 1715,

ANA. which comprises many valuable morceaux of criticism. The *Huetiana* contains the collection of the long literary life of the celebrated Bishop of Avranches, and principally of his own detached remarks on various topics of morals and literature, when he was incapacitated by disease for more laborious composition. There are many marks of dotage about the whole work, but it will also afford the weary scholar a pleasant hour. The *Walpoleana* first appeared in separate papers in the *Monthly Magazine*, and several of the anecdotes it contains were furnished to the editor in the hand-writing of its principal subject, the late Horace Walpole, Earl of Oxford. It contains many interesting pictures of the morals and manners of the reigns of Geo. II. and III., as they were daily brought under review at Strawberry Hill. Though not of popular manners himself, nor designed to move in any sphere by which men become great, Horace Walpole, as he is generally called, had a vivacity and pleasing bustle about his disposition, which well accorded with the sphere to which he devoted himself. He was, perhaps, with all his opportunities, the most enlightened spectator, taking the least part in the busy scenes of a large portion of the last century. In matters of taste, and the fine arts, he had many claims to the character of a noble amateur; and while he indulged a prejudice against authorship, he cultivated the conversation and correspondence of authors. No man certainly was better calculated to lead the way in English literature, as the subject of this species of composition.

It would be an almost endless task to detail the various productions of modern times, which might be chased with the Ana, though they have not borne that title. The *Collogia Mensalia* of Luther, is of this number: Selden's, Johnson's, and Cowper's *Table Talk*; while none of our readers will forget what might almost be called the Ana of Anas, Boswell's *Life of Johnson*. The first of these collections professes to have been gathered by Dr. Anthony Lauberback, "out of the holy mouth of Luther," and afterwards digested into order by Dr. John Aurifaber. It was at one time thought to have been completely lost, amongst many of Luther's works destroyed by order of the emperor; but sixty years after it was first published (in 1622), Van Sparr, an obscure German, who was repairing his house, found a copy secreted in the foundation. It contains an evidently authentic picture of the reformer's mind, full of as many superstitions as he overthrew, yet possessed of an undying impulse, a faith in his being the gifted servant of heaven, which ten times the number of opponents he found had only increased to a ten-fold ardour. Here we read of his having declared that the devil has frequently disturbed his sleep, by coming to crack nuts in his chamber: a tale which, according to Mr. Coleridge, is confirmed to this day by the warden of the castle of Wasterbury, who shows a black spot in the wall of the room he studied in, which was made by Luther's inkstand, thrown (not often so inefficiently) at the head of the arch-fiend. Selden's *Table Talk* presents an authentic historical sketch of the manners of his day. "His learning did not live in a cave," says the quaint old Fuller, "but traced all the intricacies of arts and languages, as appears by the many and various works he hath written, which people affect as they stand affected either by their fancy or faction. Lay-gentlemen prefer his *Titles of Honour*; lawyers, his *Mare Clausum*; antiquaries, his

ANA. *Spicilegium ad Edmearum*: clergymen like best his book *de Diis Syris*; and worst, his *History of Tythes*. The same remark will apply to his *Table Talk*, which embraces all these topics with great freedom. The other and more modern publications are in the hands of most of our readers.

ANA, an Indian coin, worth rather more than one penny sterling.

ANA SANTA, the name of three desert islands in the Atlantic ocean, W. lon. 43° 44', S. lat. 2° 30', near the Brazil coast, in the bay of San Luis de Maranhão. Also of an island on the coast of the province of Maranhão, called Dos Macones by the Portuguese, and of another in the straits of Magellan, on the north coast, near the entrance of the South sea.

ANA SANTA, a point of land on the west coast of Magellan, between the bay of Agua Buena, and that of La Gente; also a point on the same coast and strait, in the bay of Buena Pena; and a river of Buenos Ayres, which, after a western course, falls into the Paraná.

ANA, a town of Sweden, 80 miles from Nyslot, in the province of Söderlax.

ANA, or ANAH, a considerable town of Arabia Deserta, in the pæchalic of Bagdad, on the western bank of the Euphrates, 260 miles E. of Damascus, and 220 S. E. of Aleppo. This elegant town, formerly one of the most civilized in Arabia, consists of a single street,

between five and six miles in length, the houses of which are built of stone, chiefly two stories in height, and surrounded by gardens. In 1807, it was attacked by the new Arabian sect of the Wahabees, with the characteristic vehemence and cruelty of these tribes; many of the inhabitants were carried into slavery, the town was completely sacked, and partially burnt down. Population about 3,000.

ANA CAPRI, a town in the Neapolitan Island of Capri; the Caprea of antiquity, and the scene of the indulgences of Tiberius. It now belongs to the principality of Salerno. The town is small, but stands in a most romantic situation, on a rocky eminence, near the middle of the island, about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is reached by a curious staircase, called La Scalinata, consisting of about 552 steps. The inhabitants are described by modern travellers as free from most of those vices which characterize the other Neapolitans; they are domestic in their habits, and remarkably attached to the town, whence the Gulf of Naples, the Tyrrhenian sea, Mount Vesuvius, and Misenum, may be distinctly seen.

ANA, (ana gr.) in Medicine, of each, denotes that an equal quantity of whatever is named is to be used, and is generally contracted into *ad* or *a*, in prescriptions.

ANAB, in Scripture Geography, a town of Palestine, situated in the mountainous part of the tribe of Judah.

ANA.
ANABAP-
TISTS.

ANABAPTISTS.

ANABAPTISTS, in Ecclesiastical History, (of *ana*, over again, and *baptismus*, a baptizer) a name that has sometimes been given to all Christians who consider baptism by any other mode than that of immersion, or administered to any other parties than those who can give a credible profession of their faith, null and void. They consequently administer this rite in their own manner, to all persons who have not previously submitted to it in that manner. In their judgment, this term is wholly inapplicable to them, and in the candour of modern controversy, it is rarely applied to that respectable body of Protestants, who in England, America, and on the continent of Europe, are found to advocate these sentiments. Connected, moreover, as it has been, with the history of the Anabaptists of the Reformation (a very different body of men), it is now generally avoided as a term of opprobrium; though the word itself continues accurately to express the opinion of other Christians with regard to the conduct of the Baptists upon these points. See BAPTISTS and BAPTISM.

Early Anabaptists. It would appear, that some of the earliest sectaries denied the validity of the baptism of the Catholic Church, and would suffer no one to join their respective communities, but who should first receive baptism at their own hands. Such was the practice of the Novatians, the Donatists, and others. The Catholic church at a later date, denied the baptism of heretics to be valid; and amongst the eastern and African churches, many instances occurred in the third century of their being re-baptized. Some German Baptists in modern

times, are said to have administered baptism more than once to the same individuals, who, having been separated from their communion for misconduct, have been again received; and to converts of other baptists on joining their sect.

The term, however, derives its principal importance in history from an extravagant body of professed religionists, who disturbed the peace of Germany and the Netherlands early in the sixteenth century; and retarded, in no small degree, the progress of the Reformation. There can be no question that many of the advocates of that remarkable change in the ecclesiastical condition of Europe, were themselves both unchangeable and even unreformed by its influence. It is equally clear, that many political circumstances affected its early movements; and the Catholic historians attribute to the worldly ambition of Luther, the whole of that memorable war of the peasants in which the Anabaptists took the lead. This is not the place to enter upon a defence of the reformer; but while it must be admitted that, in the absence of Luther from Wittenberg, his coadjutor, Melancthon, was undecided in his treatment of the pretensions of the Anabaptist prophets, it is also certain, that Luther was no sooner acquainted with them, than he protested against any kind of connection with such parties. Melancthon gives this account of their first appearance at Wittenberg, in a letter to the Elector of Saxony. "Your Highness is aware of the many dangerous discussions that have disturbed your city of Zwica, (in Misnia), on the subject of religion. Some persons have been cast

Anabaptists
of the Re-
formation.

ANABAPTISTS. into prison there for their religious innovations. Three of the ring-leaders have come hither; two of them ignorant mechanics, the third is a man of letters. I have given them a hearing, and it is astonishing what they tell of themselves; namely, that they are positively sent by God to teach; that they can foretell future events; and, to be brief, that they are on a footing with prophets and apostles. I cannot describe how I am moved by these lofty pretensions. These persons were Nicholas Storch, Mark Stuhner, and Martinus Cellarius, who had been previously associated with Thomas Munzer, at Zwicka, in freaks of the wildest enthusiasm. Storch was a haker of that place, who had chosen twelve of his own trade as his particular associates, and called them his apostles; and seventy-two disciples. Stuhner had some learning, which he exercised in the perversion of Scripture to support the pretensions of his companions. This visit to Wittenberg, in which they first appear, was in the spring of 1522. Luther, on his return from banishment, had an interview with these fanatics, whom he dismissed, declaring to them, "The God whom I serve and adore will confound your vanities." They appear, from the same testimony (Melanct. Epist.), to have rejected the baptism of infants, as invalid, appealing to their own revelations as authority upon the point.

Their proph-
ets visit
Witten-
berg.

We next find Munzer, at Alsted, on the borders of Thuringia, in the electorate of Saxony, where he inveighed both against the Pope and the Reformation. Here he gradually flattered the populace into the belief of his being divinely commissioned to originate a new political community, principally by the interpretation of their dreams. Numbers of them took a solemn oath to put to death all wicked persons, to appoint new and righteous magistrates; and to unite with him in what they called the establishment of a pure and holy church. Happily, this design was discovered and frustrated before it could be carried into execution at this place. He now retired to Nuremberg, and being expelled from thence, to Mulhausen, where he managed his attempt with more success. In 1525, a vast body of the peasants, of Thuringia, Swabia, and Franconia, had entered into his schemes; and it was not until several of the princes had united their forces, and had drawn these fanatics, after the slaughter of many thousands of them in skirmishes, into a pitched battle in the neighbourhood of Mulhausen, that the insurrection was quelled, and their famous leader slain. It is admitted on all hands, that the peasantry were in a very oppressed state at this period; in their early manifesto, they declared that they sought for nothing but a relaxation of the severity of their chiefs, and some share of civil liberty; but the artifices and persuasions of Munzer, and above all, his confident predictions of success, urged them to desperate measures. This war alone, is supposed to have cost the provinces in which it raged, more than 50,000 men.

But though the early chiefs of this faction were thus cut off, the principles they had disseminated were eagerly cherished by many. Of these the leading one was, that Christ was now about to assume the reins of all civil government, and that over the subjects of his kingdom and church, the exercise of any earthly magistracy was not only needless, but an infringement of their rights. The more moderate of the Anabaptists, according to Fueslin, as quoted by Mosheim, digested

their opinions into the following points of doctrine:—That the church of Christ ought to be exempt from all sin; that all things should be in common among the faithful; that all usury, tithes, and tribute, ought to be entirely abolished; that the baptism of infants was an invention of the devil; that every Christian was invested with a power of preaching the gospel, and, consequently, that the church stood in no need of ministers or pastors; that in the kingdom of Christ civil magistrates were absolutely useless; and that God still continued to reveal his will to chosen persons by dreams and visions. It will not fail to be observed by every reader acquainted with the state of Europe at this period, how singularly such sentiments were adapted to the religious and political circumstances of the empire; appearing, on the one hand, to accord with and complete the views of Luther and his associates, and on the other, to provide a complete emancipation from the discontented and oppressed. It is evident, how easily the fanatical leaders of a multitude could derive a sanction from them for the most desperate enterprises.

Having given birth, by their conduct, to various Anabaptist laws against them, in the electorate of Saxony, and Switzerland (where they were at first treated with great mildness), as well as in other parts of Germany, from the year 1525 to 1534, we find the Anabaptists at the latter date, attracting considerable attention in Westphalia, under two intrepid and able leaders, John Matthias of Huerlen, and John Boccold of Leyden. The former was originally a haker, and the latter a journeyman tailor; but both possessed considerable powers of oratory, a plausible and confident address, and many pretensions to external sanctity. Having gained over to their cause a Protestant preacher of the name of Rothman, who had first introduced the doctrines of the Reformation into Munster, and one Chipperdoling, a principal citizen, they determined to make that city one of the first rank in the empire, and under the sovereignty of its own bishop, the centre of their future efforts. They were not tardy in the application of their principles and resolves. Having called in a strong body of their converts from the environs, in a night of the month of February, 1534, they seized the orsepal and senate-house of the city, with little or no opposition, and ran, with shouts of "Repent and be baptized;" and "Depart ye ungodly," through the streets, brandishing drawn swords. The consuls and senate, who governed in the name of the bishop, with the nobility, church dignitaries, and all the sober part of the citizens, were sufficiently alarmed to obey this latter injunction with all speed, leaving every thing they possessed to the votaries of the former. Matthias now assumed the supreme direction of affairs; issued commands, which it was declared to be death to disobey; and though at first the old forms of government were preserved in the election of a senate and consuls, the most arbitrary and unbounded authority was quickly conceded to him. So far sincere to his principles as to be apparently without a wish for personal aggrandizement, he ordered all the convertible property of the city to be collected together and invested in one fund, to be managed by deacons nominated for the common benefit. All the inhabitants were declared equal, and were equally provided for at the common tables (which were established in every part of the

The Ana-
baptists of
Munster.

They seize
the govern-
ment of the
city.

Munzer and
his followers
overthrown.

ANABAP- town); and Matthias is said even to have prescribed the
TISTS. diabolical, of which he partook in common with his followers. His now developed talents of no ordinary kind as a military commander, and shared with the lowest of the people the various labours he enjoined. Every one capable of bearing arms was trained to military duty, and every hand that could assist, obliged to work upon the fortification of the city, or in replenishing the magazines. Messengers were dispatched, as long as it was safe, into the country, to invite their brethren to come to their aid, and share their triumphs; the city of Munster being now dignified with the title of Mount Zion, and the most confident assurances held out to the various branches of the sect in Germany and the Low Countries, that from this favoured spot their leaders would shortly go forth to the conquest of all nations.

Count Waldeck was at this time the bishop and sovereign of Munster, and possessed both energy and experience as a general. He surrounded the city in about three months with a considerable army. Scarcely, however, had they encamped, before Matthias sallied out with a chosen band, and putting a large party of the besiegers to the sword, returned into the city with great exultation, and a valuable booty. The next day he was determined to venture his whole success on his spiritual pretensions, and declared that, after the example of the chosen servant of heaven of old, Gideon, he would go forth with only thirty of his men, and overthrow the host of his enemies. The daring part of his pledge he fulfilled; his associates, who felt themselves honoured by the selection, as willingly followed him, and they were all cut to pieces.

Matthias falls.

This utter failure of their leader made a considerable momentary sensation in the city; but his wary and ambitious confidant, Boccold, quickly raised the drooping cause. His measures at first were entirely defensive; but he was too well formed to sustain his present ascendancy, to suffer any feeling of torpidity, or even common calmness to take possession of the minds of his followers. Visions and various predictions had announced some great event to be approaching, when Boccold stripped himself naked, and ran through the city, proclaiming, "That the kingdom of Zion was at hand; the highest things on earth must be brought low, and the lowest exalted." One of the first interpretations of this injunction was the levelling of the churches to the ground; another, the degrading the most respectable of his associates, Chipperdoling, to the office of common-laugmen; a third was to be still more formally announced. In the month of June it was declared by a fellow-prophet, to be revealed to him from heaven, that John Boccold was called to the throne of David, and must be forthwith proclaimed king in Zion. Boccold solemnly, and on his knees, declared the same important circumstance to have been communicated to himself; and that he humbly accepted the divine intimation. In the presence of the assembled citizens he was now hailed as their monarch, and appeared in all the pomp of his new dignity. He clothed himself in purple, and wore a superb crown; a bible was publicly carried before him in one hand, and a drawn sword in the other. He coined money, bearing his own likeness; appointed body guards, officers of state and of his household, and nominated twelve judges of the people in imitation of the judges of Israel.

Boccold proclaimed king.

This fanatic was permitted to add one more unhappy proof, of the extravagance of which the human mind is capable, while professing to act under the most sacred sanctions. Doubts were hinted by the public teachers of the obligations of matrimony, and the inceligibility of the restraint of taking no more wives than one. At length it was declared to be an invasion of spiritual liberty, and the new monarch himself confirmed the wavering, and avowed the fearful, by marrying at once three wives. Only one of them, however, (the widow of his predecessor), was dignified with the title of queen. Freedom of divorce, and the most unbridled licentiousness followed this vile example among the people; every good man in Germany secretly trusted that such a scene could not long be suffered to disgrace the Christian name, and the German princes hastened to afford the hishop new succours. In May 1535, the siege was converted into a close blockade; but the vigilance of Boccold had left no point unguarded, famine, however, gradually threatened the besieged; their supplies were uniformly interrupted; the greatest horrors were suffered; and the courage of some of the sect began to fail. While new visions and revelations still sustained the faith of the multitude, Boccold found it necessary to make severe examples occasionally of the unbelieving; and, in the presence of all his family, cut off the head of one of his wives with his own hands, for daring to express some doubts of his divine authority. But a deserter from the besiegers, who had been taken into the service of the Anabaptists, had discovered a part of the fortifications rather weaker than the rest, and carried the intelligence to the hishop's camp. Entrusted with the direction of a small detachment (June 24), he ascended the wall and seized one of the gates; an advantage which, being observed from their entrenchments, was instantly followed up by the main body of the besieging army, and though the Anabaptists defended themselves with all the frantic courage of enthusiasm and despair, the greater part of them were put to the sword, and the whole town subdued to its rightful sovereign in the course of the day. Boccold and Chipperdoling were among the few prisoners that were taken. The former was instantly loaded with fetters, and, after having been paraded in mock majesty through all the chief towns of the neighbourhood, was brought back to Munster, and exposed to the most execrable tortures. These he bore with great firmness; and though but twenty-six years of age at his death, retained to the very last an undiminished superiority over his sufferings, and an unshaken profession of the principles of his party. Thus, after a precarious and disgraceful dominion of fifteen months, ended the kingdom of the Anabaptists at Munster. During the whole period of its continuance, the reformers of Wittenberg earnestly testified against its spirit, and stimulated the princes of Germany to put them down. "It is my singular satisfaction to find," says Luther to the Elector Frederic, "that these mad-men openly boast that they do not belong to us, and that they have neither learnt nor received any thing from us." (Dupin, and after him Dr. Robertson, speaks of the first Anabaptists as disciples of Luther; for which, however, there appears to be no authority.) "They have been conversing with God for the space of three years. They reckon little of our teaching faith, charity, and the cross, at Wittenberg."—"It is

ANABAP- TISTS.

Boccold taken, and the Anabaptists put down.

ANACHORETIE.

Harold was not slain in the battle, but only wounded and lost his left eye, and then escaped by flight to Clacton, where he afterwards led a holy anchorite's life. *Ruler's Chronicle.*

No man needs to flatter, if he can live as nature did intend. * * * And this is true, not only in these severe and eschanted and philosophical persons, who lived nearly as a sheep, and without variety as the Baptist, but in the same proportion it is also true in every man that can be contented with that which is honestly sufficient. *Taylor's Sermons.*

We also suspect the life of the Stylites, or anchorites of the pillar, bore some resemblance to a life led in caves; their bodies being secured, or screened from the sun's heat; and the air they breathed not being subject to great changes or inequalities. *Bacon's Hist. of Condes. and Rarifications.*

ANACHORETS, or ANCHORETS, in Ecclesiastical History, were a celebrated order of religious persons, who generally passed their whole lives in cells, from which they never removed. These habitations were, in many instances, entirely selected from all other abodes of men; sometimes in the depths of wildernesses, in pits, or in caverns; at other times, we find several of these individuals fixing their habitations in the neighbourhood of each other, when their cells were called by the collective name of *laura*, but they always lived personally separate, and in cells at some distance from each other. Thus the *laura* was distinguished from the *cenobium*, or convent, where the monks formed themselves into a society, and subsisted on a common stock; and the anchorite differed from a hermit (though his abode was frequently called a hermitage), in that the latter ranged about at liberty, while the former rarely, and in many instances never, quitted his cell. But a convent would sometimes be surrounded by a *laura*, to which the more devout, or the more idle of the monks would ultimately retire. To Paul, the hermit, the distinction is assigned of having first devoted himself to this kind of solitude.

The order of Anachorites in Egypt and in Syria, comprehended in the first instance, all those hermits of the desert who abandoned the ordinary abodes of mankind, and wandered amongst the rocks and haunts of wild beasts, nourishing themselves with roots and herbs that grew spontaneously, and reposing wherever they were overtaken by night. Amongst these early Anachorites, Simeon Stylites, who lived at the close of the fourth century, will ever occupy a wretched immortality. Having passed a long and severe novitiate in a monastery, which he entered at the age of thirteen, this devotee contrived, within the space of a *mandarina*, or circle of stones to which he was confined by a heavy chain, to ascend a column, gradually raised from nine to sixty feet in height, on the top of which he passed thirty years of his life, and died of an ulcer in his thigh, without descending from it. Crowds of pilgrims from Gaul to India are said to have thronged around his pillar, and to have been proud to supply his necessities.

In succeeding ages, the order of anchorites assumed a more entire distinction from that of hermits, and other religious, and was regulated by its own rules. Early in the seventh century, the councils began to notice and to modify this kind of life. "Those who affect to be anchorites," say the Trullan Canons, "shall first for three years be confined to a cell in a monastery; and if, after this, they profess that they persist, let them be examined by the bishop, or abbot; let them live one year at large; and if they still approve of their first choice, let them be confined to their cell, and not be permitted to go out of it, but by consent and becu-

dition of the bishop, in case of great necessity." Frequently at this period would the monks of various abbeys select from among them a brother who was thought to be most exemplary in his profession, and devote him to this entire seclusion, as an honour, and to give him the greater opportunity of indulging his religious contemplations. A similar custom also obtained in the convents; and there are even many instances of men who became anchorites in nunneries, and of women in the abbeys of monks. The bishop, in the eighth and ninth centuries, generally presided at the ceremony of seclusion, which was as follows: "The anchorite was to be advised by the bishop, or some other priest, to examine his conscience, whether he acted from pious sincerity, or feigned; and if the answer was favourable, the priest was, by the order of the bishop, to shut him up. Provision was first to be made for his confession, and that, on the day preceding the ceremony, he received the refection of bread and water. On the night following he passed devout vigils in the church nearest the hermitage. On the morrow, after an exhortation to the people and the anchorite, the priest began a reponsory; and, upon the conclusion of it, prostrated himself with his ministers, before the step of the altar, and said certain psalms. After these, the mass was celebrated in the neighbouring church, and an especial prayer said for the anchorite. After the gospel, he offered a taper, which was to burn upon the altar at the mass. The anchorite then read the schedule of his profession (which consisted only of the vows of obedience, chastity, and steadfastness) at the step of the altar; and if he was a layman, the priest read it for him. He then made a sign of his intention, and offered it upon the altar, kneeling. The priest consecrated the habit, and sprinkled that and the anchorite with holy water. Then followed mass and litany; after which they went in procession to the hermitage. The priest took him by the right hand and led him to the house, which was then blessed and shut from without. The priest, with the assistants, retired, leaving the anchorite within, and advised the standers-by to pray for him." *Fossæus's Monachism, &c. 1817.*

These cells, according to some rules, were to be only twelve feet square, of stone, and with three windows. The door was locked upon the anchorite, and often walled up. One of the windows, when they were attached (as they now frequently were) to the building of an abbey or monastery, generally formed the choir, and through it the sacrament was received; another was devoted to the reception of food; and the third for lights, being clothed with horn or glass. Thus affixed, they were called anchor-holes, anchor-houses, and *deserts*, as that which is said to have been occupied by St. Dunstan, at Glastonbury; and which, according to Osborn, in his life of that monk, was not more than five feet long, two feet and a half broad, and barely the height of a man. Here it became a merit to invent ingenious self-torture. The recluse would in some cases vow eternal silence, and never see any individual of his own species except the monk who brought him his food; he would wear old cowls of mail, chains, and heavy bracelets, and collars of iron round his neck, and immerse himself (as in the instance of the "holy and solitary" Wulfic of Haselburgh, mentioned by Matthew Paris) in a tub of cold water, at night, to say the psalter.

ANACHORETIE.

ANACHORETTE. In this country it was strictly enacted, according to Lyndwood, that no anchorite or anchoress should be put into any place. 1. Without special leave of the diocesan. 2. Due consideration of the situation. 3. The quality of the person; and 4. The means of support. These last were derived either from his personal fortune, or manual labour; the friends of the religious house to which his cell was attached; or the offerings of the neighbourhood. If these circumstances were not properly regarded, the bishop might be compelled to maintain him.

ANACHRONISM, } From *ANA*, and *χρονο*,
ANACHRONISTICK, } time.
Deviation from the order of time.

There are in Scripture of things that are seemingly confus'd, carrying semblance of contrariety, anachronisms, metachronisms, and the like, which brings infinite obscurity to the text.

Hale's Golden Remains.

The dresses and buildings of the time, are preserved, though by frequent anachronisms applied to the ages of Scripture; and the gold and colours are of the greatest brightness and beauty.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

Among the anachronistic improprieties which this poem contains, the most conspicuous is the fiction of Hector's sepulchre.

Warren's English Poets.

ANACHYTIS, in Natural History, a species of worms, of the second Linnæan order, and of the species *Echinus*; found in a fossil state.

ANACLASTIC GLASSES, are acoustic vessels or vials, generally made of glass, and of a bell form, with the broader part or mouth covered. To the flexibility of this bottom or covering, the characteristic experiment upon these vessels is entirely owing. It is made (with regard to the outward shape of the vessel) a little convex; and by applying the mouth to the opposite end or orifice of the vial, and gently exhausting it of the air within, the bottom flies upward with a loud noise, and assumes a concave shape. If, again, we cautiously breathe into it, until the vessel is sufficiently inflated, the bottom will rebound into its former shape with a similar explosion. Much depends, of course, in the formation of these vessels, upon the even grain of the glass that is used, and on the shape of them being duly proportioned. They were first invented at Goltbach, in Germany (see *Ros. Lantini Oribosii Sched. de Vitris Anaclostica Ephem. Acad. Nat. Curiosorum* ii. ann. 3. p. 489), and are still principally manufactured in that country.

ANACLASTICS (of *ana* and *κλαω*, to break), an obsolete name for that branch of the science of Optics now called Dioptrics.

ANACLETERIA, in Antiquity, festivals solemnized when kings and princes came to the actual exercise of the regal office, and issued their *ανακλησεις* or proclamation of that event to the people. **POLYB. Hist. xviii. et Legat. Eclg. 88.**

ANACLETICUM (of *ana*, and *καλω*, to call), in Antiquity, a peculiar blast of the trumpet calculated to renew the ardour of the troops when flying, and to induce them to return and renew the combat.

ANACHNOPALE (of *ana*, *κλινω*, to recline, and *παλος*, arms), in Antiquity, a method of wrestling wherein the combatants threw themselves upon the ground, and made use both of their nails and teeth in the combat; it was thus distinguished from the more

manly orthopale, and the other contests, in which the champions stood erect.

ANACLINTERIA, in Antiquity, pillows upon which the guests used to lean, and which formed an important part of the furniture of the dining couch. The triclinary couch had a pillow at the head and feet, another at the back, and another at the breast. Some authors confine this term to that on which the head rested occasionally, others to that which supported the back. For more upon these ancient postures at meals, see the article *ACCUBATION*.

ANACOLLEMA, in Medicine, an application of drying, or astringent substances to the forehead, for delusions of the eyes.

ANACOSTE, or *ANASCOTE*, in Commerce, a kind of woollen-diaper stuff somewhat resembling serge, but with less knap upon it, about a French ell in width, and sold in pieces containing about 20 ells. It is a manufactory of the Austrian Netherlands, and Leyden in Holland, and is principally consumed in Spain, where it is in great request.

ANACREONETIC, in Poetry, a name frequently given, after Anacreon, the father of convivial and amatorial lyrics, to this species of composition. In our country, except in the instance of Mr. Thomas Moore, it has been cultivated with little success; the structure of modern languages, and the amelioration of modern manners by the diffusion of Christianity, having equally, perhaps, discouraged the numerous imitators of the Teian muse. The German poets, however, are said to be more successful in the Anacreontic verse, and Gleim, in particular, has been distinguished by the appellation of the German Anacreon. We refer to the article *ANACREON*, in our Historical and Biographical Division, vol. ix. p. 254, for some of the best English specimens of this kind of poetry.

ANACRISIS (of *ana* and *κρινω*, to judge), in Antiquity, the ceremony of examining the Athenian archons in the senate house previous to their admission into the office.

ANACROSIS, in Antiquity, that part of the Pythian song which describes the preparation for the combat of Python and Apollo.

ANACTORIA, or *ANACTORIUM*, in Ancient Geography, a town of Epirus, on the site of the modern Vonizza, which terminates a peninsula at the entrance of the gulf of Ambracia. It was originally a colony from Corinth, and was the occasion of many quarrels between that city and the *Corcyraeans*. After the battle of Actium, Augustus removed the inhabitants to the city of Nicopolis. **TACIT. l. 55. PLIN. v. 29.**

ANACYCLUS, a genus of plants belonging to the class *Syngenesia*, and order *Polygamia Superflua*.

ANADAVADEA, in Ornithology, a small Indian bird, frequently brought into this country, having the beak of a chaffinch and the feet of a lark.

ANADEMA, in Antiquity, the ornament for the head, with which the victors were honoured at the sacred games.

ANADEME, *Αναδημη*, from *αναδημι*, to bind round. See *DIADEN*. A garland.

The virgin-huntress sworn to Dian's law,
Here in this shade her quarries did bestow,
And for their nymphs, building acorn-bowers,
Oft dressed this tree with *anadems* of flowers.

Dragon's Oak.

ANACLETOPALE.

—
ANADEME.

ANA-
DEALIE.
—
ANAGAL-
LIS.

Walls is now no more. Nor from the hill
Will she more place for thee the disfill;
Nor make sweet anemone to gild thy brow;
Yet in the grave she runs; a river now.

W. Browne's Poet. Fac. book ii. song iii.

ANADIPLOSIS (of *ana*, again; and *διπλωσις*, to double), in Rhetoric, a reduplication of the concluding word in the foregoing member of a verse or sentence; as in our Saviour's advice, "I will forewarn you whom ye shall fear: Fear him which after He hath killed hath power to cast into hell; yea, I say unto you, fear him." Luke xii. 5. Or in the following beautiful stanza, from an ancient poem on angling, quoted by Walton—

Let them that list, these pastimes still pursue—

I count it higher pleasure to behold—

The hills and mountains raised from the plains,
The plains extended level with the ground,
The grounds divided into sandy, velvet,
The vales enclosed with rivers running round;
These rivers, making my through nature's chains,
With headlong course into the sea profound;
The raging sea, beneath the valleys low,
Where lakes and rills and rivulets do flow,

ANADROMOUS, in Ichthyography, an epithet applied to fishes that migrate seasonally from salt water to fresh, for the purpose of depositing their spawn; of which the salmon is a remarkable instance.

ANADYOMENE, in Antiquity, an exquisite painting of Venus, ascribed to Apelles, which originally adorned the temple of Æsculapius, in the island of Cos. It represented the goddess rising out of the sea, and in the act of wringing her hair. Augustus transferred it to the temple of Julius Cesar, and remitted the inhabitants of Cos a tribute of a hundred talents in return; the lower part of the figure having been injured, no Roman painter could be found to supply it. *PLIN.* xxx. 10. *Ovid* de *A.* iii. v. 401, &c.

ANADYR, a river of Siberia, which has its source in the lake Yankoo, and falls into the sea of Anedyr, from whence it derives its name.

ANADYRSKOI, a fortress on the banks of the above river, in lon. 163°, 14' E., and lat. 66°, 9' N. It was erected in the year 1649, by a Russian hunter, named Deschnew.

ANADYSIS, in Ecclesiastical History, an ancient term to denote emersion in baptism, as opposed to the *carabusc*, or immersion.

ANÆDEIA (according to Junius, from *anæra*, innocence), in Antiquity, a silver stool placed in the Areopagus for the accused to sit upon during examination. The accuser was placed on a stool opposite, called *hýbris*, or injury, and asked the party accused, "Are you guilty of this fact? How came you to commit it? Who were your accomplices?" To which three questions the defendant was obliged to give direct answers.

ANÆSTHESIA (of *a*, priv. and *anæsthesia*, to feel), in Medicine, a privation of the sense of touch. Cullen ranks it in the order *Dysæsthesia*, class *Locales*. Whatever injures the nervous influence, either in the brain or in the numerous channels by which it is conducted, has a tendency to produce this disorder. Warm bathing, blisters, and sinapisms, are the general remedies. See *MEDICINE*, Div. ii.

ANAGALLIS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria and order Monogynia.

ANAGLYPHICE, or **ANAGLYPHIA**, in Ancient ANAGLY-
PHICE.
—
ANAG-
GRAM.

Sculpture, that work wherein the strokes are prominent, or embossed; the opposite sort, which has the strokes indented, is called *Diaglyphice*.

ANAGNIA, now **ANAGNI**, an Ancient Geography, the capital city of the Hernici, in Latium, celebrated for its riches and illustrious families. When Anthony had divorced Octavia and married Cleopatra, he struck a medal in this city. It is 30 miles from Rome, and is a bishop's see. *Cic. Att.* xvi. 8. *PLIN.* iii. c. 5. *STRAB.* v.

ANAGNOSES, or **ANAGNOSEMATATA**, (from *ana* and *γνωσησις*, I know), in Ecclesiastical Affairs, a book of the lessons of the Greek church during the year.

ANAGNOSTA, in Antiquity, a literary servant in the establishment of families of distinction, employed to read to them during meals.

ANAGOGIA, in Antiquity, an annual feast in honour of Venus, celebrated at Eryx, in Sicily, where she had a temple, and from which place she was said to retreat into Africa for nine days, when she was followed by all the doves of the vicinity. The return of the goddess was commemorated by a feast named *Catagogia*.

ANAGOGICKS, } *Αναγωγικα* from *Αναγω*; i. e.
ANAGOGICAL, } *αναγω*, to lead, or draw
upwards. Applied to the withdrawing, or abstraction, the rising or elevation of the mind to the contemplation of things; lofty, exalted, recondite, mysterious.

They divide the scripture into four senses, the literal, tropological, allegorical and anagogical.

The whole Works of W. Tyndall, &c. fo. 166. c. 1.

The allegory is appropriate to faith, and the anagogical to hope and things above. *Id.* B.

ANAGOGY (*αναγωγη*), in Theology, sometimes used by ecclesiastical writers for an elevation of the mind to things spiritual and eternal, and opposed to *anæropeia*—history. It is applied more particularly in Jewish and other expositions of the types of the law of Moses; see the quotations above.

ANAGRAM,
ANAGRAMMATICAL,
ANAGRAMMATICALLY,
ANAGRAMMATICISM,
ANAGRAMMATICISE,
ANAGRAMMATIZE,
a different signification.

From *Ανα* and *γραμμα*, a letter, from *γραφω*, to write. Applied to the transposition of the letters of words so as to form other words of

Rea. And see where Jeno, whose great name
Is Union, in the anagram,
Displays her glittering state and chair,
As she enlighten all the air!

Ben Johnson's Mas. of Hyems.

I have largely written his life in my "Ecclesiastical History" and may truly say with him who constantly returned to all inquiries, *Nil* and *non*, I can make no new addition thereto; only since I met with this Anagram:

JOHNES WHITTINGTON:

Nepi si egit, facit Jenu.

Faller's Worthies—Lindbersthorpe.

The only quinquessence that kithrins the alchemy of wit could draw out of names, is *Anagrammatism*, or *Metagrammatism*, which is a dissection of a name, truly written, into its letters as its elements, and a new conversion of it by artificial transposition, without addition, subtraction, or change of any letter into different words, making some perfect sense applicable to the person named.

Cæsar's Remains.

The whole system of the created universe, consisting of body, and particular incorporated substances or souls, in the successive generations and corruptions or deaths, of men and other animals, was,

ANA-
GRAM.
ANAEC-
TA.

according to them [the ancient stoicists], really nothing else but one and the same thing perpetually anagrammized, or but like many different syllables and words variously and successively composed out of the same pre-existent elements or letters.

Cudworth's Intel. System.

The almost extent of their greediness in naming their country habitation by a hill, a mount, a brook, a barrow, a castle, a barrow, a ford, and the like ingenious conceits. Yet these are exceeded by others, a heron's name have contrived anagrammized appellations from half their own and their wives' names joined together.

Sayll. On Barb. Desc. in Ireland.

[Robert Fludd hath] published [a book], under the name of Rudolph Orph, that is, anagrammatically, Robert Fludd.

Wood's Athenæ Oxonienses.

When the anagrammatist takes a name in work upon, he considers it at first as a mine not broken up, which will not show the treasure it contains, until he shall have spent many hours in the search of it; for it is his business to find out one word that conceals itself in another, and to examine the letters in all the variety of stations in which they can possibly be ranged.

Spectator, No. 60.

The ROMAN ANAGRAM seems to have been strictly confined to the dividing one word into two or more, retaining their original order. Thus Aulus Gellius mentions an anagram of the god Terminus, founded on the anagram, Terminus, l. xii. c. 6.

Modern anagrammatists transpose the entire of the letters in any way that will answer the purposes of this literary trifling; in the History of France we find the appointment of anagrammatist to Louis XIII. was worth 1,200 livres per annum, and the French are said to have had the honour of introducing the art, as it is now practised, in the reign of Charles IX. It seems to need no illustrations after those already given.

ANAGROS, in Commerce, a Seville measure of corn, somewhat larger than the Paris mine; forty-six of them being equal to 10½ quarters, London.

ANAGYRIS, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Decandria, and order Monogynia.

ANAGYROS, in Ancient Geography, a district of Attica, between Phalareus and the promontory of Sunium, where the above plant is said to have been found in great abundance; and from its smelling more fetid the more it was handled, it gave rise to the proverb of "Anagyrum commovere," the bringing of misfortunes upon one's self. STRAB. is PLIN. xxvii. 4.

ANAHUAC, the name anciently given by the Indians to all those parts of New Spain lying between the 14th and the 21st degrees of latitude. They are now comprehended in the kingdom of Mexico, or New Spain.

ANAITIS, in Ancient Mythology; also, and more generally, called TANAI, which see.

ANAK-SUNGEL, a kingdom on the south-west coast of Sumatra, extending from the river Manjasta to the Urei. This kingdom owes its origin to the decay of Indrapura. Its first monarch, whose name was Gulema, was established in the year 1685, through the aid of the English. The capital is Moco Moco. The country being for the most part inhabited by Sunnans, under their own chiefs, the supreme authority is under great restrictions here.

ANALCO, a jurisdiction, or alcadia mayor of Galicia, in New Spain, comprehended in the bishopric of Guadalajara, from which it is about a league distant to the east, and 80 leagues west of Mexico. It is also the name of four other inferior jurisdictions in New Spain.

ANALECTA (of ἀναλεγω, I gather), in Antiquity, was the waste meat or fragments which fell from the

table to the ground. Also the name of a servant whose office it was to collect together what was left at the end of a meal. Analecta has likewise been applied in a literary sense to various collections of short pieces or fragments.

ANALEMMA, in Geometry, an orthographical projection of the sphere on the plane of the meridian, by perpendiculars drawn from every point of that plane, the eye being supposed to be at an infinite distance east or west. Consequently the solstitial colure and its parallels are thrown into concentric circles equal to the real circles of the sphere. All circles having their planes at right angles with the solstitial colure, viz. the equinoctial, the equinoctial colure, the horizon, &c. become right lines of equal length with the diameters of those circles; and all oblique circles are projected into ellipses whose transverse axis is equal to their respective diameters. See Geometry in PEAR MATHEMATICS, Div. I.

The ANALEMMA is also an astronomical instrument on which the above projection is described, furnished with a cursor, or moveable horizon, and useful in ascertaining the sun's rising and setting, the length and hour of the day, as well as for laying down the signs of the zodiac, &c. in the construction of dial.

ANALEPTICS (of ἀναλεπτικός, to restore or recover), in Medicine, restoratives, whether applied by way of food or medicine, to an emaciated or exhausted constitution. It is a term exploded by Dr. Cullen as too ambiguous for scientific use. Analeptics is an old term of similar import, denoting the restoration, &c. of such parties.

ANALIS, in Entomology, the specific name of various genera of insects in the Linnaean and Fabrician arrangement. See ENTOMOLOG, Div. II.

ANALOGISTA, in Civil Law, a tutor declared by will or other instrument not to be legally responsible for his actions. The degree, however, to which this exemption could be availing is matter of dispute.

ANALOGIZE,

ANALOGY,

ANALOGICAL,

ANALOGOUS,

ANALOGAL,

ANALOGOUSLY.

the examples subjoined.

He callest still the Ladies body the congregation redeemed with Christs body as he dyd before, and also in the chapter following fetching his analogie and similitude at the natural body.

The Whole Works of Tyndale, &c. fo. 475, c. 1.

First Albion is an latin word, not hath the analogie, that is to say, the proportion or similitude of latine, for who hath found this suitable as, at the end of a latin word. Gresson, vol. i. p. 25.

St. Paul loved the Jews, because they were his brethren according to the flesh: we that are of the heathen, by the same analogy, ought to be as tenderly affected towards the rest of our brethren. Hale's Golden Meditations.

Quadrupedes orisparus, as frogs, lizards, crocodiles, have their joints and native features more analogously framed unto ours.

Brown's Vigor Froreus.

Every one knows that analogy is a Greek word, used by mathematicians to signify a similitude of proportions. For instance, when we observe that two is to six, as three is to nine, this similitude or equality of proportion is termed analogy.

Ep. Berkeley's Minute Phils.

The schoolmen tell us there is analogy between intellect and sight; forasmuch as, intellect is to the mind, what sight is to the body. And that he who governs the state is analogous to him who steers a ship.

ANALEC-
TA.
ANALO-
GIZE.

ANALOGY. Hence a prince is analogically stiled a pilot, being to the state as a pilot is to the vessel. *By Berkeley's Minute Philo.*

The title of the subject to personal liberty not only is founded on ancient, and therefore the most sacred laws: it is confirmed by the whole analogy of the government and constitution.

Hume's History of England.

We have words which are proper, and not analogical, to express the various ways in which we perceive external objects by the senses; such as feeling, sight, taste: but we are often obliged to use these words analogically, to express other powers of the mind which are of a very different nature. *Reid's Inquiry into the Human Mind.*

All the reformations we have hitherto made, have proceeded upon the principle of reference to antiquity; and I hope, say, I am persuaded, that all those which possibly may be made hereafter, will be carefully formed upon analogical precedent, authority, and example. *Burke, on the French Revolution.*

The unction of our Lord was the descent of the Holy Ghost upon him at his baptism. This was analogous to the ceremony of anointing. *Blessy's Sermons.*

Systems of material bodies, diversely figured and situated, if separately considered, represent the object of the dream, which is analogized by attraction or gravitation. *Clyene.*

ANALOGY, in Philosophy, a species of resemblance or agreement in some respects between two or more things that differ in other respects. It is, therefore, a partial resemblance without an entire agreement; and becomes the stronger in proportion to there being a greater number or variety of particulars in which evidently distinct things or events agree, and weaker as the alleged points of agreement appear few or unconnected. In the logic of the schoolmen there are three kinds of analogy, upon which we are taught that we may safely reason: 1. Sameness of nature in the reason of the common denomination, co-existing with difference of degree or order, as the analogy between a man and a brute, as animals; and this is called the analogy of *inequality*. 2. Sameness in the reason of the common name, with a difference in respect of habitude, as strength may be analogically attributed both to a man and an exercise; which is called the analogy of *attribution*. 3. A proportional similarity arising out of the effects or uses of things really differing in their nature, as in the analogy between the eye of man and his mental perception; and this is termed the analogy of *proportionality*.

In the inductive philosophy of modern times, and latterly in several of our most respectable works on morality and religion, a just and beautiful use has been made of the argument from analogy. Newton gives it the second place amongst his laws of philosophising, and may be said to have established some of the most characteristic parts of his system, as arising out of the doctrine of gravitation, on its sober and patient use. Other philosophers, again, making his conclusions their foundation, and building still higher with the same kind of materials, having observed the great similarity between the planets of our system, their revolutions round the sun, their motions upon their respective axes, their attendant satellites, &c. have peopled by analogy first this system of planetary worlds with intelligent inhabitants, and various orders of subordinate creatures; and then "worlds on worlds," marshalled apparently by the same great laws of nature, as they are, unquestionably, by the same mighty hand.

There can be no mode of argument that requires more acuteness of observation and integrity of mind (in every sense of the term), than that which would

VOL. XXIV.

build any thing important on alleged analogies in science or morals. To say nothing of the dreams of the schoolmen when the physical operations of nature were so little known, in comparison with the present state of philosophy, abundant instances of the dominion of fancy and hypothesis in analogies of recent discovery will be present to the recollection of every intelligent reader, from Dr. Darwin, in the philosophical, to Mr. Owen, in the moral world.

Mr. Locke observes, that in those things which sense cannot discover, analogy becomes the great rule of probability. And these he divides into two principal classes: 1. The existence, nature, and operations of finite immaterial beings without us; as spirits, angels, devils, &c. or the existence of material beings, which, either from their smallness in themselves, or remoteness from us, our senses cannot notice. 2. The manner of operation in most parts of the works of nature. "We see animals are generated, nourished, and more," he remarks, "the loadstone draws iron; and the parts of a candle successively melting, turn into flame, and give us both light and heat. These and the like effects we see and know: but the causes that operate, and the manner they are produced in, we can only guess, and probably conjecture. For these and the like, coming not within the scrutiny of human senses, cannot be examined by them, or be attested by any body; and therefore can appear more or less probable only as they more or less agree to truths that are established in our minds, and as they hold proportion to other parts of our knowledge and observation." And "thus finding in all parts of the creation that fall under human observation, that there is a gradual connection of one with another, without any great or discernible gaps between, in all that great variety of things we see in the world; which are so closely linked together, that in the several ranks of beings it is not easy to discover the bounds betwixt them; we have reason to be persuaded, that by such gentle steps things ascend upwards in degrees of perfection. Things, as far as we can observe, lessen and augment as the quantity does in a regular cone; when, though there be a manifest odds betwixt the bigness of the diameter at a remote distance, yet the difference between the upper and under, when they touch one another, is hardly discernible." This great philosopher then proceeds to furnish in himself an instance of the constant propensity of the human mind to pursue the argument from analogy to excess, by including the being and perfections of the Creator among these "ascending steps," toward which the rule of analogy would bring us, "every one" being "at no great distance from the next to it." We have observed upon the absurdity of this attempted analogy between all finite and the Only Infinite being in another place. See the article ANGEL, in this Division.

The unquestionable analogy between the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms of nature, has encouraged the practical philosopher to many useful discoveries. Alike combining an incomparable mechanism in their parts, with an organization adapted to their respective grades in creation; alike exhibiting growth, dependence on what we call the elements of nature for support; and periods of compensative perfection, disease, and decay, they bear indispensible relations to each other, and while

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ANALOGY.

distinctions sufficiently obvious are found between them, as in the colours of the rainbow, no separating lines can be drawn. The mineral grows, the vegetable feeds, if it do not sleep, and protects its young shoots, with almost a parental care; animal instincts are, in many instances, scarcely distinguishable from reason; and throughout the universe, as Paley says, "there is a wonderful proportioning of one thing to another." As suitableness to every class of its inhabitants characterizes the earth; a correspondence, or analogy must be found between them all. The last-mentioned author, indeed, grounds many of his admirable *Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity*, on the striking analogies amongst themselves, and with the most ingenious contrivances of man, which the works of nature apply to the most ordinary observer. We refer to his chapter (xii) on *Comparative Anatomy*, and chapter (xv) on *Relations in particular*. We do not remember to have met with a finer instance of correct analogy, as indicating unquestionable design in both cases, than that which is alleged in the following parallel between the digestive organs, and the operations of a manufactory.

"In man and quadrupeds, the aliment is first broken and bruised by mechanical instruments of mastication, viz. sharp spikes or hard knobs, pressing against or rubbing upon one another; thus ground and comminuted, it is carried by a pipe into the stomach, where it waits to undergo a great chymical action, which we call digestion: when digested, it is delivered through an orifice, which opens and shuts as there is occasion, into the first intestine: there, after being mixed with certain proper ingredients, poured through a hole in the side of the vessel, it is further dissolved; in this state, the milk, chyle, or part which is wanted, and which is suited for animal nourishment, is strained off by the mouths of very small tubes, opening into the cavity of the intestines; thus freed from the grosser parts, the precolated fluid is carried by a long, winding, but traceable course, into the main stream of the old circulation; which conveys it, in its progress, to every part of the body. Now I say again, compare this with the process of a manufactory; with the making of cider, for example; with the bruising of the apples in the mill, the squeezing of them when so bruised in the press, the fermentation in the vat, the bestowing of the liquor thus fermented in the hogheads, the drawing off into bottles, the pouring out for use into the glass. Let any one show me any difference between these two cases, as to the point of contrivance. That which is at present under our consideration, the 'relation' of the parts successively employed, is not more clear in the last case than in the first. The apertures of the jaws and teeth to prepare the food for the stomach, is, at least, as manifest as that of the cider-mill to crush the apples for the press. The conposition of the food in the stomach is as necessary for its future use, as the fermentation of the stum in the vat is to the perfection of the liquor. The disposal of the aliment afterwards; the action and change which it undergoes; the route which it is made to take, in order that, and until that, it arrives at its destination, is more complex indeed and intricate, but, in the midst of complication and intricacy, as evident and certain, as is the apparatus of cocks, pipes, tunnels, for transferring the cider from one vessel to another; of barrels and bottles for preserving it till fit for use, or of cups

and glasses for bringing it, when wanted, to the lip of the consumer. The character of the machinery is in both cases this, that one part answers to another part, and every part to the final result."

Butler's well-known work on the *Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature*, is introduced by the editor, Halifax, bishop of Gloucester, with the remark of the son of Sirach, "All things are double one against another, and God hath made nothing imperfect," Ecclesi. xlii. 24. on which single observation, he says, the whole fabric of our prelate's defence of religion in his *Analogy* is raised. "If the dispensation of Providence we are now under, considered as inhabitants of this world, and having a temporal interest to secure in it, be found, on examination," he continues, "to be analogous to, and of a piece with, that further dispensation which relates to us as designed for another world, in which we have an eternal interest, depending on our behaviour here; if both may be traced up to the same general laws, and appear to be carried on according to the same plan of administration, the fair presumption is, that both proceed from one and the same author. And if the principal parts objected to in this latter dispensation be similar to, and of the same kind with, what we certainly experience under the former; the objections being clearly inconclusive in one case, because contradicted by plain facts, must in all reason be allowed to be inconclusive also in the other." This is a fair abridgement of the argument of the entire work.

The chain of this useful and highly interesting application of the argument from analogy, has been recently attempted to be completed by a work of Mr. Gisborne's, entitled, *The Testimony of Natural Theology to Christianity*. He professes to commence from the points at which Dr. Paley terminates his argument. "I conceive," says this writer, "that natural theology not only has for its office to promote by the development of those attributes (enumerated by Dr. Paley) the conversion of an atheist or of a polytheist into a rational theist, and by preparatory influence to dispose him to listen to any credible revelation; but that it is able, and that it is intended, by ulterior and direct facts and arguments within its own province, powerfully to assist the advancement of the deist into the Christian." He then examines the present state of the exterior strata of the earth, the actual appearances of its surface, the objects it presents complete, or as within human attainment, for the benefit of man; the structure of his frame; his mind; and the facts of common life, as all agreeing to indicate that man is in a state of moral discipline, or in exactly such a state of merciful punishment and hopeful probation, as in the clearer language of the Christian revelation he is now said to occupy.

"In the situation of man upon earth there is a feature, which not only is intimately and at every moment connected with moral discipline, but is in itself so remarkable, and in its implications so pointed, that it must not be left without distinct observation. Man, stationed as it were in the centre of the visible works of God, is endowed with faculties rendering him capable of discovering by means of those works the existence and many glorious perfections of his Creator. He has

ANALOGY.

ANALOGY.
ANALYZE.

intellectual powers qualifying him to glorify that Creator, to adore him, to praise him, to feel his excellencies, to comprehend his will. For these very purposes man appears to have been formed. Yet from immediate and open intercourse with his Maker, he stands debarred and cut off. He addresses the Divinity by prayer as by a messenger conveying to another world the sorrows and the petitions of the supplicator. He knows his God, as he knows the wind, by effects. But his God meets not his eyes; utters not an audible voice; discloses not himself to the organs of mortal sense; grants not to the human race the degree nor the kind of intercourse for which, by faculties bestowed, he has graciously vouchsafed to make them competent. I speak of the human race collectively, and of the state of facts as it manifests itself to natural theology; not of those few individuals, prophets, apostles, and other holy men of old, excepted from the general law ordained for the countless myriads of mankind, and admitted for the furtherance of the divine plans of mercy to special and miraculous communications with their God. Is not then the condition of man, in the particulars at present under contemplation, marked by a close analogy to that of sons dismissed, in consequence of flagrantly evil conduct, from the presence of their parent, yet not cast off from his affectionate solicitude; furnished by him with means of subsistence and various comforts; permitted to communicate to him by letters and messengers their wants and their wishes; but prohibited from personal access to him, and from personal intercourse with him, although allowed to hope that, if ever a radical change of character shall have been effectually wrought and manifested, the period of penal exile will be terminated? Is it conceivable that man, spontaneously and benignantly fitted in his faculties for a measure of immediate intercourse with his heavenly Father, would be debarred from that intercourse, if he had not forfeited the privilege by disobedience? Observe the accordance between these views, suggested by natural theology and the Scriptures. Man in paradise had direct communication with his God. Man renovated through his Redeemer, shall enjoy it again, and for ever." GIBBERNE'S *Testimony of Nat. Theology*, 12mo. p. 231—234.

For the closer application of analogy to the philosophy of the mind, and various rules for its practical uses, see METAPHYSICS and LOGIC, Div. I.

ANALOGY, in Grammar, the general agreement which a word or phrase is found to bear with the received idiom or forms of a language.

ANALOGY OF FAITH, among Divines, is a certain consistency of revelation with itself, in all its various parts; which is said to constitute an impartial rule of interpreting Scripture, and of reconciling apparent contradictions.

ANALYZE, v.
ANALYSIS,
ANALYST,
ANALYTICAL,
ANALYTICALLY,
ANALYTIC, n.
ANALYTIC, adj.
ANALYZER.

Ana, and Ana, to loosen.
To separate or dissolve a mixed whole into its component parts.

What the sun compounds, fire analysis, not transmutes.
Brown's *Hydrophobia*.

The celebrated M. Des Cartes wrote an *expresse treatise de Methodo*; wherein he reduces the whole art to four rules, that soon contained in Aristotle's *analytics*. Bacon's *New Organum*, App.

Hos. His learning avoweth not the school-like gloss,
That most consists in echoing words and trims,
And sweetest wins a man an empty name,
Nor any long or far-fetched circumstance
Wray'd in the curious generalities of arts;
But a direct and analytic soul
Of all the worth and first effects of arts.

Ben Jonson's *Pontanus*, act iii.

As Stellas, late dictator of the feast,
The nose of haughtiness and the tip of nose,
Critique'd your wine, and smug'd at your meat,
Yet on plain pudding deign'd at home to eat.

Pope's *Moral Essays*.

By high-colouring is not meant a string of rapturous epithets, but an attempt to analyse the views of nature—to open their several parts, in order to shew the effect of a whole.

Gilpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c. Pref.

Our lecturer concluded his discourse with a most ingenious analysis of all political and moral virtues, into their first principles and causes, shewing them to be mere fashions, tricks of state, and dissensions on the vulgar.

By Berkeley's *Miscell. Philo.*

Although you may pass for an artist, compiler, or analyst, yet you may not be justly esteemed a man of science and demonstration.

Id. *Analyst*.

It may be proper, before we examine the scenes themselves, to take a sort of analytical view of the materials, which compose them—mountains—lakes—broken grounds—wood—rocks—cascades—a river—most rivers. Gilpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

I have seen sketches and rough draughts of some poems he designed, set out analytically; wherein the fable, structure, and connection, the images, incidents, moral episodes, and a great variety of ornaments, were finely laid out.

Outinorth in Johnson's *Life of Swift*.

To investigate truth with success, in mathematics, in natural philosophy, and, indeed, on every occasion where it is difficult to be found, the analytic method must be employed.

Bolingbroke's *Essay on Human Knowledge*.

I need no better analyst than yourself; save that you do not only resolve my parts, but add more; whereas, every analysis hath a double term; from whence, and whither: both these could not but fall into our discourse.

By Hall's *Philosophical Works*.

ANALYSIS, in Mathematics, generally denotes the method of resolving mathematical problems by decomposition, or by reducing them to equations, and may be divided into ancient and modern analysis.

The ancient ANALYSIS, as it is described by Pappus (in *Mathematical Collections*, lib. vii. p. 157 ed. Commendini, 1588), is the method of proceeding from the thing sought, taken for granted, through its consequences, to something which is actually known or admitted; in which sense it is opposed to *synthesis*, or composition, which commences with the last step of the analysis, and traces the several steps backwards, making that, in this case, antecedent, which, in the other, was consequent, till we arrive at the thing sought, which was assumed in the first step of the analysis. See *Geometry*, in *PURE MATHEMATICS*, Div. I.

ANALYSIS, modern, comprehends algebra, arithmetic of infinities, infinite series, increments, fluxions, or the differential calculus, the calculus of variations, of functions, &c. We have also the *antecedental analysis*, the *combinatorial analysis*, the *residual analysis*, &c.

The doctrine of the former class of subjects will be illustrated in our treatises on the different branches of the *Pure Mathematics*, forming as they do, a necessary part of such a course; but the three latter, being rather collateral and partial applications, may be briefly defined in this place.

ANALYZE.

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Antecedental ANALYSIS, is a branch of general proportion, or universal comparison; it is derived from an examination of the antecedents of ratios, having given consequents, and a given standard of comparison, in the various degrees of augmentation and diminution which they undergo by composition and decomposition. This analysis was first invented by the late James Glenie, Esq. and published by him in 1793; a further application of it in his *Doctrine of Universal Comparison, or General Proportion*, appeared in 1798. The author professes to employ it with advantage instead of fluxions, but it has not been much attended to by other mathematicians.

Combinatorial ANALYSIS is a branch of mathematics, which teaches us to ascertain and exhibit all the possible ways in which a given number of things may be combined and mixed together, so that we may be certain that every possible arrangement has been made; it proceeds one step beyond what has been usually denominated the doctrine of combinations, which frequently refers only to the number of changes, without contemplating the method of forming them. We have a work on this subject by Hindersburgh, a German mathematician, and another more recently by Mr. Nicholson, so well known for his various treatises on the different branches of civil architecture. To these works, and particularly to the latter, we would refer the reader for the particular nature of, and notation employed in this analysis.

Residual ANALYSIS is a branch of mathematics, invented by Landen, and applied by him in the solution of those problems which are generally solved by means of fluxions, or the differential calculus. This method has been denominated the residual analysis, because in all cases where it is made use of, the conclusions are obtained by means of residual quantities. In this analysis, a physical or geometrical problem is reduced to another purely algebraical, and the solution is then obtained without any supposition of motion, and without considering quantities as composed of others infinitely small.

The residual analysis proceeds by taking the difference of the same function of a variable quantity in two different ways, or in two different states of that quantity, and expressing the relation of this difference, to the difference between the two states of the said variable quantity itself. This relation being first expressed generally, is then considered in the case when the difference of the two states of the variable quantity is equal to zero.

Landen published the first book of his *Residual Analysis* in 1764, and in it exemplified its application to several algebraical inquiries, as well as in determining the tangents, evolutes, ordinates, points of inflection, double and triple points, nodes asymptotes, centres, &c. of curve lines; and in the second book, it was intended to show the application of the same analysis to a variety of mechanical and physico-geometrical problems; but, for some unassigned reason, this part of the work was never published.

ANALYSIS, in Chemistry. See *CHEMISTRY*, Div. ii.

ANALYSIS, in Logic. See *LOGIC*, Div. i.

ANAMABOE. See *ANNAMBOE*.

ANAMANI, in Antiquity, inhabitants of Cisalpine Gaul, at the foot of the Appennines, south of the Po, and allies of the Romans.

ANAMBAS, the name of several islands in the Chinese sea. The Great Anambas comprise a cluster of islands, in E. lon. 105° 56', and N. lat. 3°. Three small islands, in E. lon. 106°, and N. lat. 3° 56', are called the Little Anambas. Another cluster, in E. lon. 105° 22', and N. lat. 2° 20', have the name of the South Anambas.

ANAMIS, in Ancient Geography, a river which is mentioned by Arrian, and thought to be the same which Ptolemy and Pliny call Andamis. It belongs to Carmania, and, according to M. d'Anville, flows through the strait which joins the Persian gulf to the sea.

ANANMELECH, in Scripture History, one of the idols of the Sepharvites, to whom they sacrificed their children.

ANANNESEIS, in Antiquity, the eulogies of those persons who had distinguished themselves in a civil or military capacity, repeated to the emperors of Constantinople, to procure them suitable distinctions.

ANAMOOKA. See *ANNAMOOKA*.

ANAMORPHOSIS, in Optics, denotes a monstrous projection, or the representation of some image, either on a plane or curve surface, deformed or distorted, but which, in a certain point of view, shall appear regular and well-defined. See *OPTICS*, Div. ii.

ANAMSAGUR, a town of Hindostan, in the district of Moodgul, and province of Bejapoor, distant from the town of Moodgul about 20 miles W.

ANANAS, in Botany, a species of Bromelia, commonly called pine-apple, from the similarity of its shape to the cones of fir and pines.

ANANCITIS, in Antiquity, sometimes called synochitis, a figured stone, which was supposed to possess the power of raising the infernal gods.

ANANPOUR, a town in the province of Bednore, Hindostan, 120 miles N. W. of Seringapatam, and 20 S. E. of Bednore.

ANANTAPOUR, a town in the Carnatic, 13 miles S. E. of Cuddapah, Hindostan.

ANANTPOUR, a town of the Mysore, or south of India, Hindostan, about 140 miles N. E. of Seringapatam. This town was taken by the British in the year 1783, on which occasion no quarter was given, on account of a flag of truce having been violated. It was taken by the Maharrattas in the year 1791.

ANANURI, a town and quadrangular fortress of Georgia, situated on the small river Arskan, in the district of Saeristo, 40 miles N. N. W. of Tefist. It contains three churches. The houses on the east side of the fortress consist of deep pits or caverns, the tops or roofs of which are level with the ground, and light is admitted through an opening in the middle, which also serves to let out the smoke. These houses were formerly surrounded by a wall; but it is now fallen to decay.

ANAPA, or *ANAPFA*, a town of Circassia, on the Sundjik bay, in the Black sea, 70 miles from Theodosia. The town, which is fortified, is about two miles in circuit, has a fort, a good harbour, and carries on a considerable trade. The fort was erected by the Turks, in 1784, when the Russians took possession of the Crimea and Isle of Tuman. It afforded protection to the fugitive inhabitants of Tuman, and to the wandering Nogays on the banks of the Kuban. The citizens, however, reluctantly submitted to the authority of the Turkish pasha, who resided at another fortified town,

ANAM-
BAS.
—
ANAPA.

ANAPA.
ANAR-
CHIEDS.

about 16 miles distant, called Tschutchukelee. Anapa was taken by storm, in the year 1791, by the Russians. At that time the fortress had only ramparts of earth. When it was restored to the Turks, they fortified it by a strong wall. Both Anapa and Tschutchukelee now belong to Russia.

ANAPÆST, in Classical Literature, a foot of Latin and Greek poetry, composed of two short syllables and one long one, as *animos*, *scopulos*.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE, a species of Latin Lyrics, which at first consisted of four anapæsts; then dactyls and anapæsts were used instead of anapæsts so frequently, that the verse, in many cases, had not an anapæst in it.

ANAPHIE (of *παίω*, to appear), in Ancient Geography, an island to the E. of Thera, that suddenly rose out of the Cretan sea, and afforded the Argonauts shelter in the midst of a storm. Vestiges of a temple are still to be found in the south of the island, dedicated to Apollo, who was worshipped under the name of Anaphios.

ANAPHORA (αναφορά, Gr. repetition), in Rhetoric, the repetition of the same word or phrase at the beginning of two or more sentences consecutively, as in Virgil:

Pan etiam Arcadia iurem se justice certet
Pan etiam Arcadia dicat se justice victum.

And St. Paul, Where is the wise? Where is the Scribe? Where is the dispenser of this world?

ANAPHORA, in Ecclesiastical Affairs, the host or species offered in the Eucharist.

ANAPHORA, in Astrology, is the second house, or that part of the heavens, which is 30° distant from the horoscope.

ANAPHORDISIA (of *ανα* and *αφροδισια*, Venus), in Surgery, impotence; ranked by Cullen in the order Dysæsthesia, of the class Lænes.

ANAPLASIS, or DIAPLASIS, in the ancient practice of Surgery, was the replacing a fractured bone in its former situation.

ANAPLEROSIS, or PROSTHESIS, in Surgery, repletion. Anaplerotics are such remedies as incarnate and promote the growth of flesh in ulcers or wounds.

ANAPPEES, a district and town of French Flanders, two leagues from Lille, in the arrondissement of that name, and the department of the north. It has a castle, and a population of about 2,000 inhabitants.

ANAPUS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Epirus. THUCYD. ii. 82.—Also a river in Sicily, which runs into the great harbour near Syracuse, so named from Anapius, one of the two brothers who, during an eruption of mount Etna, carried away their parents on their shoulders, and preserved them. THUCYD. vi. 96. OVID Met. v. 417.

ANAPUJA, a considerable province of Andalusia, in New Spain, S. of the mountains of San Pedro, and N. of the province of Venezuela. It is very infertile, and inhabited by several wild tribes of Indians.

ANARCHI, in Antiquity, the name of four superannuated days in the Athenian year, during which they were without magistrates, as the office of the old ones had ceased, and they were employed in electing new ones.

ANARCHIEDS, or ANARCHICHAS, in Ichthyology, the wolf fish, a genus of the order Apodalia, inhabiting the northern seas.

AN'ARCHY, *n.*
ANARCHICAL,
ANARCHICK,
ANARCHISM,
ANARCHIST,
ANARCHU.

government.

All France swarmed with dissolute soldiers of sandy nation, which having no generally, made havoc of their pleasure. They were called *people without an head*, and by innumerable insensibilities made the wretchedness of anarchy apparent.

Specie's Hist. of Gr. Britain.

There is no pretence at all to suspect, that the Egyptians were universally atheists and anarchists, such as supposed no living undeviating deity, but resolved all into senseless matter as the first and highest principle.

Cudworth's Intellectual System.

You're he the advantage all, mine the reverse!

Thou'st seen; and him thou the anarchy old,

With blattering speech and savage incour'd,

Answered I know thee stranger, who thou art,

That nightly leading angel, who of late

Made head against heaven's King, though overthrow'n.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book ii.

What is more becoming our social nature than well regulated government, or more valuable than liberty? How ignominious, even, must his conduct be, who turns the first into anarchy, and the last into slavery.

Melmoth's Pity's Letters.

But is not freedom—at least is not ours

Too apt to play the wanton with her pow'rs,

Gross freakish, and overleaping ev'ry bound,

Speeds anarchy and terror all around.

Cooper's Table Talk.

As in the most absolute governments, there is a regular progression of slavery downwards, from the top to the bottom; * * * so in the most dissolute and anarchical states, there is as regular an ascent of what is called rank or condition, which is always laying hold of the head of him, who is advanced but one step higher on the ladder.

Fieling's Voyage to Lisbon.

To hear some men speak of the late monarchy of France, you would imagine they were talking of Persia bleeding under the sword of Kossli Khan, or at least describing the barbarous anarchic despotism of Turkey.

Burke on the French Revolution.

I do look upon this bill as upon the piping period of all good order: it will prove the mother of absolute anarchy.

Sir E. Dering's Speeches.

ANAS, in Ornithology, a genus of water birds, of the order Anseres, including the geese, ducks, and swans of Great Britain. See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

ANASARCHA (of *ανα* and *σαρχ*, flesh), in Medicine, a kind of universal dropsy, spread between the skin and the flesh. Dr. Cullen ranks it in the class Cachexia, and order Intumescentia, enumerating five species. See MEDICINE, Div. ii.

ANASPASIS (of *ανα* and *σπασω*, to draw together), in Medicine, spasm, or convulsion of the frame; applied either in a general sense, or to spasmodic affections of the stomach.

ANASPIS (from *ασπις*, a shield), in Entomology, a genus of insects remarkable for the smallness of their scutellum, or esentcheon, which is scarcely visible.

ANASSAS, in Natural History, an African fruit of the Bromelia species, common in Guinæa, and much resembling the English pine-apple.

ANASTAMIA, a sea-port of Japan, having some traffic in wood. It is situated on the south coast of the island of Nippon.

ANASTATIA, ST. an island, near the coast of East Florida, bounded on the N. by St. Augustine's Bar. It is situated S. of Mastancee Inlet, and contains a quarry of fine stone.

ANASTATICA, in Botany, a genus of plants belong-

A, without; and *αρχη* (principium et fons), beginning, source.
Without beginning, source; and therefore without foundation, authority, rule, order,

ANAR-
CHY.
—
ANASTA-
TICA.

ANASTOMOSIS, in the class Tetradynamia, and order Stiliclose; also a species of Vorticella, in the fifth order of Vermes, Infusoria.

ANASTOMOSIS, in Entomology, a species of Phalena, which feeds upon the willow.

ANASTOMOSIS (of *ana*, through, and *stoma*, the mouth), in Anatomy, the outlet or aperture by which one vessel opens into another. Anastomotics are such medicines as contribute to the opening of vessels, and to the free circulation of the blood.

ANASTROUS SIGNS, in Astronomy, a name sometimes given to the twelve parts of the ecliptic, anciently occupied by the signs, but deserted through the precession of the equinox.

ANASTROPHE (of *ana* and *strophe*, to turn), in Rhetoric, a figure in which the usual order of the words is inverted, or an inferior number of a sentence postponed, for the sake of cadence, or impression. Milton uses it with great freedom and power; as in the opening of *Paradise Lost*. In the ancient military tactics, it was also used for an evolution to the right or left, and as opposed to the epistrophe.

ANATA, see ANOTHO.

ANATAJAN, or ANATACAN, one of the Ladrões, in E. lon. 145°, 50', and N. lat. 17°, 20', about 10 miles in circuit. The soil is productive, and the land high; but there is no fresh-water on the island.

ANATH'EMA, *n.* } *Ana*, *q. d.* *ana*, up, up-
ANATH'EMATISM, } wards; and *ema*, to put,
ANATH'EMATIZE, } or place.
ANATH'EMATIZER. } Anathema was any thing placed up, hung up, suspended. Then any thing so placed, as an ornament; or dedicated, devoted, consecrated; and consequently any person or thing consecrated, execrated, accursed.

But, above all, if he have St. Paul's perfection, that he would wish to be an anathema from Christ, for the salvation of his brethren, it shews much of a divine nature, and a kind of conformity with Christ himself.

Bacon's Essay on Goodness, and Goodness of Nature.

Above all examples is that of the Jews, who put to death the Lord of life, and made their nation to be an anathema for ever until the day of restitution. "His blood be upon us and upon our children." *Sp. Taylor's Sermons.*

Cardinal Peron perceiving much detriment likely to come to their doctrine by these apologies of the primitive Christians upon the (1.) anathematism of St. Cyril, says, that they deny anthropophagy, but did not deny the anthropophagy.

Taylor on the Real Pres. of the Christ in the Sacra.

The Apostles, when they cursed and anathematized a delinquent, he dyed suddenly. *Id. Episcopacy asserted.*

How many famous churches have been most unjustly thunder-struck with direful curses of excommunication, down to the pit of hell, upon pretence of this crime [heresy] which have been less guilty than their anathematizers.

Sp. Hall's Cases of Conscience.

Among that vast variety of religions that are professed in the world, how shall a sincere person of ordinary capacity find which is alone the true one? And he is satisfied that Christianity is the true religion, yet among Christian churches, dancing and excommunicating each other, and among sects even of Christians fastening all manner of censures and reproach upon each other, how shall he know which 'tis his duty to adhere to? *Clark's Sermons.*

What man is there in the world free from all error? And yet every error which he holds, is perhaps inconsistent with some truth which he believes. It is hard to write anathema upon a man's forehead, because of some inconsistencies in his opinions, while he believes all necessary truths, and practices all the necessary duties relating to God and Christ, and his own soul.

Wad's Essays.

The LXX, according to some copies, use this word (*anathema*)

Lev. xxiii. 39, for the Heb. *anath*, somewhat devoted; for in ANATH'EMA. 2 Mac. ix. 16, it signifies, as in Luke, a consecrated gift. *Parkhurst's Greek Lexicon.*

ANATH'EMA, in Antiquity and Ecclesiastical History, is applied to various persons and things separated from ordinary life or uses to the will of a real or supposed deity. In the heathen world it was frequently applied in a general and laudable sense to devoted vessels or ornaments of their temples; in the Christian Scriptures it is most commonly used adversely, sometimes for a separation to utter destruction; and amongst ecclesiastical writers, almost exclusively in the latter sense. Josephus retains the ancient Greek use of the word very distinctly when he says (Ant. lib. xv. c. 11) that "the spoils of the barbarians were hung up all round the temple," *καὶ ταῦτα πάντα βαρβάρων ἱερώεσσιν ἀνθήματα ἔθεντο ὅσα καὶ Ἀρσίου δακτύλου*—"all which king Herod dedicated, adding those which he had taken from the Arabians." Thus it is also used in the gospel of St. Luke, xxi. 5—"The temple was adorned with goodly stones and gifts," *ἀνθήματα*. Sometimes these gifts were called *ἀνθήματα* or *οὐρανισμοί*; and often consisted of the relinquished instruments or utensils of a person's former profession. Thus the shepherd would dedicate his pipe to Pan, the fisherman his net to Neptune, and a worn out beauty her mirror to Venus. The ornaments of the early churches were sometimes called by these names.

St. Paul professes (Rom. ix. 3) that he could wish himself to be anathema from Christ for his brethren the Jews; an use of the word which has much perplexed the critics, who have generally inclined to consider it as expressing his willingness to be separated to death for their sakes. "The word is elegantly used," says Dr. M'Knight, "on this occasion for a violent death, because, as Locke observes, the Jewish custom was now *anathema*, a thing cast away of God, and separated to be destroyed. The apostle was willing to suffer death, if thereby he could have prevented the terrible destruction which was coming upon the Jews." Others have observed (WATERLAND, *Sermons*, v. 1) that as *ana* *tau* *epoxyorou*, 2 Tim. i. 3, signifies "after the example of my forefathers;" *ana* *tau* *christu* may signify "after the example of Christ." In another instance of the use of this word in the New Testament (1 Cor. xvi. 22), there is no allusion to some ancient Jewish form of pronouncing a person anathema, or excommunicate, of which, according to Buxtorf (*Lex. Chald.*), there were three descriptions. *The Niddai*, a separation of a man from the privileges of the synagogue, and from his wife and family for thirty days. The *Ukera*, inflicted only upon those who had been incorrigible under the *Niddai*, and which with many dire imprecations still left room for repentance; and the *Mammatha*, which cut off all hope of reconciliation with the Jewish church, and all interest in the privileges of their nation. To which of the last two the apostle may here allude it is difficult to decide. Hammond supposes it to answer to the third or highest degree of Jewish excommunication. The word *Mammatha* is Syriac, and signifies *The Lord is cursing*, a circumstance frequently alluded to in the New Testament when interest or solemnity is designed to be given to a subject. Some of the opponents of St. Paul at Coriath (probably Jews) seem to have called Jesus *anathema* (Chap. xii. 3), while others within the church discovered great alienation of mind from Christ; such open and secret foes to the

ANATHIE-MA. peace of his brethren he declares, according to the commentators, to be obnoxious to the severest displeasure of Almighty God, and that Jesus is coming to inflict it. Compare Mal. iv. 6. Macknight says, certain great forms of Jewish excommunication began with these words, which took their rise from Enoch's prophecy, mentioned by St. Jude, v. 14.

To the decrees of councils, and the bulls of the popes, various forms of anathema were, for these supposed examples, appended. As a mode of church discipline, in its highest or *judiciary* form, the anathema could only be pronounced by a pope, council, or some of the superior clergy, and differed from an excommunication, in that it not only prevented the offender from entering the church, but separated him from all connection with the catholic body, to the utter destruction of soul, body, and spirit. Another form of anathema, called *anathor*, was principally applied to the confession of heretics, who were made to anathematize the errors they abjured. Robbers, and other disturbers of the public peace, were in the dark ages delivered over by anathemas to the vengeance of heaven; a form of this kind is quoted by Dr. Robertson, in his History of Charles V. from Boquet, which he observes to be "composed with peculiar eloquence." See the Proofs and Illustrations of vol. i. note xxix. Charles V.

ANATHO, or ANNAH, in Ancient Geography, a fortified city of Mesopotamia, on the Euphrates, which formed an island in the midst of it. The inhabitants, attempting to impede the march of the Emperor Julian, were only subdued on the appearance of a strong naval force, united with the friendly advice of Prince Hormisdas. They solicited, however, and obtained the good will of Julian, who removed them to a settlement in Syria, and received Pammén, the governor, into his friendship and protection.

ANATHOTH, in Scripture Geography, a city of Palestine, near Jerusalem. It belonged to the tribe of Benjamin, and was given to the Levites as one of their cities of refuge. The prophet Jeremiah was born in this city.

ANATIFERA, in Conchology, a species of *Lepas*, called barnacle, adhering to the bottoms of ships.

ANATIGUCHAGA, the name of three lakes on the shores of the Maragón, in the kingdom of Quito, South America, in the territory of the Mainas Indians.

ANATILH, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gallia Narbonensis, mentioned by Pliny; their situation is disputed. Martin conjectures that they were the same as the Atlatanti of Avienus, inhabiting the left bank of the mouth of the Rhine. By M. D'Anville they are placed on the right bank of the Rhine, near its mouth.

ANATINA, in Conchology, a species of *Mys*, found on the coast of Guinea.

ANATINUS, in Conchology, a species of *Solen*, peculiar to the sandy shores of the Indian ocean.

ANATOCISM, **ANATOCISMUS**, in Commerce (from *ana*, as signifying repetition or duplication, and *toxis*, hurt, compound interest). Cicero has used this word in Latin, whence it has been adopted into modern language. Most civilized countries, guard against and condemn this, as the most destructive kind of usury. See **INTEREST**.

ANATOLIA. See **NATOLIA**.

ANATOMIZE, *v.* **ANATOMY**, **ANATOMIST**, **ANATOMICAL**, **ANATOMICK**, **ANATOMICALLY**.

To make a lesser known, by phrase *anatomic*.
You know all that list bears, for here behold you me,
Who though mine eyes look on, your parts are might more,
Yet every part that plays his part, to paint the pages of love.
Glancie.

When I lost favour'd, in my Lucina's brow,
Each conscious cheek grew red, and a cold trembling
Froz'd the chill soul: while every guilty breast
Stood fearful of dissection, as aimed
To be anatomiz'd by that skilful hand,
And have each artery, nerve, and vein of sin,
By it laid open to the public scorn.

Hamlet's Nurse's Look. Glan, act i. sc. 4.

Had anatomy his la vie among the Grecians, meet his physicians
and anatomists should some where discover it in the works of Hippocrates yet extant, which I presume cannot be showne.

Hakenell's Apology.

To the perfuming of the anatomical and reviving of the botanical art in this latter age, may be added a new kind of physics proposed by a new sect of physicians.

While some affirmed it [the dove] had no gull, intending only thereby no evidence of anger or fury; others have construed it anatomically, and denied that part at all.

Brown's Judge Errone.

The learned, who with *anatomic* art
Direct the mind, and thinking substance part,
And various powers and faculties assert,
Perhaps by such abstraction of the mind,
Divide the things that are in nature join'd.

Blackmore's Creation, book vii.

At the great day of trial, he will thoroughly anatomize us, and lay our very inside perfectly open and naked to the view of the whole world, to the sight of men and angels.

By. Bull's Sermon.

If I would know what an animal is, the anatomist considers the head, the trunk, the limbs, the bowels apart from each other, and gives me distinct lectures upon each of them.

Wool's Logic.

All that we know of the body is owing to *anatomical* dissection and observation, and it must be by an *anatomy* of the mind that we can discover its powers and principles.

Reid's Inquiry into the Human Mind.

For **ANATOMY**, as a Science, see **Div. ii.**

ANATRON, mineral alkali, soda, or natron, from the name of a lake in Egypt, where it was first discovered.

ANATTOM, one of the New Habrides, in the South Pacific ocean. It is the most southern of those islands, and is about 33 miles in circuit, lying in E. lon. 170°, S', and N. lat. 20°, S'. The face of the country is very hilly.

ANAUDIA, in Natural History, want of speech. Dumbness.

ANAURUS, in Ancient Geography, a river near Mount Pelion, in Thessaly, where, on his return to his country, Jason lost one of his sandals. Lucan asserts, that the waters of this river are respected by the winds. *LUCAN. vi. 370. APOLLON. i. APOLLON. i. 26.*

ANAUX, a river of Venezuela, in South America. It is one of four which supply the city of the Caracas with water, and falls into the Guiana, near the capital.

ANAXAGORIA, in Grecian Antiquity, a festival annually observed by the boys of Lampascus, in honour of the memory of **ANAXAGORAS**. *Diog. Laert.* Being

ANATO- MIZE.

ANAXA- GORIA.

ANAXA-
GORIA.
—
ANCA-
LITES.
—

asked by the magistrates of the place whether any thing agreeable to him could be devised for his honour after his decease, he requested that all the youth of the town might be allowed a liberty from their usual engagements in the schools on the anniversary of that event.

ANAXIMANDRIANS, in Antiquity, the pupils and followers of Anaximander, of Miletus, who, according to Plutarch, Aristotle, and the majority of historians, is said to have denied the existence of any thing immaterial. They stand opposed to the atomists; and were, perhaps, the earliest advocates of what is termed philosophical atheism.

ANAZARBA, or ANAZARBUM, in Ancient Geography, a city of Cilicia Proper, now called Aın-zerb by the Turks, on the banks of the river Pyramus, in E. lon. 34° 45', and N. lat. 37° 4', near Mount Anazarbus, from which it is supposed to have taken its name. Suidas assigns it another etymology, i. e. from a founder of the name of Anazarbus, in the reign of Nerva; but Piny having mentioned it long before, puts this conjecture completely to rest. In this reign, indeed, the ancient town was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, and rebuilt by order of the emperor; in that of Justin and Justinian it was visited by a similar calamity; and, from the circumstance of their attention to its interests, was called after them, for some time, Justinopolis and Justinianopolis. Various medals that are extant exhibit symbols of the fertility of the neighbourhood of this place, and an era, called the era of Anazarbum, which, in the *Mémoires de Lit.*, tom. xxx. p. 714, is proved by the Abbe Belley to have commenced A. V. 735: On the division of Cilicia into two provinces, in the fifth century of the Christian era, Anazarba became the capital of the second; its bishops received the rank and authority of metropolitans; and the power of legislating in all their own affairs, and of choosing the city magistrates, was conferred upon the inhabitants. In the year 1130 a celebrated battle was fought in its vicinity, between the Saracens and Christians, when the latter were defeated with great slaughter. Diocorides was born here, and the poet Oppian.

ANBAR, a town of the Arabian Irak, situated on the banks of the Euphrates, about 35 miles from Bagdad, and 200 from Mosul. It was taken, in the year 632, by a lieutenant of the Caliph Omar, surnamed Coleid, and was rebuilt by Abul Abbas Saffah, the first caliph of the house of Abbassides. There is also a town of this name in Great Buckharia, in the province of Belukh, 70 miles S. S. W. of the town of that name.

ANBERTEND, in Literature, a celebrated book of the Brachmans, containing the foundation of the Indian religion and philosophy. In its literal acceptation the word implies, the cistern of the water of life. It is portioned out into fifty books, or sections, each containing ten chapters. From the original Indian it has been translated into Arabic, by the title of *Morot al Moani*, q. d. *The Mirror of Intelligence*.

ANBURY, in Agriculture, a vegetable disease or excrescence, on the roots of turnips, which soon destroys them. The free admission of air to the roots by diligent hoeing is said to be the only remedy.

ANCALITES, in Ancient Geography, natives of Britain, in the neighbourhood of the Trinobantes. Some authors suppose them to have been the ceangi or shepherds and herdsmen of the Attacotti, who enjoyed the

fine pastures of Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire. The Romans conquered this people and some others in their vicinity, with the government of which they rewarded the British king of the Dobuni, for his ready acknowledgment of their power, and his faithful adherence to their interests. *Cæs. Bell. Gal. v. 21.*

ANCAMERES, a nation of South American Indians inhabiting the shores of the river Madera, in Peru. They attacked the Portuguese in 1683 in considerable strength, and compelled them to abandon their intention of possessing themselves of the navigation of the river upwards. Their territory abounds with wood.

ANCAS, the name of a settlement of Indians, formerly inhabiting a part of the province of Huailas, in Peru. Their principal town, consisting of a population of 15,000 souls, and called after the name of the tribe, was swallowed up by the bursting of a mountain, after an earthquake, in Jan. 1725; so that the tribe is now almost extinct.

ANCASTER, a village and parish in the county of Lincoln, eight miles from Grantham, and 112 from London, containing, according to the last census, a population of only 381 inhabitants. This place is said to have been a Roman station, according to the author of the *Britannia Romana*, the *Cassennæ* of Antonine. Mosaic pavements, and prodigious quantities of coin dug up in the neighbourhood, go to confirm this conjecture. Stukeley says, "What was its Roman name I know not; but it has been a very strong city, entrenched and walled about, as may be seen very plainly for the most part, and perceived by those that are the least versed in these searches; the bowling-green behind the Red Lion, is made in the ditch. When they were levelling it, they came to the old foundation." *Itiner. Curia*, p. 80. There are still in the neighbourhood several remains of antiquity; amongst which are vestiges of a castle, and other fortifications. A Roman *via trinitatis*, or highway, runs near this place, along the side of a hill. Ancaster also gives the title to a dukedom.

ANACAYE, a territory of Madagascar, inhabited by the Becommons, situated near the Foul Point. It contains a number of villages, built on the hills. Each of these villages is surrounded with a moat or ditch, with a small parapet, towers, and bastions, erected in a somewhat irregular manner, and standing at unequal distances from each other. The glicies is palisaded. The houses are constructed of wood, consisting of triangular pieces, fastened together by tough twigs. They have only one apartment each; but these are said to be adorned with curiously formed earthen vessels. The surrounding country being very dry and hilly, it is but ill-fitted for the cultivation of rice, except in some few parts where the ground is low and marshy. It is, nevertheless, a considerable grazing country; and the cattle, which is very abundant, forms the principal part of their traffic with the Ambinivolies; who, in return, give the Becommons cotton, silk, and a species of flax, called *refia*, from which cloths are manufactured. The inhabitants are described as an industrious race, and very aversions. The women, though generally extremely dirty in their persons, with jet black teeth, are very fond of dress, which they make of rich cottons and silks, decorated with silver chains, and silver and copper trinkets.

ANCE, or ANSE, a town of France, situated on the banks of the Saone, in the Lyonnais. It is now the

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head of a canton in the department of the Rhone, and arrondissement of Ville Franche; about four leagues and a half from the city of Lyons. It has a population of about 1,640 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in the neighbouring quarries, which are deemed very excellent. This town, at one time, had the title of a barony; and is recorded, in ecclesiastical history, as the seat of several provincial councils, particularly in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries.

ANCE, GRAND, a town, bay, and small river, in the island of Martinique. The town is situated between the rivers Capet and Lorrain, on the northern coast of the island. This is also the name of a large bay in the island of San Christobel, and of three others in the island of Guadeloupe.

ANCENIS, a town of France, 12 leagues W. of Anger, and eight N. E. of Nantes, situated on the banks of the Loire, in Brittany. It is the head of an arrondissement, in the department of the Lower Loire. The arrondissement comprises the south-eastern part of the department, and has a population of upwards of 40,000 inhabitants; but the town of Ancenis itself does not contain more than 3,300 persons, who carry on a considerable trade in wood, corn, and wine. This town was formerly a marquise de la Balue de Charost family.

ANCEVILLE, a town of France, in Lorraine. It is the head of a canton, in the modern department of the Meuse, and arrondissement of Bar-le-Duc; four leagues from Bar, and five and a-half from Joinville. It contains a population of about 2,200 inhabitants. There is a village of this name, also in Lorraine, in the department of the Moselle, and arrondissement of Metz, from which town it is distant four leagues.

ANCESTOR, } Ante, before; and *cedo*, ce-
ANCESTRY, } sum, to go.
ANCESTRAL, } One who goes before, or pre-
cedes; in order of time; in order of birth or lineage.

Jesus was born here, and all our first lineage,
We see his children here, we clasp his old heritage,
pat pius pater hanc nos anteceps loci.

H. Bruns, p. 183.

Lake you live no ping for pi file crease,
No pe loud be not here, pat pin ancesse
So wele kept bidens, all noble governance. H. p. 166.
That Let's do lacke, their ancessors good will,
That knights consume, their patrimonie still.

Gauche.

His purpus was for to bestowe hire lie
Into som worthy blood of ancesse.
Chaucer. The Ree's Tale, vol. i. p. 157.

The blood weeps from my tears, when I do shape
(In former language) all vnguided dayes,
And rotten time, that you shall leake upon,
When I am sleeping with my ancessors.

Shakespeare's Henry IV. part II. act IV.

In thy great volume of eternitie;
Begin, O Clo, and recount from hence
My glorious Sovereignes goodly ancesstrye,
Till that by dew degree, and long protestie,
Thou have it fully brought unto her Excellence.

Spencer's Faerie Queene, book III. c. 3.

When we have done our ancessors no shame,
But serv'd our friends, and well secur'd our ease;
Then should we wish our happy life to close,
And leave no more for Fortune to dispose.

Dryden's Palamon & Arcite, book III.

The dulcet critic, who strives at a reputation for delicacy, by thinking he cannot be pleased, may politically assure us that our taste is upon the decline, and consign every modern performance

to oblivion, and bequest nothing to posterity except the labours of our ancessors, or his own.

Gottschick on Poetic Learning.

Our ancessor, a gallant, Christian rove,
Patterns of ev'ry virtue, ev'ry grace;
Cand' w'd a God; they knew'd before they fought,
And prais'd him in the victories he wrought.

Corne's Table Talk.

There is also another ancestor writ, denominated a *superstitious*, to establish an equal division of the land in question, when on the death of an ancestor, who has several heirs, one estate, and one, that others out of possession.

Baron's; Censures.

ANCESTORS. Various rites and monuments of antiquity, conspire to indicate the universal feeling of mankind with regard to their illustrious dead. The people, as Mr. Burke has somewhere said, who look forward to posterity, will always look backward to their ancestors. Amongst the Egyptians, the custom of embalming, and enclosing the body afterwards in wood, when it was lodged in an appointed place in the walls of the principal houses, is mentioned by Herodotus, in the Euterpe; and the primitive Greeks (Plato *Alcibiades*) seem to have followed this custom of preserving their ancestry about them, so far as to bury them generally in places prepared for them in some part of their houses. The Thebans are said to have had an ancient law, that no person should erect a house without including in it a repository for his dead. In the absence of true religion, that which was inaccessible and unfathomable in the destinies of man, quickly generated superstitious awe; and the natural respect for departed parents and ancestors of great worth and fame, became the parent of idolatry, and ever-increasing ceremonies. The sepulchres of illustrious men were regarded as temples and altars to their memory, where sacrifices and libations were sometimes annually and even more frequently offered, while the unconscious objects of their devotion were elevated by successive fables to demons, and ultimately to gods. Plutarch speaks of their regular transition from the rank of heroes to that of demons, and afterwards to the superior ranks of divinity. "According to a divine and just decision, the souls of virtuous men are advanced," says he, (*Fir. Romul.*) "to the rank of demons; and from that of demons, if they are properly purified, they are exalted into gods, and that not by a vote of the people, but by the established order of nature."

It is observed by Philo Byblius, the translator of Sanchoniath's *History of the Gods*, that the Phœnicians and Egyptians, from whom other people derived this custom, reckoned those amongst the greatest gods who had been the benefactors of the human race; and that to them they erected pillars and statues, and dedicated sacred festivals.* We need not, therefore, be surprized to find that, as a part of this system, all the heroes of antiquity, in due time, were not only gods, or demi-gods after death, but of divine ancestry. The Roman lares, lemures and household gods, were of a similar origin; and to detail all the honours and offerings that were made to the memory of their ancestors in the ancient world, would be to enter into the history of a large portion of the Heathen Mythology. Those honours were thought most acceptable which were offered by their nearest friends and relatives; while, imagining all the affections of humanity to follow them into their exalted state, those of an enemy were sup-

* Ensch. Prop. Ex. l. i. c. 12.

ANCT-
TOR.

posed to be rejected with indignation. Thus Sophocles makes Electra (v. 432) to dissuade Clytemnestra from offering Clytemnestra's gifts to Agamemnon.

*ut patet ex his
Olli frat' exspectat ante portam laqueum
Exspectat, ubi laquei spectantur morte.
Share the infernal snares do detect
As heinous, rites paid by an enemy.*

Barbarous nations of ancient and modern times, have also retained distinct traces of a strong attachment to the memory of their ancestors. Some of the African hordes, are said regularly to offer oblations of rice and wine to their honour before they undertake any thing of importance, and to keep with great ceremony the anniversary of their deaths. The Highlanders, to a very recent period, revenged the quarrels of their ancestors, or the least reflection to their dishonour, as their own.

Amongst the Chinese, their veneration for their ancestors constitutes the chief tie of the moral and religious system. In all ages (see the article *CONFUCIUS*, Historical and Biographical Division, vol. ix. p. 496. &c.), this seems to have been a distinguishing feature of their character. Their family burial-places are preserved with the greatest care, and visited, at least annually, to repair any breaches that accident may have made in them, and remove weeds or dirt from about their tombs. Every family of rank has a temple to the memory of its ancestry; and on the sudden elevation of any member of the community to new wealth or station, before he builds a new palace for himself he is directed by the *Lee-ke* to be careful to erect a mausoleum to the honour of his ancestors, at the dedication of which every branch of the family, near and remote, old and young, is invited to be present; and the most aged presides at the oblations. Five or ten thousand persons are said to join, on some occasions, in these rites. The elderly part of a family generally resides with the young; and have great control over their passions and affairs. "The influence of age over youth," says Sir Geo. Staunton, "is supported by the sentiments of nature, by the habit of obedience, by the precepts of morality engrafted in the law of the land, and by the unremitted policy and honest arts of parents to that effect. They who are past labour deal out the rule which they had learned, and the wisdom which experience taught them, to those who are rising to manhood, or to those lately arrived at it. Plain sentences of morals are written up in the common hall, where the male branches of the family assemble. Some one, at least, is capable of reading them to the rest. In almost every house is hung up a table of the ancestors of the persons then residing in it. References are often made, in conversations to their actions. Their example, as far as it was good, serves as an incitement to travel in the same path. The descendants from a common stock, visit the tombs of their forefathers together, at stated times. This joint care, and, indeed, other occasions, collect and unite the most remote relations. The child is bound to labour and to provide for his parents' maintenance and comfort, and the brother for the brothers and sisters that are in extreme want; the failure of which duty would be followed by such detestation, that it is not necessary to enforce it by any positive law. Even the most distant kinsman, reduced to

ANCT-
TOR.
ANCHOE.

misery by accident or ill health, has a claim on his kindred for relief. Manners, stronger far than laws, and indeed inclination, produced and nurtured by intercourse and intimacy, secure assistance for him. These habits and manners fully explain the fact already mentioned, which unhappily appears extraordinary to Europeans, that no spectacles of distress are seen to excite the compassion and implore the casual charity of individuals. The natural sentiments a respect to age, united with affection to kindred, early taking root, and strengthened by a daily sense of services received, often bind the mind more effectually, though with gentler ties, than the force of compulsory laws." *Embassy to China*, 3 vols. 8vo.

The Russians, who in various parts of their dress and manners resemble the ancient Greeks, are also said to have anniversary feasts in honour of their ancestors, which they call *roditioli sabot*. *s. c.* *kinsfolk's sabbath*. On this occasion they visit the graves of the deceased, with presents of eatables, flowers, &c. and aloud renew their lamentations over them.

In English law a distinction is made between the ancestor as a natural ancestor, and a predecessor in an office or dignity. Thus in the church of England, and in bodies corporate, there are no ancestors, but predecessors.

ANCHESMUS, in Ancient Geography, a mountain of Attica, where a statue of Jupiter Anchesmus was placed. Now Mount St. Georges.

ANCHIALE, or ANCHIALA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Cilicia, upon the coast of Asia. It was built, with its neighbouring city Tarsus, by Sardanapalus, the last of the Assyrian kings, who was buried here, and had a statue with an inscription in the Syrian language, relating the extreme intemperance, extravagance, and folly of his life. Athenodorus says, that the founder of this city was Anchiale, the daughter of Japhet. ARISTOTEL. in *de v.* 1022. PLIN. v. c. 27. ATHEN. viii. Also a city of Thrace, called Apollo's city; and another in Epirus. PLIN. iv. c. 11. OVID. *Trist.* i. El. x. v. 36.

ANCHILOPS, or ANCHYLOPS. See *ÆGILOPS*.

ANCHISES, in Fabulous History, was a prince of Troy, son of Capys and Themis, a daughter of Ius, reported to have been of so beautiful a countenance in his youth as to have attracted the attention of Venus, who came down to him on Mount Ida. She became pregnant by him of *Æneas*, the hero of the *Æneid*, but strictly forbade Anchises to disclose the amour, under the penalty of death. This injunction, according to some ancient authors, he violated in a moment of hilarity, and was struck with thunder, as the goddess had predicted; but whether this were the occasion of his death, or only of a decrepitude of his body, is disputed. On the taking of Troy, Anchises was carried by *Æneas* through the flames on his shoulders; and having accompanied his son into Sicily, died there in the 80th year of his age. Pausanias states him to have been buried on a mountain of Arcadia, called after him *Auchisia*, viii. c. 12. VIRO. *Æneid*, i. li. DIONYSIUS, *Hel. de Antiq. Rom.*

ANCHOE, ANCHOA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Boeotia, near the mouth of the Cephissus, where there is a lake of the same name. STRAB.

ANCHOR.

ANCHOR, v. } Ancora, *ancora*, which Voasins
ANCHOR, a. } thinks is from *Oycx*, a crook, or
ANCHORABLE, } hook.
ANCHORAGE, } To hook, or hold fast as a
ANCHORED. } hook; to keep or hold fast, fixed,
firm, steady, safe, secure.

You eyes that wooed were
light loving looks to cast,
I give commitment on his knee
that yet be asked fast. *Tarbellville.*

Right so farth Lear, that sold in one
Holds his more, for right anore
What they in case were best to line
They been with wispest all fordone.

Chaucer. *The Romance of the Rose*, l. 155. c. 4.
All men might well dispraye
My wit and enterprise,—
—If I thought to sail,
Into the brittle port,
Where ankler-hold doth faile,
To such as do resort. *Survey.*

And that littell sea is the roote and gronde of all, and the
eye that never faileth whereof if thou close thou canst not
ere or go out of the way.

The Whole Works of Tyndal, l. 166. c. 1.
Therefore bring forth the soldiers of our price,
For whilst our pinnace anchors in the Downes,
Heere shall they make their trauaile on the sand.
Shakespeare's Henry VI. part I.

Say Warwick was our anchor: what of that?
And Montague our top-mast: what of him?
Our thought's red friends, the tacks: what of these?
Why is not Oxford here, another anchor?
And Somerset another goodly mast?

Shakespeare's Henry VI. part III.
Lee as the bark that hails discharge'd his freight,
Returns with precious lading to the bay,
From whence at first the weigh'd her anchorage:
Commeth Andronicus bound with iuerell bowes,
To resolute his country with his teares.

Shakespeare's Tit. And. act I.
From pole to pole she heares her sighs resound,
And rules an empire by no ocean bound:
Knows her ships anchor'd and her sails stiffen'd
In ether linkes, and a second world.

Prior's Solomon, book I.
Roses from repose, aloft the sailors warms,
And with their levers soon the windlass arns:
The order gives, up springing with a bound,
They fly the air, and leave the windlass sound.
At ev'ry turn the changing pulis resound:
Up-born reluctant from its easy cave
The pond'rous anchor rises o'er the wave.

Falconer's Shipwreck.
I sent Mr. Hicks, my first-lieutenant, before us in the pinnace up
to the city, to acquaint the governor that we put in there to procure
water and refreshments: and to desire the assistance of a pilot to
bring us into proper anchoring-ground. *Cook's Voyages.*

The Indian shore being all the way in view of us, and the sea every
where twenty fathoms land and anchorable.

Sir T. Herbert's Trauels.

ANCHOR, in Navigation, is an instrument of iron,
or other heavy material, usually carried on the bows of
ships, and made use of to secure the vessel in a road-
stead, port, or convenient station, where the depth of
the water does not preclude the possibility of its being
employed.

The use of anchors must be nearly coeval with navigation: a raft or a canoe could scarcely have been
invented before a method of securing it, in some such
ways as this, would become desirable, and the means of
attaining this end are so simple, that they must have
been discovered as soon as they were sought. The
earliest anchors were, doubtless, large stumps, logs of
heavy wood, or any ponderous substance that might
be at hand, secured to the vessel by the rough cordage
of the age: such are still used to fasten small boats,
and amongst many barbarous nations are the only form
of this implement which is yet known. But when
vessels became increased in their magnitude, and more
refined in their construction; when navigation, instead
of merely supplying the momentary wants of a few isolated
and naked savages, had gradually risen into one
of the most beneficial arts of life, every thing connected
with it, rose proportionally in importance. Amongst
the earliest improvements which were the immediate
consequences of the rank navigation had assumed,
must be reckoned the change of form of the anchor,
which from a shapeless mass became a curved
instrument, capable of attaching itself to the bottom of
the sea, and of so depositing itself that any strain,
netting nearly horizontally upon it, would rather tend
to root it deeper, than to detach it from the earth.

Such a change was evidently a great step in the
improvement of this useful implement; the hold which
it afforded in its new form, being in many cases more
than twenty times as great as could have been obtained
from its mere weight. From the evidence of Pausanias,
and of Pliny, and from the word anchor itself, as
signifying crooked, it appears that this improvement
took place at a very early age. Subsequent invention
added a second barb, or crook, to the anchor,
changed the materials of which it was composed from
hard wood and stone, to iron or copper, and gave it
also a transverse beam of wood, which, by being placed
in an opposite direction to the arms, kept them more
vertical in their descent. At present, the shape of
anchors is pretty nearly the same in most parts of the
civilized world, and except in a few instances where
copper is used, iron is the material employed in their
construction.

What is here said, however, of their form, must only
be understood of those commonly employed; many
alterations, both in their shape and construction, having
been proposed, but not generally adopted: except
indeed in the method of fabrication, which as we shall
directly see, has within a very short time undergone
a considerable change. The nature and mode of operation
of a modern anchor, will be readily understood
from fig. I. plate IV. MISCELLANEOUS; where it is evi-
dent, that in the direction the strain is represented as
acting, the anchor cannot be moved without plunging
up the ground in which it is imbedded; an operation
which sometimes takes place, and is technically called
dragging the anchor: when, however, the anchorage is
good, the hold is sufficient to insure the parting of

ANCHOR. the cable, or the rupture of the hurried arm, rather than any dragging of this kind.

In the present advanced state of naval science, many different sorts of anchors are employed, and even those of the same kind have different denominations according to their size, or the service for which they are intended.

Different kinds of anchors.

Those which are used on board of large ships, are all constructed of the same form as that shown in fig. 1; and are distinguished into *sheet*, *best bower*, *small bower*, *spare*, *stream*, and *kedge anchors*, according to their weight: the sheet anchor is, in ships of war, stowed upon the after-part of the fore channel, on the larboard side, with the stock vertical, and one of the flukes resting on the gangway; the bower hangs to the cathead, with the other extremity fixed up to the anchor boards; and the spare anchor is stowed away on the starboard fore channel. Ships of the first class carry seven anchors, and the smallest class, as brigs, cutters, and schooners, three. Stream and kedge anchors are of a smaller kind than those above described; and the latter is generally made with an iron stock, which passes through a hole in the shank, and is secured by a forelock.

In the East Indies, an anchor of a very peculiar kind is employed to secure the vessels, which they denominate *grab*; it is technically called the *mushroom anchor*, from its resemblance to that vegetable (fig. 2, plate IV.); the form of this anchor does away with the necessity of a stock, as it is equally certain of attaching itself to the bottom, whatever be the direction in which it descends.

In Europe, small vessels employ *grapnels*, (fig. 3, plate IV.), which act upon the same principle, and have the same advantages as the anchor last described. It would be endless to enumerate the various alterations of this useful instrument, which have from time to time been proposed, and which have, in most instances, been either only partially employed, or wholly forgotten; we shall, therefore, protect this article only so far as is necessary to mention two improvements which have lately attracted considerable notice.

Mr. Stuard's anchor.

The first of these was invented by Mr. Stuard; it is shown in fig. 3, and is so constructed as to require only one arm, the shortness and weight of which insures the certainty of its hold.

Mr. Kingston's.

The other is an invention of Mr. Kingston, of Portsmouth dock-yard, and materially differs from any kind of anchor hitherto employed; for in the place of fastening the cable to a ring, it is here made to pass through the centre of the shank, and is secured upon the crown by a knot of greater diameter than the tube through which it is brought. This anchor is not composed of iron, but a species of hell-metal: and in order that the cable may not be chafed, the upper extremity of the tube of which the shank is formed, is widened, until it assumes a form similar to that of the mouth of a trumpet.

Mooring anchor.

MOORING ANCHOR. In ports where particular spots have been selected for the reception of ships, fixed anchors are usually laid down to which they may more conveniently be secured; these, though admitting of a great variety of forms, are classed under the general appellation of *moorings*.

The weight of a mooring, or fixed anchor, is evidently not restricted by the considerations which govern

that of a portable one; how ponderous soever the former may be made, it will be easy to find vessels capable of conveying it to its destined station; whilst in the latter, regard must always be had not to encroach upon the properties of the vessel, or the labour of the crew, by giving it undue weight. It is for this reason that moorings are often nothing more than large stones, such as (fig. 5), having an iron ring fastened through their centre; several of these are sometimes secured together by a wooden frame. Large ships' anchors are also often made use of for this purpose, in which case, one of the arms is bent down close upon the shank; or, where it can be obtained, an anchor is selected which has lost one fluke.

In 1809, Mr. Hemman, of Chatham, invented a Mr. Hemman's floating anchor, which obtained a silver medal from the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. (See fig. 6). A second form of this instrument (see fig. 7), is the invention of Mr. Brown, of Woolwich; and a third (see fig. 8), is due to Mr. Park, of Portsmouth. Numerous other alterations might have been noticed, would our limits have allowed our entering any further into this part of the subject; but the above description will be found to include all the variety of moorings which are usually employed.

FLOATING ANCHOR. It often happens, that it is of Floating anchor, the utmost consequence to prevent the driving of a ship under the influence of the wind and tide, when, at the same time, the depth of the sea renders the use of the ground tackle impossible; in such case, the greatest advantage would evidently be derived from a floating anchor, so constructed as to be capable of maintaining its position in the water: but eminently useful as such an instrument would be, there are many reasons to fear it will always remain a desideratum. Many proposals and schemes for anchors of this kind have been laid before the public; but the little notice they have hitherto met with from practical men, is a sufficient proof that nothing of this sort has been discovered that would decidedly prove useful.

The first project for a floating anchor that attracted Dr. Franklin's much attention, was made by Dr. Franklin; it consisted of two cross bars, secured together in the middle, and having sail cloth fastened to them in the shape of a parallelogram; to the centre of these bars the cable was attached, and the machine being thrown overboard, it was presumed that the resistance it met with, would be sufficient to maintain the ship in its station, or, at least, to check the rapidity of its motion.

Without, however, dwelling further upon the description of an instrument whose existence is almost wholly nominal, it will be sufficient to say, that no such machine is ever carried in the royal navy.

METHOD OF MAKING ANCHORS. The fabrication of Present mode of making anchors for the British Navy. anchors, is a subject of considerable importance, and would require for its full elucidation more room than can be devoted to it in a work of this kind: in the following sketch we shall, therefore, confine ourselves to navy.

The description of the improved method which has very recently come into general use in the royal dock-yards, and which is due to Mr. Perring, clerk of the chequero, at Plymouth.

In shape this anchor differs very little from that which has hitherto been used in the navy, excepting that its dimensions are better proportioned to the strain they are likely to receive. It is represented in fig. 9, and

ANCHOR in order to comprehend more distinctly what follows, we have added an enumeration of its several parts. *A* is the *shank*, *B* the *axis*, or *blade*, *C* the *palm*, *D* the *blade*, *E* the *square*, *F* the *nut*, *G* the *ring*, and *H* the *crown*.

To fabricating the shank, it was formerly the practice to form it of square iron rods, disposed to the form of a cylinder, and encircled by other bars, which were wrought into the shape of parts of sectors of circles; from which firmness it followed, that the mass could not be sufficiently welded to unite firmly the interior bars, without, at the same time, spoiling the quality of the exterior iron.

This difficulty was obviated by Mr. Perring, by using bars of the whole breadth of the shank (see fig. a plate IV.), which are placed one upon another; and being kept in their positions by iron hoops, are welded together in two heats, until the whole is one compact body, which, by this arrangement of the bars or plates, is capable of being effected without over working the iron.

The crown is composed of bars similarly disposed to those of which the shank was formed. The method of uniting the flukes to the crown is, perhaps, the most ingenious and useful part of the present improved plan; it is as follows:—The bars being made but half the breadth of the anchor, are first separately welded, and then placed side by side, as in fig. 12, in which position the upper half *A*, is wrought into one mass; the lower part *B* being left disunited, and having iron bars, or *porters* (as they are technically called), *a* welded on to the extremity of each portion of it.

The part *B* is then heated, and placed in the machine represented at fig. 11, which consists of an iron plate, firmly bolted down to a frame of timber, and having upon its surface four iron pegs, or pins, *b b c c*. Between the first of these, the end *A* of the crown is placed, and passed under the strap *c*; the extremity *B* is brought between the pins *c c*, and by means of the porters *a* is bent into the form shown in the figure.

By this method of fabrication, part of the arm is formed out of the crown, and thus affords much greater certainty of their being properly united, than when they were merely joined by a short searph.

The angular opening *a a* (see fig. 10), is filled up by the *chock*, which is formed of short iron bars, placed vertically; after this has been properly welded, the truss piece *c c* is brought over it; this is composed of plates similar to those before mentioned, except that here their edges are horizontal. The truss piece is half the breadth of the arm; therefore, when it is joined to the crown, it makes with the parts *c c*, the whole breadth of the arms at those places.

The shank is now shut on to the crown; the square formed, and the ends welded on to it; the hole punched for the ring, and the shank wrought and finished to the shape shown in fig. 9.

The method of making the blade is very similar to what has been already described; we shall therefore proceed to give an account of the mode of forming the palm.

This is commenced by bending an iron rod into the form *a b c* (fig. 13), notching the bar at *b* and *a*, in order to make it assume the required shape more readily and completely; to the extremity *c* a porter is fastened, by which the palm is carried and turned during

the progress of its manufacture. Iron plates are then **ANCHOR** laid side by side upon the rod *a b c*; the joint at the middle is broken by another plate laid over it; the mass being wrought, the lower side is filled up by similar plates, and the whole is then completely welded, adding, if necessary, pieces at the sides to form the angles of the palm. The blade is then shut on to the palm, and afterwards, the part of the arm which is attached to the blade, is joined to that which is formed with the crown; and the anchor (as far as the smithery is concerned) is then complete.

The nooting or shutting on, as it is termed by the smiths, of the several parts of an anchor, is performed by an instrument called a *wooley*, which is merely a mass of iron raised to a certain height, and let fall upon the work, which is previously brought to a welding heat.

The *monkey*, and the *hercules*, which is no instrument of the same nature, and adapted to the same use as the former, are usually worked by hand; in the magnificent smithery now erecting at Greenwich dock-yard, steam will be the more effective moving power; in this establishment steam will also be used to unite the rods, which we have already mentioned, an operation which will be performed under tilt hammers, weighing five tons each, and having an extreme fall of sixteen inches.

We have before observed, that the above is the mode of manufacturing anchors now adopted in the royal yards; it may not, however, be amiss to mention, that besides the method of fabrication formerly used, numerous plans and improvements have been from time to time proposed; amongst the principal of these is the scheme of Mr. Brunton, which consists of forging an anchor Mr. Brunton's plan. without welding the arms to the shank; and thereby avoiding the danger of a bad joint. This is effected by making the arms in one piece, enlarging them at the crown, and piercing the part thus enlarged with a hole the size of the shank, the latter part of the anchor (the shank) is made with a shoulder at the extremity near the crown, in such a way, that when the lower part is brought through the above-mentioned aperture, the arms bear upon the shoulders. From this construction it is evident, that to unite firmly the arms and the shank, it is merely necessary to form the extremity of the latter sufficiently long to enable the smiths to rivet it on the lower end of the crown. How far this anchor answers the end intended, we believe has not been extensively tried; we may observe, however, that those who are acquainted with the astonishing power which rust exerts when formed within a joint or a flaw, will not consider the shoulder as quite safe from its influence.

ANCHOR STOCKS.—The stocks of anchors are usually **Anchor stocks** formed of two large cheeks of oak, which are tapered gradually from the middle to the extremities. (See table of dimensions.) They are stayed close at the ends, but gradually open as they approach the middle. A hole is cut through them for the square, and a mortice made in it to receive the nut. For large anchors, the side cheeks are usually made in two pieces, tree-nailed together. (See figs. 14 and 15.)

When in their place they are secured by four bolts, and four or six iron hoops; the bolts are clinched alternately, and the hoops are driven equally on each side. The length of the stock is regulated by that of the shank, which it generally equals.

ANCHOR. In Mr. Stuard's anchor, and in all anchors under a certain size, the stocks are of iron: the nature of the former is sufficiently shown in the figure, and the latter have been already described.

Management of the anchor.
Casting.

As *to a, dropping the*, or as it is usually termed in the navy, *casting anchor*, is the operation of letting fall the anchor attached to the cable, from the side of the ship into the sea. We have already described the way in which the anchor lies on the ship's bows; it is secured there by the stock-lashing, anchor-stopper, and shank-painter, whose particular offices will be afterwards mentioned. When a ship is about to cast anchor, the cable is arranged along the deck in long-coils, called in the sea phraseology, a *French fluke*; one end of it is secured to the bits, and the other to the ring of the anchor. Every thing being prepared, the stock-lashing is cast off, and the men stand ready to let go; this being communicated to the officer of the watch, he gives the command, *let go the anchor*, the fastenings are then cast off, and the anchor falls into the sea, the cable running off after it with such velocity, that it is often necessary to throw water in the hawse-holes to prevent their taking fire.

RIDING AT ANCHOR, the state of the ship secured in any particular station by the anchor. When a ship is anchored, attention should be paid to see that she has sufficient room to allow her swinging clear of other vessels; and when more than one cable is out, it is requisite to observe that the ship does not get a foul hawse.

Weighing anchor.

ANCHOR, *weighing the*, is the operation of heaving up the anchor from the bottom of the sea into the vessel. In small craft this is performed by attaching the cable itself to a windlass, and coiling it off as it hove up; but in large vessels the cable is too bulky to be brought round a windlass or a capstern; it is therefore acted upon by a rope of a smaller kind, which is called the *messenger*, and the operation is as follows: one end of the messenger is passed with several turns round the capstern; the other is then taken forward, and after being passed round the rollers in the fore part of the ship, is again brought aft, and secured to the part at the capstern, the two ends being formed with eyes for that

purpose; the messenger is thus made into an endless rope, which, by the heaving of the capstern, will be made to revolve round the rollers placed in the manger. In order, therefore, to communicate the efforts of the men at the capstern to the cable, nothing more is necessary than to form a connection between the latter and the messenger, shifting it as the cable enters; for it is evident, that if this connection, of whatever kind it may be, between the messenger and cable is allowed to move with the latter, it will soon arrive at the capstern and stop the operation.

The way in which such a moveable fastening as is here described is supplied on board of ship, is by short ropes called *nippers*, which are interwoven between the cable and messenger, so that when the capstern is acted on, the nippers jamb, and force the cable to follow the motion of the messenger. When any of the nippers come near the main hatchway, they are cast off, and carried forward, where being secured, they act as before. The cable thus brought into the ship, is carried down the hatchway, and as it enters is coiled up in the cable tier. Large ships are supplied with a *jeer*, as well as a main capstern; and in case of this being used, its operations would be communicated by the *viol*, which acts much in the same way as the messenger, excepting that before being brought forward, it is passed through the *viol-block*, which is lashed round the main-mast: the *viol* also differs from the messenger in acting on the midship side of the cable. It may, however, be observed, that the *jeer* capstern is not often used.

When the anchor is brought above water, a tackle is got upon the shank, just within the flukes, and the arms are hove up so as to lie upon the gusset and anchor-boards; the stock is then made vertical, by heaving upon it with a tackle, in which position it is secured by the stock-lashing. The ring is fastened to the cathead by the stopper, one end of which is fastened round the cathead, and the other is brought through the ring, then over the stopper cleat, and is belayed round a timber head. To secure the shank at the arms, a chain, called the shank painter chain, is passed round it, and fastened to a timber head.

ANCHOR.

ANCHOR.

A TABLE of the weights and dimensions of Anchors.

Weights.	SHANK.								SQUARE.				RING.			
	SIZES.								SIZES.							
	Length.		Throat.		Tread.		Stalk.		Length.		Breadth at the nut.		Hole from end.		Extreme Diameter.	
	ft. in.	R. in.	F. in.	R. in.	F. in.	R. in.	F. in.	R. in.	ft. in.	R. in.	F. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	D. in.	d. in.	ft. in.
cwt. qrs. lbs.																
94 0 0	19 3	12½	9½	11½	9½	9½	7½		3 7½	9½	7½	6		3 2	2 10	4½
90 3 0	18 5	11½	10½	11½	10	9½	7½		3 6	10	8½	8		3 2	2 10	4½
73 3 0	17 0	11½	8½	11½	8½	8½	6½		3 1	8½	7½	7		2 10½	2 8½	4½
49 2 0	15 7	9½	8½	8½	6½	7½	5½		2 0	7½	6	5		2 7	2 3½	3½
28 2 0	14 1	8½	6½	8½	5½	6½	4½		2 6	6½	5	4½		2 0	1 10	3½
8 0 0	8 7½	5½	3½	5½	3½	4½	3		2 1	4½	3	4		1 4½		2½
7 2 0	8 6½	5½	3½	5½	3½	4½	3		2 0	4½	2½	4		1 4½		2½
2 1 12	6 0	3½	2½	4	2½	2½	2		1 4	3½	2½	2½		10½		1½

TABLE—continued.

ARMS.					PATENT.					Dimensions at intervals of 2 feet from the crown.															
SIZES.																									
Length.		Front.		Small.	Length.		Breadth.		Mid- dle.	Edge.	2		4		6		8		10		12		14		
ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.	ft.	in.
6	4 1/2	13 1/2	9 1/2	10 1/2	8 1/2	3	3 1/2	3	2	3 1/2	2 1/2	12	9 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	10 1/2	8 1/2	10 1/2	8	9 1/2	7 1/2
6	2 1/2	13	9 1/2	10 1/2	8 1/2	3	2	3	0 1/2	3 1/2	2	11 1/2	10 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	11 1/2	9 1/2	10 1/2	8 1/2	10	8 1/2	9	7 1/2
6	0	11 1/2	8 1/2	9 1/2	7 1/2	3	0 1/2	3	0 1/2	2 1/2	1 1/2	11 1/2	9	11 1/2	8 1/2	11 1/2	8 1/2	10 1/2	8 1/2	9 1/2	7 1/2	9 1/2	7 1/2	8 1/2	6 1/2
5	0	10 1/2	7 1/2	8 1/2	6 1/2	2	7	2	7	2 1/2	1 1/2	7 1/2	6	9 1/2	7 1/2	8 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	6 1/2	7 1/2	6	7 1/2	5 1/2		
4	4	9	6 1/2	7	5 1/2	2	0	2	0	2 1/2	1 1/2	7 1/2	6	8	5 1/2	7 1/2	5 1/2	7 1/2	5 1/2	6 1/2	4 1/2				
3	0	5 1/2	3 1/2	4 1/2	3 1/2	1	6	1	5	1 1/2	1	5 1/2	3 1/2	5 1/2	3 1/2	4 1/2	3								
3	0	5 1/2	3 1/2	4 1/2	3 1/2	1	6	1	5	1 1/2	1	5 1/2	3 1/2	5 1/2	3 1/2	4 1/2	3								
2	0	4 1/2	2 1/2	3 1/2	2 1/2	0	11 1/2	0	11	7 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/2	2 1/2	3	2										

In the above table, R and F are made to denote the round and the flat of the anchor: the dimensions arranged under the first, being taken in the direction of

the greatest diameter, and those under the latter in the direction of the less.

In the same manner, D and d denote the diameters of the ring, which is not circular, but elliptical.

ANCHOR.

ANCHY-
LOSIS.

TABLE of the prices of workmanship of Anchors.

Weights.	Prices per cwt.			Weights.	Prices per cwt.			Weights.	Prices per cwt.		
	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
90 cwt. and upwards.	2	8	0	Under 65 to 60 cwt.	1	17	6	Under 35 to 30 cwt.	1	8	9
Under 90 to 85 cwt.	2	6	5	Under 60 to 55 cwt.	1	16	10	Under 30 to 20 cwt.	1	7	2
Under 85 to 80 cwt.	2	4	10	Under 55 to 50 cwt.	1	15	2	Under 20 to 10 cwt.	1	5	8
Under 80 to 75 cwt.	2	3	3	Under 50 to 45 cwt.	1	13	8	All under 10 cwt.	1	4	0
Under 75 to 70 cwt.	2	1	8	Under 45 to 40 cwt.	1	12	0				
Under 70 to 66 cwt.	2	0	0	Under 40 to 35 cwt.	1	10	4				

TABLE of the dimensions of Anchor-stocks.

	90 cwt.		70 cwt.		50 cwt.		35 cwt.		20 cwt.		7 cwt.	
	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>	<i>ft.</i>	<i>in.</i>
Diameter at the middle	1	11	1	8	1	4½	1	0½	0	10	0	8½
Ditto at the ends	0	11½	0	10	0	8½	0	6½	0	5	0	4½
Opening between the checks in the middle	0	1½	0	1½	0	1	0	1	0	0½	0	0½
Diameter of the bolts	0	1½	0	1½	0	1	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½
Hoops thick	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½	0	0½
Ditto broad	0	3½	0	3½	0	3	0	2½	0	2½	0	2

ANCHOR, in Heraldry, the emblematical representation of Hope.

ANCHOR, in Architecture, a common ornament upon the oval of the capital, in the Ionic and Tuscan orders; and in the bed-moulding of the Ionic and Corinthian entablatures. Representations of eggs are generally intermingled with them.

ANCHOR, in Commerce. See ANKER.

ANCHOR ISLAND, an island of New Zealand, near the northern entrance of Dusky bay. There is a harbour on the north coast, and a sunken rock at the west entrance. This island lies in E. lon. 166°, 16', and N. lat 45°, 46'.

ANCHORA, in Entomology, a species of Cimer, a native of Japan.

ANCHORA, in Ancient Geography, an island of Peloponnesus, formerly called Fanaronini, and sometimes Asine. It was near the gulf of Cron, or Modon. STRABO. Ptolemy.

ANCHORAGE, ANCHORAGIUM, in Law, a duty taken of ships, for the use of the haven where they cast anchor. The ground in havens, or ports appertaining to the king, no ship can cast anchor therein without paying a stated acknowledgment to the king's officers.

ANCHORET. See ANACHORET.

ANCHOVY, in Ichthyology, the Clupea Encrasiolus of Linnaeus, a fish caught in the Mediterranean during the summer months, which, when salted, forms an article of some importance in commerce.

ANCHUSA, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Monogynia. From the root of this plant a beautiful red colour is prepared.

ANCHYLOSIS, from *anchylosis*, to bind, in Anatomy, a stiffness or immobility of the joints.

ANCIENT, *a.*

ANCIENT, *adj.*

ANCIENT, *adv.*

ANCIENTLY,

ANCIENTLY,

ANCIENTLY,

ANCIENTLY,

ANCIENTLY,

ANCIENTLY.

long past.

For sage wisdom take and for the use of thyngers, and also for restraining the wantonness of youth, antient should be considered with the associates.

Udal. 1. Post to Tumbler, ch. v.

The ancient worthy cleve doane is fill,

That many arie held lie senecry,

Stuck in vintres here and there they ly

Tell combs deale of many vintres wile,

Down down in house, fey they fell at night,

In sanctuaris and troups of Goddies eik,

Na quare succore nor sacry they wilk.

Douglas, book ii. p. 51

The Cite faith, that ancient, long, and many a yeere the Crowne

Hish borne, and every steele is strenght with bodies braten doine,

And leages in every house thes lyeth, and Tumbler all are filld

With bodies deui.

Accented by Tim. Phae. 1d.

An ancient and imperial City falls,

The Streets are fill'd with frequent Fountains:

Houses and Holy Temples float in Blood,

And hostile Nations make a common Flood. Dryden. 1d.

Of noble acts unwearied comrade,

Of famous prince and valiant of estate,

By thy report or want to be child,

Regrettings freely every breast date.

Percy's Reliques, vol. i. p. 97.

Honorable audience, all that here be present, eyther brethren, by trade of our country, religion, eyther els by reason of amicitias and authoritie, fathers, graue care to me in my defence innocencie, as ye have done to myne accounts paciently.

Udal. 2. Actes of Apollis, ch. vii.

And thus shall the x. Kings shortly hate y^e whom with her court, & shal name her naked out of the flourishing & bewtiful mynnet

ANCHOR.

ANCHY-
LOSIS.

AN-
CIEN-
T.

wherwith they & their ancestors have parished & unknowned
this where & her barlets.

Udal, on Recollections of St. John, ch. xvii.

This well considered with the authority of the writer, both an
excellent Prince, and also a great learned man, and was himself in
this tale, it is not to be doubted but that he most diligently searched
for the true knowledge of the antient custom.

Crofton, vol. i. p. 27.

This also of wresting of Scripture in the eye of some of the antients,
seemed so ugly, that they have ranged it in the same rank with the
as against the Holy Ghost.

Hul's Golden Remains.

As for nobility in particular persons, it is a reversed thing to see an
ancient exotic of building not in decay, or to see a fair timber tree
sound and perfect.

Beren's Essay on Nobility.

It is antiently reported of the Lancelotti, that out of superstition,
they used to prelate a man from a high cliff into the sea; first
tying about him some large fowls; and fixing to his body various
feathers, expanded, to break the fall.

Id. Sylva Sylvarum.

William Bishop of Winchester waded Paris to wear Wayneheat,
though he was eldest son to Richard Paultin, an esquire of great
ancientry.

Fulter's General Worthies.

But seven wise men the ancient world did know,

We scarce know seven who think themselves so.

Draught's Progress of Learning.

Had ancient times conspired to disallow

What then was new, what had been ancient now?

Or what remain'd, so worthily to be read

By leas'd critics, of the mighty dead.

Pope's Ess. of Criticism.

He [Diodorus Siculus] insists on the usage antiently in practice
among the Persian kings, of naming their successors before they went
to any dangerous war, and will have it, that when Xerxes again re-
newed the war against the Greeks, after the death of Pausanias, he
then named Artabanus.

Plutarch's Connections.

If modern learning be compared with antient, a parallel between
both, which has hitherto produced only vain dispute, may contribute
to amusement, perhaps to instruction.

Goldsmith, on Polite Learning.

The rest of the bishops follow him, in their due precedence, ac-
cording to dignity and antientry of their respective sees.

Jura Cleri.

ANCIENT, corrupted from *ensigna*; Skinner. Ancient,
in war, Ensigne-bearer; Junius. Lat. Insigne. It
insigna. Fr. Enseigne. *Ensign*. It is applied both to
the sign or ensign, and to the bearer of it: also, more
antiently, to the bearer of the military (*insignia*) de-
corations, or distinguishing ornaments of his com-
mander.

ORAX. So please your grace, my ancient,

A man he is of honesty and trust;

To his countenance I assigne my wife,

With what else needfull, your good grace shall think

To be sent after me.

Shakespeare's Othello, act I.

In the same season, they which were besieged [in Calais] made
known their state to the French king by letters and tokens, for at
his first coming, they within the tower set up his ancient on the
chiefest tower of the castle, and also they set out banners of the
dukes and earles of Flanders.

Steen's Chas. Houe's Ed. 1614.

[Edward the black prince] commanded his ancient bearer Sir
Walter Woodluff, to march forward toward his enemies, and with a
few fresh men he joined battell with the great army of the French
king.

ANCIENT DEMESNE, or DOMAIN; *Vetus patrimonium*
Domini, in Law, is a tenure by which all the
manors belonging to the crown were held, in the reigns
of St. Edward and William the Conqueror. After a
regular survey, the names and numbers of all manors
were entered in the Doomsday-book; and those which
appear to have belonged to the crown at that time,
and continued under the title of terra regis, are called
ancient demesne.

Lands which were possessed by Edward the Confes-
sor, XVII.

AN-
CIEN-
T.
ANCILE.

son, or disposed of by him, and not entered in the
Doomsday-book, are not ancient demesne, nor any
other but those here entered. If a question, therefore,
arise, whether lands be a parcel of a manor which is
ancient demesne, this fact must go to a jury to decide.
According to Fitzherbert, tenants in ancient demesne
held their tenures for ploughing the king's land, and
other work for the maintenance of the king's freehold,
on which account they had peculiar liberties. Tenants
holding by charter, cannot be impleaded out of their
manor; for, if they are, they may abate the writ by
pleading their tenure; they are free from toll for all
that they buy or sell, concerning their husbandry or
substance; and may not be empenned upon an in-
quest; if they are returned, they may have a writ de
non ponendis in assizes, &c. and attachment against
the sheriff; if disturbed by taking duties of toll, or
distrained for unaccustomed services, &c. they may
have writs of monstraverunt, to be discharged. A fine
in the king's courts will change ancient demesne to
frank-fee at common law, so if the lord encloses another
of tenancy, or the land comes to the king, &c. 4 Inst.
270. *State, 9 H. IV. c. 5. 8 H. VI. c. 26.* But if the
lord be not a party, he may avoid the fine or recovery
by a writ of disceit; for formerly the jurisdiction of
Westminster did not extend to lands in ancient de-
mesne, and one of the privileges of the tenants is not
being liable to be called from the plough for any fo-
reign service.

ANCIENTRY, in Law, eldership or seniority. The
word occurs in the Stat. of Ireland, 14 Hen. III.

ANCIENTS, in English Law, a degree among ge-
nlemen of the ins of court. In the Middle Temple,
the ancients are those who have gone through or are
past their readings; in Gray's Inn, which consists of
benchers, ancients, barristers, and students under the
bar, the ancients are the oldest barristers; the ins of
chancery are comprised of ancients, and students, or
clerks; and their principal, or treasurer, is annually
elected from the ancients.

ANCILE, or ANVILE, in Antiquity, a sacred
shield, said to be that of the god Mars, which, ac-
cording to the Roman authors, fell from heaven during a
plague, in the reign of Numa. Ovid thus accounts for
the name:

*Illic anvile vocat quod ab eundem parte recessum est
Quoniam inter ocellis angulus omnis abest.*

Festus, l. vii. c. 377.

The prosperity of the commonwealth was supposed to
depend upon the security of this shield, and eleven were
made exactly after its model by the order of Numa,
that in case any attempt should be made to steal it, the
thief might be unable to distinguish the original. The
twelve shields were deposited in the temple of Vesta,
and an order of priests equal to their number appointed
to the care of them. These priests were called salii,
and on the 1st of March bore their charge round the
walls, dancing, and singing hymns in praise of the god.
During this festival, which lasted three days, all busi-
ness was suspended, and it was held presumptuous to
marry or undertake any thing of importance. The
Emperor Otho commenced his expedition against Vitell-
lus, during the celebration of the Ancylorum festum,
which Tacitus alleges as a reason for the misfortune
of that campaign. TACIT. l. VAL. MAX. i. c. l. PLUT.
in NUM. DIONYS. II. II.

ANCIL-
LARY.
ANCONA.

ANCILLARY, Lat. *Ancilla*, a maid servant, or hand-maid. Of unsettled etymology. See VOSSIIUS.

Attending upon, in subservience to: aiding, assisting.

O treasurer of bounty to mankind,
The whom God chose to render for humbleness,
From his ancille he made three ministers
Of Heaven and Earth. Chaucer. A. D. C.

For, as it is beneath the dignity of the king's courts to be ancillary to other inferior jurisdictions, the cause, when once brought there, receives there also its full determination.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ANCISTRUM, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Diandria, and order Monogynia.

ANCLAM, formerly Tanklim, or Tanglim, a brisk maritime town of Upper Saxony, on the river Peene, in Hither Pomerania, eight leagues S. W. of Gripswald, and 14 N. W. of Stetin. It is dependant on the duchy of Stetin, and is environed on one side by high walls and deep moats, and on the other by extensive swamps and meadow ground. The town was built in the year 1188, very near to the place where the castle of Groszwin stood, which was destroyed by the Danes; and is the capital of a territory which extends over a space of 12 miles in length, containing two farms, and 17 villages. Its usual exports consist of wood, corn, and glass ware, and its home manufacture of silken stuffs and soap.

ANCLIFFE, a hamlet, in the county of Lancaster, about two miles from Wigan, remarkable for a well, the water of which, though perfectly cold and tasteless, is capable of being ignited by the flame of a candle, and burns like ardent spirits, with a considerable heat.

ANCLOTE POINT, a point of land on the peninsula of California, and coast of the North Pacific ocean, in W. lon. 115°, 11', and N. lat. 29°, 17'.

ANCOBER, or ANCONRA, a river of Africa, on the Gold coast, running from N. to S., and dividing Ahan-tar from Apollonia. Unless when the sea is unusually calm, the mouth of this river is so much obstructed by rocks, that even small canoes cannot enter it. It formerly gave name to a neighbouring hamlet and district.

ANCOCUS CREEK, a river of North America, in the state of New Jersey, which falls into the river Delaware, about six miles from Burlington. It is navigable upwards of 16 miles.

ANCON, a gulf, on the coast of South America, in the kingdom of Quito and province of Esmeraldas, in W. lon. 78°, 50', and N. lat. 1°, 25'. On account of its open situation, the currents are very rapid, and often dangerous. There is a cape of this name in the Pacific ocean, on the north point of the island of Chiloe. W. lon. 80°, and S. lat. 42°.

ANCON, in Architecture, a term used to denote the quoins, or corners of walls, rafters, or cross-beams. Vitruvius uses it for a sort of mensula or table placed before doors, bent in the form of the letter S, in which sense it is similar to the Greek *σποδωρίς*, *prothyrides*; it also means shoulder-pieces or brackets, now called corbels and consoles. The term ancon is sometimes applied to the flexures or angles of rivers, and to the tops of mountains. Among the Carthaginians we find a dæmon called by this name.

ANCONA, LA MARCA D', an extensive province of Italy, forming part of the papal territories, between

the Appennines and the Adriatic sea, bounded on the S. ANCONA by the Marca di Fermo, and on the N. by the duchy of Urbino. This province, with those of Marca di Fermo, Urbino, and Fano, constitutes the papal province of la Marca. The residence of the vice-legate and elancery is at Macerata. The face of the country, though greatly diversified, and intersected by many lofty mountains, covered with thick forests, is, nevertheless, fertile in corn, wine, and fruit. There are abundant streams of water traversing this province, which includes, beside the city of Ancona, the towns of Camerino, Arcoli, Fermo Jesi, Loreto, Macerata, Mont Alto, and Osimo.

ANCONA (*anconra*, a curve), a maritime city of Italy, 116 miles from Rome, the capital of a province or marquisate of the same name. It stands on a point of land that bends into the gulf of Venice, and forms a fine natural harbour; a circumstance from which its name is derived. It is supposed to have been first founded by colonists from Syracuse, a. c. 408, during the reign of Dionysius, and fell to the power of Rome on the conquest of the Picentines by Sempromius, a. c. 267. The harbour was greatly improved by the Emperor Trajan, to whom the oldest mole now standing is ascribed, and whose favours to the town were commemorated by a triumphal arch, in good preservation until the period of the French revolution. Ancon successfully resisted the Goths under Totila, a. d. 551; but was united to the kingdom of Lombardy by Ariulf, at the close of the century. It was taken and plundered by the Saracens in 839; and remained in decay during the civil wars of Italy and the long and splendid career of the republic of Venice. In 1732, the papal government seems first to have become sensible of its advantages as a port, and Clement XII. having abolished all the considerable imposts formerly levied here, declared it free to all nations and religions. The civil rights of the town were in like manner thrown open. His successor, Benedict XIV. following the same line of policy with regard to this place, improved and strengthened the old works of the harbour, and sheltered it from the north winds. An immense influx of enterprising foreigners, particularly Jews, took place in consequence, and Ancona rapidly became one of the most important cities of modern Italy. Monuments to these pontiffs were also standing to a recent period.

The town, which has a very imposing appearance from the sea, is situated between two hills, one of which is surmounted by an ancient fortress of some strength, and the other by the cathedral. The former was constructed, as a matter of friendship, by the papal see, for the protection of Ancona against the corsairs, in the 16th century, but soon became the means of its subjugation to the power of the pontiffs. The exchange is a handsome edifice; over the entrance is an equestrian statue of superior workmanship, and within a noble apartment, containing some fine statues of Faith, Hope, Charity, and Religion. The commerce of Ancona, which is greatly conducted by Jews, consists principally in commission and agency business. The northern European nations import, however, considerable quantities of goods to this place, and receive in return the productions of the south of Germany, Hungary, Italy, Bosnia, and Turkey. Lead, tin, herrings, and camblets arrive from Great Britain; from Holland and its dependencies, cocoa, sugar, coffee, spices, and raw materials of

ANCONA. various descriptions; from Rome, leather; and from Sweden, tar; the returns are principally iron from the mines of Germany, and Turkey cotton. The exports from the neighbourhood are wool, silk, sail-cloth, skins, grain, alum, soap, sulphur, and ship biscuits.

ANCOVE.

Ancona is so completely commercial, and the boast of heraldry so cheap in its vicinity, that it is no unusual circumstance to see noblemen of the highest rank among the merchants and tradesmen of the place. The native manufactures are not very numerous; there is, however, a sugar refinery, a manufactory of white paint and lead, and some considerable soap-works.

This city experienced numerous vicissitudes during the late wars in Italy, occasioned by the French revolution. It was taken in February 1797, by General Victor, after the battle of Impla; but was stipulated to be restored to the pope by the treaty of peace which took place between France and Italy on the 19th of the same month. Little more than two years after this it was blockaded from the sea by a combined Russian and Turkish squadron, and by land by a Russian corps. A regular siege of the place commenced on the 1st of November, when the allies were joined by an Austrian force of 7,000 men, under the command of General Frolich. The siege lasted till the 13th of the same month, when the French general, Menier, who defended the town, surrendered by capitulation. It was again restored to the French, in 1801, and by them, the following year, agreeably to the treaty of 1797, delivered to the pope. Population 20,400.

ANCONA, a river of Southern Abyssinia, which empties its waters into the river Hannau.

ANCONIUS, or **ANCONIUS** (αγκωνίς), in Anatomy, a triangular muscle of the elbow, which aids in the extension of the fore arm. All the extensor muscles were at one time called *anconi*.

ANCONY, see **IAON**, Manufactory of.

ANCOVE, a district in the island of Madagascar, remarkable for the extent to which the slave trade is pursued by the inhabitants, who employ all sorts of tricks and stratagems to entrap their countrymen. Their rapacity, indeed, is carried to such a length in this nefarious traffic, that children will not unfrequently barter for their parents, and parents sell their own children. Travellers cannot go through this district with any sort of safety; nor shepherds attend their flocks, for these voracious dealers in men; and when by no other means slaves can be procured, whole villages are surprised in the night, and every inhabitant carried off and sold. The country is divided between two chiefs, who are constantly at war with each other, for the sole purpose of taking prisoners, whom they uniformly sell. There is a race of people to the south of this district, called the *Andranatsa*, who are also frequently attacked by the natives of Ancove; and many slaves are thus procured.

The inhabitants of this district are called *Hovas*, or *Ambohimbas*. Their principal town is Tanane Arrivon, i. e. "Thousands of Villages." It is an irregular disjointed place, containing, it is supposed, generally, about 25,000 inhabitants; but the perpetual ravages of the slave trade have always greatly kept under its population. Ancove is situated near the centre of the island, a little east of the great range of mountains. The soil is extremely barren; the country, however, yields silk-worms, and the natives cultivate some cot-

ton, and have a manufactory of iron, which they sell into various kinds of trifling articles. They are said also to have a method of making gunpowder without sulphur.

ANCREE, or **ALBERT,** a town of France, in Picardy, five leagues from Amiens, on the road from that city to Beaussart. It is situated on the banks of a river of the same name. It is now the head of a canton, in the modern department of the Somme, *arrondissement* of Peronne. It has the title of a marquisate, which it acquired by Concino Concini, created Marshal D'Ancre, who was murdered in the year 1617. It is now but a small place, having a population of only 1,940 inhabitants, who carry on some business in the pressing of calico and carpets, the bleaching of linen, and the manufacture of salt-petre.

ANCRUM, or **ALY CROM,** i. e. the Bend of the river Ala, is a village in the district of Jedburgh, and shire of Roxburgh, Scotland, noticed in history as giving name to the famous battle of Ancrum-moor, which was fought between the English and Scotch, in the year 1544. This village is situated on the river Teviot, and the remains of the Roman road, which led from York to the Frith of Forth, are still visible in the vicinity. There is also a Roman camp on the declivity of a hill eastward of the town. The high road to Edinburgh, which runs over a ridge, in the parish of Ancrum, is denominated Liliard's Edge, from the romantic circumstance of a lady of that name having signalled herself in repulsing the English during an invasion in the regency of the earl of Arran. She fell covered with wounds on this spot. Here is also a fragment of antiquity, known by the name of the Maltan Walls, which was originally in the possession of the knights of Malta, or knights hospitallers of St. John of Jerusalem, and given them as a remuneration for their military achievements in the crusades. In the adjacent ground, vaults and subterraneous arches have been discovered; and underneath the ground on which the building was erected, human bones are occasionally dug up. Below the house of Ancrum are the remains of fifteen caves or recesses, which are conjectured to have been places of concealment, or habitations for the poor orders of society. The vestiges of chimnies and fire-places, and outlets for the egress of the smoke from the back part of the caves to the outside of the bank, are, to this day, clearly discernible. The barony of Ancrum was originally included in the regality of Glasgow, and gives the title of earl to the marquis of Lothian.

ANCY-LE-FRANC, a town of Champagne, in France, 10 leagues from Auxerre, and formerly belonging to the celebrated Clermont-Tonnerre, who resided in the castle, which is environed with extensive gardens. This place is the head of a canton, department of the Yonne, *arrondissement* of Tonnerre. Population, about 1,240.

ANCYLOBLEPHARON, in Surgery (from *αγκυλος*, a hook, and *βλεφαρον*, the eye-lid), an unnatural adhesion either between the two eye-lids or between the eye-lids and the conjunctive membrane of the eyeball.

ANCYLOGLOSSUM, in Surgery (from *αγκυλος*, and *γλωσσον*, the tongue), a peculiar kind of disease, in which the frenulum of the tongue forms unnatural adhesions with the circumjacent parts.

ANCYLOSIS, or **ANCYLOSIS.** See **ANCYLOSIS.**

ANCYRA, **ANCIRES,** in Ancient Geography, a city

ANCOVE.

ANCYRA.

ANCYRA
—ANDA—

of Galatia, in Asia Minor, belonging to the Tectosagi, near the river Halys and lake Cænasis. It is now called Angour by the Turks. Pansanian states, that it derived its name from an anchor which was found there, and preserved in the temple of Jupiter. Augustus added considerably to the beauty of this city, which became the metropolis of Galatia during the reign of Nero. Suidas denominates the inhabitants, who are still numerous, Hellenogalatae, or Graeco Galli. Also a town of Phrygia, mentioned as Ancyra Abasitidis, by Pliny, and another in Sicily. PAUS. i. PLIN. v. c. 32.

AND, the imperative An-ad of the verb, Anan-ad, dare congeriem! Tooke, v. i. p. 135.

A singular combination certainly, and not supported by any authority. It appears to be given as a conjecture, for want of something better. *An* is used by R. Gloucester, and other writers, exactly as they use *And*. *And* is also not infrequently used as *An*: If, Gif, Give. They may be the same word, merely the imperative *An*. The addition of the *d* must remain unaccounted for.

He some wif hym of Engeland god knygst receyven,
An myd gret poer & muche sole pwardward reide anon.
So put he some come bysyde hys folowen,
An byleude hym her al myt, & al hyt out al so,
An poyte anon answere strong laude to.

R. Gloucester, p. 319.

pis king Knele was twenty gret kyng of Engeland,
An in a possesed gret of grace & pryncy, ych vnderstande,
An asse he deyde at Suthbery, & at Wycheatre myd gret prate
At Seyn Swyljones he was yboure, pere as he tyt got.

Id. p. 324.

Me reweh sure I am unto hie teryd;
For and I shoulde reweh every ryde,
Which that she hath, ywis I wote to nice.
Chaucer. *The Spicers Prelogue*, v. l. p. 418.

O swete and wel beloved spouse dere,
Ther is a counsell, and ye wol it bere,
Which that right fayn I wold wote you saie,
So that ye sweete, ye wot it not bewraie.

Id. *The Second Noctule Tale*, v. ii. p. 207.

What, quod the protectour then serest me I wene w' liffes &
with andes, I tel the thiur how so done, & that I will make good on
thy body traitour.

The Works of Sir Thomas More, fol. 54. c. 2.

Maister Masker gooth as wylly to worke to take me, as a man
myghte send a child about with salt in his hand, and bidde him goe
catch a byrde, by laying a litle salt on her taylor, and when the
byrde is bound, comfort hym then to goe catche another, and tell
hym he hadde caughte that and it had tarried a litle.

Id. fo. 1108. c. 2.

Cry. Bow your knees:

Anise my Knights o' th' Battle, I create you
Companions to our person, as will fit you
With dignities becoming your estates.

Shakespeare's *Cymbeline*, act v.

Bow. And I were so apt to quarrell as thou art, my man should
buy the free-simple of my life, for an hour and a quarter.

Id. *Romeo and Juliet*.

And, in the beginning of a sentence, serveth instead of an en-
mination: And, what a notable sign of putience was it in Job, not
to murmur against the Lord!

Ben Jonson's *English Grammar*.

—Secundly, Sir Laureolat,
Sir Iowise Laureolat, ye have suffer'd him,
Against my power first, then against my precept,
To keep this simp'ring sort of people company,
That soker men call cowls: mark ye that, Sir!

Lev. And I please your worship.

See. It does not please my worship.

Bow. and Fitch. *Mist. Thomas*, act ii. sc. 2.

ANDA, in Botany, a tree found in the forests of

Brazil; from the kernels of its fruit the natives extract a purgative medicine, and an oil, which they use for anointing themselves.

ANDABATÆ, in Antiquity (from *ana* *batæ*, to ascend), a term applied to those wrestlers who fought in chariots with their eyes blind-folded, and having almost all their face concealed by a peculiar kind of helmet. From this circumstance the expression *andabatarum more*, indicative of rashness, originated.

ANDACOLLO, a town in the province of Coquimbó, Chili, the seat of the gold mines of the district.

ANDAHUAILAS, a province of Peru, in South America, bounded on the N. E. by the provinces of Abancay and Aimaraez; on the S. E. by Parinacocha; on the S. by Lucanas; on the W. by Vilcas Huaman; and on the N. by the Andes. It contains a population of about 12,000 inhabitants; and is said to have an annual produce of sugar, amounting to between 30,000 and 40,000 arrobas, of 25 pounds each. The entire length of the province is 24 leagues from N. W. to S. E. and 15 broad. It abounds with thick forests; but produces considerable quantities of wheat, maize, and fruits of various kinds.

ANDALUSIA, or VANDALUSIA, an extensive district of Spain, comprising the provinces, or kingdoms, of Seville, Cordova, Jaen, and formerly Granada. It is bounded on the W. by the Portuguese provinces of Alentejo and Algarve; on the N. by Spanish Estremadura and La Mancha, from which it is separated by the Sierra Morena mountains; on the S. by Granada, frequently called Upper Andalusia, the straits of Gibraltar, and the ocean; and on the E. by Murcia, and part of Granada. The Guadalquivir river waters this fine district through nearly its whole extent; while the Guadiana, separating it from Portugal, fertilizes its lands on the west.

Notwithstanding a considerable inequality of surface, and a material difference in the fertility of its respective provinces, this part of Spain is deemed, taken altogether, as one of the richest portions of that country; and has been not unfrequently pronounced the most fruitful and luxuriant part of Europe. It does not, however, exceed 250 miles in length, nor more than 100 in breadth. Very large districts are found covered with woods of olive-trees, growing wild, and yielding annually immense quantities of oil. Corn is grown in such abundance, that large quantities are exported by the inhabitants to various parts of the neighbouring countries and districts. Honey, silk, sugar, and wine, are produced here in great plenty; as also quicksilver, cinnabar, and antimony. Cattle of various kinds, and in great herds, are to be found almost all over the provinces. The horses are esteemed the best in the kingdom, and the bulls are always preferred at the bull-fights during the carnivals, so long observed in this country. Their sheep produce a coarse kind of wool, which is exported to various parts of Europe, chiefly from the populous and busy city of Cadix, which is situated in this province, or district. The climate of Andalusia is remarkably wholesome, and the inhabitants are, for the most part, reckoned much more active and enterprising than the other natives of Spain. They are said to combine, in their persons and character, a mixture of the art and cunning, with the zeal and alertness of their Arabic ancestors. They are thought to have originally sprung from a German

ANDA—
—ANDALU—
—SIA.

ANDALU- colony of Vandals; and that hence the name of Andalusia, or Vandalusia is derived; their faces and dispositions differing very materially from those of the natives of Castile and other parts of Spain.

ANDALUSIAN ISLANDS. The soil is capable of maintaining a much greater population than at present occupies these provinces; but this remark will apply to almost every other part of this fine kingdom. In the year 1787, the three provinces did not contain more than 738,153 inhabitants; and of this number, Cadiz alone had 80,000.

Before the year 1243, Andalusia was in the hands of the Arabs; but between that year and 1250, Frederick the Third, or, as he was generally called, Frederick the Saint, then king of Castile, took it from them, and annexed it to the crown of Spain. During the late peninsular war, Andalusia was the scene of many important engagements, and was subject to numerous changes. For an account of NEW ANDALUSIA, see the article GUIANA.

ANDALUSICUS, in Ornithology, a species of Tetrax, which is denominated the Andalusian quail by Latham.

ANDAMAN ISLANDS, the name of several islands, called the Great and Little Andaman, lying on the east side of the bay of Bengal, in E. lon. 92°, and N. lat. 10°, 32', containing a population of about 2,500 persons. The Great Andaman, being divided by narrow straits, besides the four principal islands, of which it consists, embraces several inconsiderable islets, comprehending, in the whole, an area of about 150 miles in length, and from 18 to 30 in breadth. The Little Andaman, which lies about 30 miles south of the former, is only 28 miles long, and 17 broad.

The air and climate of these islands are more mild and temperate than on the Indian coast; some parts, however, are insalubrious; and the native inhabitants are an extremely savage, artful, and mischievous race, perhaps, with the exception of the natives of New Holland, the most uncivilized tribe of human beings hitherto discovered. Their stature is low, their skins dead black, their hair woolly, their noses flat, their lips thick, and their eyes small and red. Their whole persons exhibit evident marks of the scantiness of their subsistence. It has been proved, however, contrary to what was thought of them in early times, that they are not cannibals. Their food is principally procured from the sea; and they devour, with greediness, rats, lizards, and snakes. Having no means of cooking their victuals in vessels, they cannot avail themselves of the rice, and some other seeds and plants, to be found on their islands; they nevertheless cultivate rice, and some other fruits, which they dispose of to the Europeans who visit them from time to time. They half broil their fish on the embers, and then devour it with characteristic eagerness. They wear no kind of clothing whatever, and live in rudely-constructed huts, consisting of four posts stuck in the ground, bound together at the top, and covered with branches. Their beds consist of the leaves of trees thrown together in heaps on the ground. Insects infest these islands in great numbers, against which the natives protect themselves by a thick plaster of mud, with which they every morning bedaub their whole bodies, leaving it to encrust by the rays of the sun. Their hair they clot by a composition of red ochre and water; and thus they are completely dressed for the day; giving to their naturally deformed bodies the most frightful and horrid appearance imaginable. Their

weapons consist of bows, arrows, and sharply-pointed spears; and they carry a shield made of the bark of a tree.

It is not certain whether they have any idea of religion. It has been thought, however, that they worship the sun and moon; and entertain a sort of dread of the existence of an evil being, whom they call *The Demon of Tempests*; but their language is very singular, and imperfectly understood. They amuse themselves by singing wild songs, the music of which is said to be somewhat sweet and melodious; and their mirth is attended with much gesticulation.

In the year 1791, a British settlement was formed on an islet in the south extremity of the Great Andaman; but on account of the insalubrity of the air, and the frequent disputes with the surrounding savages, it was removed about two years afterwards in Port Cornwallis, on the east side, about fifteen miles from the opposite extremity of the same district. This was intended for the reception of the Bengal convicts; and as there is a fine harbour at the first place it was desirable, on account of the shelter which it would have afforded during the blowing of the monsoons. It has been thought, that an allusion is made to these islands in the travels of two Mahomedans during the ninth century; but their early history is involved in great obscurity.

ANDANCE, a town of France, in Languedoc, department of Ardèche, arrondissement of Tournon. It is, though very small, containing not more than 860, or 1,000 inhabitants, the head of a canton, and was, at one time, the station of a provincial tax-office. It is about seven leagues from Vienne, and 134 from Paris, situated at the conflux of the Durance and the Rhone.

ANDANIA, in Ancient Geography, a city of Arcadia, celebrated as the place where Aristomenes received his education. It derived its name from a gulf in its vicinity. PAUS. iv. c. 1—33.

ANDANTE, in Music, from the Italian andare, to walk, a medium between very quick and very slow movement. It also denotes tender or soothing.

ANDANTINO, the diminutive of andante, relates to movements rather quicker, and approaching to allegretto, or graziosa.

ANDAYE, a town of France, in Gascogne, department of the Lower Pyrenees, arrondissement of Bayonne, two leagues and a quarter from St. Jean de Luz; situated on the river Bidouze, in the Terre de Labour, a part of the Pas de Basques, opposite to the Spanish fortress of Fontarabie. It contains only 110 houses, and a small port, but carries on a considerable trade in brandy.

ANDEB. See ANTAB.

ANDEGARIA, in Ancient Geography, a country upon the sea coast of Gaul, near the Turones. TA- CITE. Ann. iii. c. 41.

ANDEGAST, a hamlet in the grand duchy of Baden, circle of the Thinzig, bailiwick of Oberkirch, standing on a lake of the same name, near the town of Oppenau. It is now celebrated only on account of a famous chalybeate spring that is found here. It formerly belonged to the bishop of Strasburgh.

ANDEIAT, a town of France, in Champagne, department of Upper Marne, arrondissement of Chateau, from which place it is distant only four leagues and a half. It is the head of a canton, and is situated on

ANDA-
MAN
ISLANDS.

ANIE-
LAY.

ANDE-
LAT.

the banks of the Rougnon. Population 850 inhabitants.

ANDER-
LECHT.

ANDELFTINGEN, a district and market-town of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, circle of Winterthur, between the town of that name, and that of Schaffhausen, on the banks of the Thur. It has a population of 2,000 inhabitants; and the adjoining country abounds with corn and fruits, and produces considerable quantities of wine. The Val de Flanch is particularly fruitful. This is also the name of a small parochial village of Suabia, in the kingdom of Wirtemberg.

ANDELYS, a town of France, in Upper Normandy, district of Vexin. It consists of two divisions, called the Great and Little Andely, both formerly bearing the title of viscount, and is now at the head of an arrondissement, in the modern department of the Eure, eight leagues from Rouen, and the same distance from Evreux. The arrondissement forms the N. E. portion of the department, bordering on the departments of the Seine and Oise; the Oise, the Somme, and the Seine Inférieure, containing a population of 62,200 inhabitants; the Great and Little Andely having themselves 5,256 inhabitants. A considerable manufacture of stuff, called rateen, is carried on here, and the inhabitants also cultivate apples for cider in great quantities.

ANDEN, a village of Namur, containing 2,450 inhabitants, and once famous for a nunnery, which is now suppressed.

ANDENES, an island and town, near the coast of Norway, in the North sea.

ANDERA, in Ancient Geography, a town in Phrygia where stones were found which, by the action of fire, might be transmuted into iron. Cybele was worshipped here under the name of Anderina. STRABO, xiii.

ANDERAB, a town of Usbeck Tartary, distant from Balkh about 130 miles, and situated in the only pass of those mountains which separate the Great Bukharia from Hindostan.

ANDERLECHT, a town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, adjoining the city of Brussels. It is a very neat and well-built place, having a population of 1,930 inhabitants, with a collegiate chapter of twenty canons, and a provost.

ANDERNACH, a town of Germany, situated on the Rhine, between Coblenz and Roneu, being distant from the former about six miles, and 25 from Cologne, to the elector of which it formerly belonged; but it is now included in the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, and belongs to Prussia. The white tower, which once formed the boundary between the territories of Cleves and Cologne, is still to be seen here. The population amounts to about 2,020 persons, who derive considerable pecuniary advantages from a very productive toll on the Rhine, the vineyards that adorn its banks, and a manufactory of China ware. The great junction of small timber boats that navigate the Rhine in this neighbourhood, is near Andernach; where they ultimately form the great float of 1,000 feet in length, and 90 in breadth, commonly destined for the town of Dort, in Holland. This raft employs four hundred men to manage and pilot it, and produces, when sold, from 80,000 to 100,000 florins. They also export very large mill-stones to Holland. Near the town is found an excellent kind of terras-stone, with which the houses in this part of Germany are usually built. There is a strong castle here; and not far from the town formerly stood the rich Augustine nunnery of St. Thomas.

ANDERO, ST. or SANTANDER, a sea-port town of Spain, on the bay of Biscay, standing on a peninsula in W. lon. 4°, and N. lat. 43°, 20'. It once was a considerable rendezvous of the Spanish navy, and contained a royal arsenal and dock-yard, where ships of war were built. The harbour, however, is gradually filling up with sand-banks, so that no large vessels can enter; but the town still preserves a brisk trade for a Spanish port. Here are two parish churches, four monasteries, and from 700 to 800 houses. A good road leads from St. Andero to the interior of Spain. The Spanish troops from the north of Europe were disembarked at this place in 1808. Population 4,900.

ANDERSON'S ISLAND, an island in the North Pacific ocean, so called by Captain Cooke, in honour of Mr. Anderson, surgeon of the Resolution, who died near it, in the year 1778. It lies in W. lon. 167°, 40', and N. lat. 63°, 10', near the north-western coast of America.

ANDERVILLE CAPE, a promontory on the coast of Normandy, in France, 13 miles W. N. W. of Cherbourg.

ANDER-
NACH.
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ANDER-
VILLE
CAPE.

ANDES.

ANDES. ANDES, a chain of mountains in America, commonly considered as commencing in N. lat. 8°, at the isthmus of Panama, and running south in a line parallel to the coast of the Pacific ocean as far as Cape Pájaros, in S. lat. 53°, at the mouth of the straits of Magellan, a distance of about 4,200 miles. M. Humbolt and some other writers extend the parent ridge northward into New Spain, and consider the Rocky or Stony mountains of North America as forming a continuation of the Andes; but their distinct mineralogical character, and the almost entire disappearance of the ridge in the northern parts of the isthmus of Panama, have generally, and, as we think, justly confined this name to the unparalleled ranges of the southern continent.

Thus restricted, this is by far the most important chain of mountains in the world. Penetrating almost all the climates of the earth in its course from north to south, it presents also in some of its single heights, perpendicularly, an equal variety of temperature, and an epitome of all the seasons. Under the equator the Andes attain their greatest altitude, and the majestic Chimborazo exhibits its masses of everlasting snow at an elevation, according to the latest accounts, of upwards of 21,000 feet from the level of the ocean. Far below this amazing height human respiration is difficult, and the cold more piercing than in any known region of the Arctic sea; but in no portion of the globe is vegetation more luxuriant than towards the base and in the plains of the Andes: here a temperate and unchanging climate has invited European opulence to fix its seat; whilst the Lower Savannas glow occasionally with the utmost heat of the tropics. In nothing are the Andes more distinguished than in the surprising elevation of the plains at their base, and between them, which exceed the height of some of the loftiest mountains of the Old World. They are also remarkable for their numerous volcanic peaks in every stage of destructive activity, and pouring forth inexhaustible fires in regions of perpetual frost; for the horrid crevices with which they are interspersed reaching sometimes to the depth of several thousand feet; and for the mighty streams that rush from them in every direction into the surrounding seas. Desolating earthquakes, which have occasionally engulfed whole mountains and cities, are also common to these regions, which seem almost designed to present the extremes of earthly peace and insecurity, and to unite every thing charming with every thing appalling to man in the operations of nature.

The principal chain of the Andes preserves a medium distance of 150 miles from the western shore of South America, and traverses successively the kingdoms of New Granada, Quito, Peru, Chili, and Patagonia. It is rich in precious metals, and contains, from Cotopaxi to the straits of Magellan, not less than forty volcanoes, which are constantly burning. The first separation of this main chain, as it descends toward the south, into distinct ridges, is in New Granada, and extends from N. lat. 5°, 15' to 2°, 30'. It consists of three nearly

parallel lines, the western one being a continuation of the mountains which rise almost imperceptibly in the province of Darien, and which never exceed the altitude of 4,500 feet in this direction. This ridge divides the province of Chocó on the west, from the river Cauca eastward. The middle ridge, which is the loftiest of the three, runs between the latter stream and the waters of the great river Magdalena. In its highest altitude it rises into the region of perpetual frost; and, clothed with the rays of the rising sun, it presents a most imposing spectacle from the city of Santa Fe. The three most elevated points are the Guanacas, the Baragan, and the Quindiu mountains. The eastern ridge divides the Magdalena from the plains of the Meta, but possesses no very lofty mountains. In the province of Popayan, at the latitude already named, these ridges re-unite. Across the equator the Andes form but a single line; but in the province of Quito they separate, at about half their altitude, into their two most remarkable and most elevated chains, comprising the Chimborazo, the Cayambe Uru, the Pichincha, Cotopaxi, &c. At Cuenca, in about S. lat. 3°, these central ridges terminate in the parent stem, and from this place to their southern extremity, the great line of the Andes is but little known. It seems, however, according to D'Anville, frequently to consist of two or three pointed ridges, from 100 to 150 miles in breadth, with immense plains of various elevations between and around them. Ulloa speaks of the average height of these plains as being from 8,000 to 10,000 feet from the level of the sea. In the neighbourhood of the town of Cuzco, in Peru, the Andes assume, with the coast, a S. E. direction, and diverge into many subordinate branches, which form prodigious plains of what has been called tableland. Here, and amongst the highest uplands, the Aprimac, the Beni, and other streams that finally form the majestic river Marañon, have their sources. Further south, in lat. 16°, the remarkable lake Titicaca, or Chucuito, is embosomed between two parallel ridges of the Andes, and receives the waters of from ten to twelve large rivers. This noble basin is 240 miles in circumference, and navigable for the largest vessels; it contains the island of Titicaca, supposed to have been once the residence of Manco Capac, and formerly adorned by the incas of Peru, with the celebrated temple of the Sun. In these regions the great river La Plata finds its source.

The Andes of Chili form three parallel ranges, of which the centre is by far the loftiest, and contains Chili, several single mountains, upwards of 20,000 feet in height. The principal ones which are known are the Mandlos, in S. lat. 28°, 45'; the Tupungato, in 33°, 24'; the Descabesado, in 35°; the Blanquillo, in 35°, 4'; the Longavi, in 35°, 30'; the Chillan, in 36°; and the Corcobado, in 43°. The eastern and western ridges are from 20 to 30 miles distant from this amazing stem. Fourteen volcanoes have been reckoned on this part of the Andes, from one of which, in December 1760, a

General features of these mountains.

The central group.

The main chain.

Its various ridges.

ANDES. considerable eruption took place, rending one of the mountains completely asunder, and forming a new lake. Throughout the province this cordillera maintains an unaltered elevation, and a breadth with its plains of nearly 120 miles. Between the 24° and 32° of S. lat. the Andes are wholly desert; at the latter point, and to lat. 45°, they begin to be inhabited by various barbarous tribes in alliance with the Arancanians. The Andes of Patagonia, or Terra Magellanica, are wholly in the possession of unconquered and savage nations.

There sub-
ordinate di-
visions of
Humboldt.

First divi-
sion.

From the principal chain of the Andes, which we have thus traced from its rise in the isthmus of Panama to its termination in the strait of Magellan, Humboldt describes the three subordinate chains, or cordilleras, with which we are (chiefly by his own recent travels) best acquainted, as branching out at right angles, in the following directions:

The first of these inferior divisions, called sometimes the Cordillera of New Granada, is on the coast of Venezuela. Though this chain is higher in point of general elevation than the others, it is inferior in breadth, and irregularly bends from the river Atrato to the east, until it reaches the stream of Magdalena, which flows through the province of St. Martha, forming in its course the Sierra of Ahilbe and of Canca, and the lofty plains of Tola. On its approach towards the gulf of Mexico, it becomes contracted progressively, until it reaches the vicinity of Cape Veta. Here the chain divides itself into two ridges, which run in a parallel direction to each other, and are re-united by two arms, enclosing three lofty valleys, which rise gradually one above the other, attaining their highest point towards the east, in the government of Caracas. Humboldt ascertained the elevation of the plain of the Caracas to be 2,660 feet above the level of the sea. This chain finally enters the sea at Cape Paria, and may be considered as terminating off the Galley Point of the island of Trinidad. In its course it gives rise to those rivers that enter the left bank of the Orinoco, and northward to various streams that enter the Caribbean sea. The loftiest summits of this chain are the Nevada of St. Martha and Merida, the former of which is between fifteen and sixteen, and the latter between fourteen and fifteen thousand feet in altitude. At their base are the elevated deserts of Mocacha and Rosa, and west of the lake Maracabo, several noble forests, occupying the long narrow valleys which run in a parallel direction from N. to S. The Silla de Caracas, on the shore of the Caribbean sea, is an abrupt precipice of 8,420 feet; but the average height of the cordillera of the coast does not exceed 5,000 feet. Many volcanic cones are interspersed among them, and the whole country presents the most striking traces of past convulsions. Lofty and extensive valleys appear to have been the basins of lakes that have been drained or drawn suddenly off, while existing sheets of water and marshy grounds extend themselves at various altitudes below them: thus, while Humboldt found the plain of the Caracas of the height we have stated, the basin of Aragua is only 1,350, and the Llanos, or marshy plains of Monai, only 600 feet above the level of the sea. In the extreme eastern point of this chain independent mountains are found, in which the primitive rock of the original stem is much depressed, and finally disappears; secondary calcareous substances envelope

beds of gneiss and mica slate, and a sort of detached chain at Capellum is formed of a mass of sand-stone, resting on a calcareous base. At Barcelona immense plains unite with those of the Caracas, and extend southward to the Orinoco.

The second division, called the Cordillera of the Second division.
Cataracts of the Orinoco, which branches out from the main Andes between the third and sixth degrees of N. lat., displays a range of primitive mountains, which have been accurately surveyed by Humboldt for upwards of 600 miles, i. e. from the Black river to the borders of the Grand Para. It runs eastward from the Panama, or lofty plains of Tuquillo and St. Martin, near the sources of the Guaviari, and gives rise to the noble streams of the Meta, Zama, and Ymerida, which form in their course, the cataracts of Mayparé and Aturé. The greatest altitude of this chain is found beyond these cataracts, in the southern direction which it takes into the Portuguese territories, a portion of the Andes which is only known to us from the accounts of mercantile adventurers into its boundless forests for sarsaparilla and other productions of the soil. Here, as far as conjecture may supply the fact, the sources of the Orinoco are supposed to exist, for they never have been traced; the whole country being occupied by barbarous tribes. Further east the Andes are occasionally seen to break through the forests which surround the lake of Parimé and the Amazonas, by the name of the Sierrade Quincropes and Pacaraimo. They are here about 200 miles broad, and, after a short course to the east, bend southward along the banks of the Mao to the Sierra Ucucaumo, or El Dorado (Golden mountain), of the first visitors of South America, a hill which is entirely composed of shining yellow mica.

Stretching across the country from this point, eastward, the chain now meets the mountains of Dutch and French Guiana, supplying in its course the sources of the Essequibo, Marony, Surinam, and Berbice rivers. The highest known point of this chain is the active volcano of the Sierra Duida, in lat. 3°, 13', about 8,465 feet in altitude, which is surrounded by a rich savannah, thickly set with the tropical palm and banana, and regularly discharges, at the close of the rainy season, enormous voluemes of flame. This chain, as far as it was seen by Humboldt, contained no alluvial formations, petrification, or organic remains, but was composed wholly of granite, gneiss, mica slate, and hornblende. The rest of the chain is principally known to us from the accounts of Don Ant. Santo, who disguising himself as an Indian, entered it at the river Croyones, one of the minor streams of the Orinoco, and passed undiscovered through the savage tribes who inhabit its borders to the Maragnon. The cataracts of Mayparé and Aturé present the only known opening from the plains of the Maragnon to the interior of the South American continent. The whole of this chain is remarkable for the abrupt precipices which it presents towards the south.

No part of the third chain mentioned by Humboldt Third divi-
was surveyed by his party, but only became known to them by the report of those who had passed the immense dead flat, or Pampas, which separates it from the foregoing ridges. It is called the Cordillera of the Chiriquitos, and is situated from the 15° to the 20° of S. latitude, between the waters of the Maragnon and the Plata. Stretching from the main stem in a semicircular

ANDES. form, it passes through the provinces of Chaco, Chiquitos, and Moxos, and unites the towering summits of Peru and Chili with the mountains of Brazil and Paraguay.

Plains formed by these chains. These subordinate arms of the Andes, according to the enlightened traveller who first suggested this arrangement of them, divide that part of the continent of America over which they stretch, into three immense plains, called the valley of the Oronoco, that of the Maragnon, and the Pampas de Buenos Ayres; which are all enclosed on the western side by the great chain of the Andes, but are open on the east, and towards the Atlantic ocean. The valley of the Oronoco, consisting of level tracts covered with reedy herbage and palms, is the most northern plain. Here the primitive rock of the sub-soil is covered with lime-stone, gypsum, and calcareous formations; while in the plain of the Maragnon, the soil is remarkably thin, and though it everywhere abounds in wood, the granite, unimixed with any alluvial deposit, frequently appears. The most southern valley, or Pampas de Buenos Ayres, is a dead flat of great extent, clothed like the valley of the Oronoco, with a coarse species of herbage, and generally occupied by herds of wild cattle, which are killed in vast numbers for the sake of their hides. It contains beds of secondary formation to an enormous depth; in which, under the rays of a tropical sun, the most luxuriant fruits are found in perfection.

Nature of the soil. In the neighbourhood of Quito, the approach to the Andes from the western coast, merits particular admiration. The road lies through the most beautiful forests; the foliage of which is agreeably diversified by a thousand varieties of colour; the rugged precipices of the mountains are softened by distance; and the scenery in general wears an air of harmony and regularity. But as we hasten onward, the natural wildness and sublimity of the scene gradually engross our view, and the tremendous interstices of the mountains; and the cataraacts which shelve down their sides, and force their way into the plains beneath, are calculated to remove every impression of serenity, and fill the mind with tumultuous agitation.

The actual path of the traveller, too, must now be frequently cleared by the axe; the ground beneath his feet assumes a totally different character to what the first promise of the scenery would induce him to suppose; equinoctial torrents render it everywhere swampy and dangerous, while the rays of the sun very feebly penetrate the overhanging foliage. As the path ascends, and the opening of the woods relieve him of these difficulties, impetuous torrents rush from the surrounding heights, and are crossed by the most frail and precarious bridges, formed of the matted grasses of these regions; the best roads lead along the edge of awful precipices, and are frequently inaccessible, except to a single mule, well-accustomed to them, and to whose discretion the life of man must be wholly committed.

The Andes near Quito. Of all the portions of the Andes that have become known to us by the observations of successive travellers, none appear to exceed in interest, or in grandeur, the magnificent central group in the province of Quito. We return to particularize the great features of this group, and some of the most remarkable mountains it contains. These form, as we have intimated, two prodigious ridges, which enclose an immense plain, extending from 0°, 13' to the 3d degree of S. latitude, or more properly, a succession of valleys, varying in their altitude from 10,600 to 13,900 feet. Here the temperature is delightful, and the whole aspect of the country agreeably contrasted with the desolate regions that must be traversed in approaching the plain, and that surround it on every side. It presents, indeed, altogether a most interesting scene; walled in from every other by its mountains, covered with everlasting snow, and over-spread with towns and villages of the most picturesque beauty. The city of Quito crowns the prospect northward, but the buildings of the entire province are usually of stone, or a peculiar kind of brick, which is dried in the shade. A large square forms the central part of each town, and one side is generally occupied with a church. The streets, in general, proceed in right angles from this square, and give the whole the appearance of an extensive garden. The climate, according to Humboldt, has experienced a considerable variation since the last earthquake with which it was afflicted. Previous to which, the thermometer stood at 15° or 16°; but it now stands, on an average, from 4° to 10° of Reaumur.

The enormous mountains of Casitagua, Pichincha, Atacazo, Corazon, Ilinessa, Carguirazo, Cunambo, and Chimborazo, rear their lofty heads to the west of this plain. On the east are the mountains of Guanani, Cayambe, Antisana, Passaschoen, Ruminavi, Quelendama, Cotopaxi, Tunguragua, and Capa Urcu, or El Altar; the latter of which (according to the tradition of the Indians) was originally more elevated in its summit than even Chimborazo.

Mountains on each side. The appearance of these mountains is not so imposing as might justly be anticipated from their amazing height, on account of the elevation of the plain on which they rest. Thus the Chimborazo and the Cotopaxi, which are, in reality, 6,000 feet higher than Mont Blanc, scarcely appear more sublime than that monarch of the Alps from the vale of Chamouni; if, indeed, the comparing power of travellers that have visited both, is in such extraordinary scenes to be supposed to possess much accuracy.

Chimborazo, or Chimborazo, which has been geometrically ascertained to be 21,441 feet in height, is of the form of a dome, and is usually considered the highest point of elevation in the globe. It rears its lofty summits from the plain of Tapia, which is itself 9,491 feet above the level of the sea. It narrows toward the top into a conical shape, and has been the frequent object of unsuccessful enterprises. Humboldt, undismayed by the failures of his precursors, succeeded in scaling a ridge of volcanic rocks to within 240 toises of the summit; but the extreme tenacity of the air, and the fissures by which he was surrounded, impeded all further ascension. Here the blood streamed from his lips and various parts of his face; and the dense fogs rendered the whole journey at once dismal and unsatisfactory. The traveller only appears, in this instance, to have accomplished a higher feat of daring than his predecessors, for beyond observing a small kind of moss to abound all the way, and every living creature (even the condor) to have been left far below, he seems to have been incapable of making any other discovery. The line of congelation is marked on this and all the neighboring heights with a surprising uniformity. On the northern declivity of Chimborazo, the road from Guayaquil to

ANDES. The plain of Quito.

Mountains on each side.

Chimborazo.

ANDES Quito is situated, and leads through the most grand scenery, approaching nearly to the region of perpetual winter.

Cotopaxi. Cotopaxi is, perhaps, the next most remarkable mountain of the Andes, and the most elevated volcano in the world. It stands within 12 leagues of the city of Quito, between the inferior mountains Ruminavi and Quelindama. It is a regular cone, clothed entirely with snow, just as it rises above these adjacent peaks, and attaining the altitude of 18,891 feet. The crater is in a constant state of activity of various degrees. The first eruption, of which we have any record, took place at the period of the Spanish subjugation of these regions, an event to which it is said not a little to have contributed. We have no further particulars of the occurrence than that it was supposed to fulfil some traditional prophecies amongst the native tribes, who were thus induced to consider their country abandoned by its deities. In the year 1743, it threw up volumes of flame, which were followed by immense torrents of water, that inundated the whole country; and, proceeding in a southerly direction, entered the river that flows near Latacunga, which instantly burst its banks, and overflowed the neighbouring plains. The eruption, succeeded by these torrents, continued, unabated, for three days; when the latter slowly diminished, but the flames continued to rise for some time, accompanied with a loud and rushing noise, and emitting through the crevices of the mountain a most brilliant illumination of the country by night. In 1768, the whole summit of the mountain was to unusually heated, as suddenly to discharge all its snow, while volumes of ashes obscured the light of the sun at Hambato until three o'clock in the afternoon. This eruption was heard at Guayaquil, a distance of 150 miles; like the roaring of successive discharges of cannon. Masses of scorified rock are frequently thrown from Cotopaxi into the surrounding plains, where they lie as in an inexhaustible quarry. Humboldt tried in vain to reach the mouth of the crater, which appears like a wall of black rock round the top of the mountain.

Pichincha. Pichincha, though inferior in elevation to Cotopaxi, rising only to 15,939 feet from the level of the ocean, is scarcely less interesting in character, as a volcano, and, from the visits of the French academicians, and latterly of M. Humboldt, is far better known. It forms the base of the city of Quito, which stands at an elevation of about 9,500 feet on its side. The crater of the summit is an enormous gulf, measuring three British miles in circumference, and surmounted by three principal peaks which overhang its edge. M. Condamine examined it in 1735, when he found the fires extinct, and the whole of the surrounding ridges covered with snow. But Humboldt, in 1802, saw many indications of volcanic activity. The surrounding peaks were generally oaked, from the heat of ascending vapours; and the inner circumference of the crater was very black, and emitted occasional smoke and flames, though snow still concealed its edges. On the utmost projection of one of these peaks our adventurous traveller prostrated himself to look down into the abyss below, where several inferior mountains seemed to rise to the height of about 600 yards below the top. He conjectured that the bottom of the crater was nearly of equal altitude with the plain of the city of Quito.

ANDES. Cayambe Uren, whose summit is crossed by the equatorial line, is the highest mountain of this range, with the exception of Chimborazo. It rises to an elevation of 19,386 feet from the level of the sea, and is of the shape of a truncated cone.

El Corazon, which soars amid the region of eternal El Conness, snow, was ascended by Bouguer, and discovered to have a summit in the shape of a heart, from which it derives its appropriate appellation. Its altitude is 15,795 feet from the level of the sea.

The enormous mountains of Illinisa and Ruminavi, **Illinisa and Ruminavi.** stand E. and W. of the Andes, that cross the equator and join each other by a transverse chain, known by the name of Alto de Tiopullo. They rise to upwards of 17,000 feet from the level of the sea, and bound the south side of the plain of Quito, separating it from the vallies of Latacunga and Hambato. A very remarkable species of tumulus appears on the summit of the chain or dyke of Tiopullo, and what is supposed to be the ruins of an ancient Peruvian palace. The building, traditionally called the palace of Callo, is situated in a south-west direction from this mound, nine miles from the crater of Cotopaxi, and about 30 from Quito. It is of a square form, having sides of about 100 feet in length, with four great door-ways, and eight chambers. The walls are more than three feet in thickness, and composed of large stones, regularly cut, and beautifully laid. The whole is in a good state of preservation, and its workmanship, as a specimen of native architecture, is exquisite. The tumulus is supposed to have been the burial-place of some distinguished chief.

The most southern mountain of Quito is the volcano Sangai, of Sangai, or Meca, 17,131 feet from the level of the sea. Its summits are covered with snow; from which continual fires are seen to issue, and the mountain is remarkable for the loud crashing sounds which it constantly emits. These, according to Ulloa, may be heard at 40 leagues distance. The adjacent country is entirely destitute of fertility; and is covered with cinders. The river Sangay rises in this desert; and, after a junction with the Upano, flows into the Maragoun, under the appellation of the Payra.

Whether the noises which proceed from Sangai, and some other of the volcanic mountains of the Andes, are occasioned by imprisoned winds, has been a question of some controversy. Sometimes they sound in that rushing manner that would induce this supposition, as it is certain also that overpowering gusts of wind burst suddenly from their immense crevices at intervals, and carry away masses of rock to an amazing distance. On the other hand, there is a rattling and crashing sort of concussion heard in this mountain and others, on various occasions, which can be accounted for in no such way; and seem to proceed from internal convulsions, of which we can form, perhaps, no adequate idea. In this neighbourhood liquid mud, containing myriads of dead fish, is also among the more remarkable productions of the volcanic peaks.

El Altar, or Altair, is one of the eastern mountains, El Altar, which the Indians state to have been once of greater altitude than Chimborazo. It now rises 17,250 feet from the sea, and is joined by a lofty desert to another peak, called Collanea.

Northward of this, about seven leagues, is the vol-

ANDES.

Tunguragua, &c.

Visit of the French and Spaniards to the thermal-caves.

Their abode on Pichincha.

Cold, fogs, &c. of the region.

Sudden changes of the atmosphere.

cano Tunguragua; remarkable for the hot springs which issue from its sides, and which have caused warm baths to be erected in the neighbourhood. The town of Riobamba was once entirely overwhelmed by an eruption from this mountain, which is 16,500 feet in altitude. Carguinao is to the N. W. of Tunguragua, and rises 15,540 feet above the level of the sea.

In the years 1734, &c. M. Bouguer, and other mathematicians of France and Spain, were engaged in a commission from their respective governments, to make certain observations on the figure of the earth in this part of the Andes, a circumstance which has supplied some of the most interesting particulars respecting the climate in high altitudes that has hitherto been given. On their arrival at the kingdom of Quito, it was determined that they should continue the series of the triangles for measuring an arch of the meridian south of that city. The company accordingly divided into two separate bodies, attended by their respective assistants in the enterprise. To Don George Juan and M. Godin were assigned the superintendence of one party, which selected the mountain of Pambamarca for their observations; while M. Bouguer, himself, M. de la Coudamine, and Don Ulloa, ascended the highest point of Pichincha. An abridgement of the narrative of their proceedings, particularly that of the latter party, will be acceptable to the reader, and supersede any general description of the characteristic storms of these heights.

In order to make their temporary abode in these wintry regions as tolerable as possible, and convenient for their mathematical pursuits, both companies supplied themselves, in the first instance, with field tents; but as they ascended the summit of Pichincha, it was found utterly impossible to use them, both from the narrowness of the points on which they were obliged to fix for their observations, and the violence of the winds continually roaring over them. On the top of this mountain they could only erect a single hut, and that so small as with difficulty to contain them when they had crept into its low door. This point was 100 fathoms above the desert of Pichincha, and it cost the party four hours of incessant labour and danger to reach it on foot, after they had brought their mules to the highest altitude possible. With the most indefatigable perseverance did the members of the commission endure all the heat and privations of their precarious lodgement on this craggy rock for three and twenty days. From their first ascent, the subtlety of the air rendered respiration exceedingly difficult during any exertion; and the severity of the cold at this height, and the almost constant violence of the winds, rarely suffered that inconvenience to abate. Thick fogs hung around the rock day and night, and when whirled by a strong blast, brought a perfect dizziness over the vision, and rendered it impossible to abide long in the open air. In their mildest state, it was difficult to discover any thing through these mists at ten or twelve paces distant. These circumstances compelled the party to remain generally within the hut; but whenever the fog and clouds retired downwards, and the wind was calm, the scene is represented as having been highly beautiful. The clouds far beneath assumed the appearance of a circumambient ocean, in which their rock rose as a central island. Occasionally, the deep murmur of whirlwinds, or the distant sound of

tempests, ascended from all sides with amazing distinctness, and lightnings were seen to stream from every part of the horizon, while the spectators enjoyed the invigorating sun-beams, and a delightfully serene sky. At these welcome intervals, our mathematicians would exercise their limbs in every possible mode to preserve them from the most fatal numbness, and were glad to enjoy the sports of childhood in a scene that dwindled man into a child, by rolling fragments of rock down the mountain, and attentively listening to the reverberations produced. In a few minutes, however, the rising clouds would disperse every attraction of the scene; the difficulty of respiration would return; and overwhelming sheets of snow and hail compel them to retire within. While pursuing their calculations, and at all hours of the night, frequent concussions of the entire precipice would be felt, occasioned by the fall of enormous fragments of rocks, and resounding from below with a more appalling noise, as they were the only earthly sounds that disturbed the silence of these regions.

The door of their hut was closed on the outside by thongs of leather, and every precaution adopted to make it air-tight within. To repel the full effects of the shivering blasts, however, or indeed to alter in any very considerable degree the temperature of the atmosphere, even in this closely-crowded spot, seemed alike impossible. As their days were sometimes rendered nearly as dark as the night by the mist, lamps were kept continually burning, and every individual was supplied with a chafing-dish of coals for his own use; but when the rigour of the climate was thus rendered for a while supportable, the fear of being blown over the precipice compelled them, after each succeeding storm, to encounter the inclemencies of the air, and free their hut from the masses of snow and ice which would accumulate on the top. Their attendant Indians were so numbed by the cold, that they were with difficulty persuaded, for the first day or two, to stir from a small tent where a considerable fire was kept up, so that the mathematicians themselves were obliged to undertake the principal share of every kind of labour. After this period, the Indians had nearly jeopardized the lives of the entire party, by a determination not to remove the snow from their door on a certain morning; and but for intelligence of the conspiracy being furnished by one of them who performed the task on this occasion himself, our adventurers had been entirely abandoned without warning. So general, indeed, was the desertion of their attendants from the scene of these severities, that the mathematicians were compelled to communicate with the corregidor of Quito respecting their situation; new assistants were sent, with the strictest injunctions, and even threats of exemplary punishment, should they neglect their duty, but not any thing could induce them to obedience until it was agreed that they should be regularly relieved every fourth day.

The general food of the party during their stay on this desolate spot was a small quantity of rice boiled with flesh meat, or fowl, procured from Quito. These provisions were kept with difficulty from freezing while they were eating them. On their first arrival, they tried the use of strong liquors, with the hope of alleviating the effects of the cold, but the experiment was entirely ineffectual; and for the purpose of procuring any abiding

ANDES.

Precautions taken.

Desertion of the Indians.

Food, and fuel effects of their abode here.

ANDES. warmth, or quickening the circulation of the blood, is declared to have been as unavailing as cold water. The final effects of the cold on all parts of the system were almost intolerable. Their feet became swelled and tender, especially when exposed to the heat, while to move about for the sake of exercise was attended with scarcely less anguish. Their hands were knotted with chilblains; their lips chapped and swelled; and the very effort of articulation constantly drew blood. Humboldt, as we have seen, describes similar momentary effects of the cold in these regions, which sufficiently corroborates this interesting narrative.

Mineralogy
of the
Andes.

The mineralogy of the Andes has been but little explored. From the travellers who preceded Humboldt we shall endeavour to gather a few particulars, especially of the Chilean Andes; but to the conclusion of the labours of that interesting traveller must we look for the completion of any lucid statement on this subject.

The precious metals of Peru and Lima are deposited, according to Helms, in veins of quartz or alluvial layers of sand-stone and iron-sand, resting in the argillaceous schistus, of which the great chain of the Andes is, according to this author, principally composed. At Potosi, the principal silver mine abounds in ferruginous quartz, bedded in a fine yellow argillaceous slate. In the neighbourhood of the lake of Titicaca, he describes the basis of argillaceous schistus as covered with alluvial deposits of marl, gypsum, and lime-stone; sand, porphyry, and even rock-salt. Near Guanacavica the mountains are composed almost entirely of sand-stone and lime-stone; northward of this portion of the Andes they are more calcareous, yet rich in metallic ore.

Molina.

Molina, in his *Saggio Sulla Storia Naturale del Chili*, describes the enormous masses of the Chilean Andes as consisting of "a quartzose rock, of a composition almost uniform, and in which marine bodies are never found, as they are in the secondary mountains. On the summit of Descabesado," he says, "a most elevated mountain in the midst of the principal chain of the Andes, and which in height does not appear to be inferior to the famous Chimborazo of Quito, a number of marine shells has been observed, either petrified or calcined, and probably deposited by water. The summit of this mountain, which is flat, bears marks of a volcanic eruption: it is now a square plain, each side being about six miles in length; and in the middle is a lake of extreme depth, which, so far as can be judged by appearances, was the crater of the volcano. All the ridges on the sides of the Andes, as well as those more maritime, or more inland, are of secondary formation. Their summits are commonly more rounded; and they are formed in horizontal beds of various substances and thickness. In all these beds marine bodies abound; and even impressions of plants or animals are often discovered. I have observed in the excavations which have been made, and in the courses of the rivers, that the lowest visible bed of all these mountains is a kind of cos, or whet-stone, of a reddish colour, and sandy grain; but sometimes a quartz of sand, or a pretty compact tuff of a dark brown colour. The other beds are clays of different colours, marls, marbles of several kinds, schistus, spars, gypsum, fossil coal; after which appear metallic veins, ochre, quartz, granite, porphyry, sand-stone, and other rocks

more or less hard. The order of the beds is not always the same; and I have often observed considerable derangements—a superior bed in one mountain being inferior in another; and in these derangements the laws of gravity are by no means observed. Nevertheless, all the beds, in general, affect a kind of regularity in their direction, which is from S. to N.; and as they incline a little to the W. according to the fall of the sea, they seem to have followed the current of the ocean, which, on account of the position of the country, is from S. to N. Besides the mountains composed of different beds, there are some of uniform structure; or homogeneous beds of lime-stone, gypsum, talc, cos, or whet-stone; of granite, of simple and primitive rocks, of basalt, lava, and other volcanic substances; and some of shells, little or not at all decomposed, as mentioned by Ulloa in his voyage. But all these homogeneous mountains are barren, only producing some languishing shrubs, while the mountains disposed in beds, which are always covered with a crust of good soil, present a vigorous and agreeable vegetation. The exterior form of all the stratified mountains furnishes another palpable proof of the incumbence of the ocean, their bases, which are almost always extensive, enlarging gradually, form gentle vales, whose inflexions and inclinations impress, in a lively manner, the long shade and direction of the ocean. Their salient and retreating angles also correspond. On descending into these vales, it may be perceived, without difficulty, that the organization is the same with that of the stratified mountains, as the same materials and disposition appear throughout, with this difference, that almost all the substances are decayed, or even reduced to earth."

Humboldt found the whole of his second inordinate branch of the Andes, as we have intimated, composed of primitive rock, principally granite, which seems to be the probable basis of the entire chain. Comparing this branch with the cordillera of the coast in the *Journal de Physique*, he thus gives us the order in which the primary rocks appear. 1. Massive granite, occasionally mixed with jasp and plumbago; 2. Foliated granite and mica slate, interspersed with garnets; 3. Primitive slate, with beds of native alum; 4. Slate, mixed with hornblende, green-stone, amygdaloid, and great quantities of porphyry-slate. The usual arrangement, or inclination of the primitive rocks, is to the N.W. In what he calls the secondary rocks, which compose the Andes of the coast of Venezuela, the granite is succeeded by gneiss and beds of primitive lime-stone; the mica slate is covered with hornblende and lime-stone, and thus again with beds of Lydian-stone, gypsum, petrisolen, and calcareous free-stone. The granite is often stratified in beds from two to three feet thick, and contains large crystals of felspar. Red garnets and sapphire are frequently mixed with mica slate in the primitive rocks; and in the gneiss of the secondary rocks a few green garnets are found. In the cordillera of the catarracts of the Oronoco, large masses of a glowing yellow talc also appear, a substance which gave such celebrity to the El Dorado in the centre of the Andes, as a golden mountain. Chlorite slate sometimes occurs in this cordillera, and the most beautiful hornblende occasionally penetrates the streets of St. Thome and Guiana.

Petrifications do not frequently appear in the Andes;

ANDES.

Humboldt's
account of
the subordi-
nate chains.

ANDES.

Petrifications rarely found.

Comparative elevation of the secondary formations.

but patches of gypsum are not uncommon; and Humboldt found, in the calcareous free-stone of the coast, vast numbers of recently petrified shells, at nine leagues distance from the sea. In Peru, fossil-shells have been found at the extraordinary height of 12,800 feet above the level of the ocean; and near Guancavilca, mixed with the lime-stone noticed by Helms, at the height of 14,120. In Europe they have never been found higher than the top of the Pyrenees, or at an altitude of 11,700 feet. Basalt is found on Pichincha, at 15,500 feet above the sea, upwards of 10,000 feet beyond the highest altitude at which it occurs in the Old World. Beds of coal rise in Peru to the enormous height of 14,700 feet; and at Santa F^a, to 8,650 feet; while granite, on the other hand, which is found in the highest elevations of Europe, never reaches beyond those of from 11,000 to 12,000 feet in America.

Porphyr, green-stone, basalt, and phonolite, everywhere abound on the summits of the great chain of the Andes, broken into a thousand fantastic shapes. Of the first of these, the entire summit of Chimborazo, according to Humboldt, is composed, as well as those of Cayambe and Antisana; while masses of 10,000 or 12,000 feet in depth commonly flank the chain. Near the bottom of this chain two different sorts of lime-stone occur, one with a silicious base, enclosing in some places cinabar and coal; the other generally calcareous, and cementing the secondary rocks. It is stated, as a remarkable fact, that the porphyry of these mountains never contains quartz, and rarely mica, though it is commonly mixed with hornblende. There is a mass of pure quartz west of Caxamarca, of the depth of 9,600 feet, and a rock of sand-stone, near Cuzco, of 5,000 feet. Every operation of nature in these regions seems conducted on their own magnificent scale. One of the most remarkable metallic substances in the bowels of these mountains, is the paco, a compound of clay, oxyd of iron, and the muriate of silver, mixed with native silver. Their inexhaustible mines are but too well known to the world; and, managed with a liberal policy, under the guidance of scientific knowledge, might unquestionably be made far more productive than at present. For several interesting particulars respecting these, see the article AMERICA, p. 462 of this vol.

On the whole, the mineralogical facts and character of these stupendous mountains are but too partially known to furnish any correct hypothesis of the process of nature in their formation; and it will be well if, as these facts increase upon us, the immaturity of the science of mineralogy itself does not appear more distinctly than ever.

Abrupt precipices, similar to those which mark the southern face of the cordillera of the catenacts of the Oronoco, occur in every part of the parent chain of the Andes near the equator, and diversify its appearance with the most horrid chasms, or rents, here called Quebradas, varying from 100 feet to 4 or 5,000 feet in depth. The natives of Peru and Chili have several expedients for crossing these gorges; and dangers at which every European shudders involuntarily, custom has taught them to regard with indifference. One of their most common methods is to throw a sort of hanging bridge from mountain to mountain, composed principally of the strongest fibres of the agave, strengthened with reeds and cane, and protected with a slight rail-work,

or border of the same materials. Over this frail pathway the Indian darts with alacrity, when unloaded; or, swinging to and fro by the blast, hums his national tunes as he conveys the trembling traveller on his back, and contemplates, unmoved, the awful abyss below. Humboldt crossed the Quebrada of Chota, on his approach to Quito, and found it of the enormous depth of 4,950 feet. In the interior it was very sultry. That of Cataco, at the bottom of which runs a river of the same name, is 4,300 feet in perpendicular descent. These regions have their travelling porters, or cargueros, generally blacks, or mulattoes, who devote themselves to the assistance of passengers over the mountains, and will sometimes carry and climb with them for miles. They will bear from 15 to 18 stone, for eight or nine hours in the day, without complaining; or convey the traveller in a chair, on their asked back, until it is worn and chafed through the skin, like that of an over-worked beast of burden. The remuneration expected by these poor wretches is trifling in the extreme.

In particular places the rocks approach to an insupportable distance; and at Iconoma, in the new kingdom of Granada, is a natural bridge over one of these clefts, which is 50 feet long, by about 40 feet broad, and rising nearly 300 feet above the fine river Summa Paz, which occupies its bottom. Sixty feet down is another arch, formed of three sloping blocks of stone that seem to have been dislodged from above, and wedged together in their fall. The thickness of the upper arch is about eight feet.

The most difficult passage in the whole of the Cordilleras of the Andes is, according to Humboldt, that of the mountain of Quindin, in New Granada; and his own account of this memorable part of his journey will give the reader a lively impression of the scene:

"It is a thick uninhabited forest," says he, "which Humboldt's narrative. in the finest season cannot be traversed in less than ten or twelve days. Not even a bat is to be seen, nor can any means of subsistence be found. Travellers at all times of the year furnish themselves with a month's provision, since it often happens that, by the melting of the snows, and the sudden swell of the torrents, they find themselves so circumstanced, that they can descend neither on the side of Carthago, nor that of Ibaguë. The highest point of the road, the Garito del Paramo, is 11,500 feet above the level of the sea. As the foot of the mountain, towards the banks of the Cauca, is only 3,150 feet, the climate there is generally mild and temperate. The path-way which forms the passage of the Cordilleras is only 12 or 15 inches in breadth, and has the appearance, in several places, of a gallery dug, and left open to the sky. In this part of the Andes, as almost in every other, the rock is covered with a thick stratum of clay. The streamlets which flow down the mountains have hollowed out gullies about 20 feet deep. Along these crevices, which are full of mud, the traveller is forced to grope his passage; the darkness of which is increased by the thick vegetation that covers the opening above. The oxen, which are the beasts of burden commonly used in this country, can scarcely force their way through these galleries, some of which are more than a mile in length; and if, perchance, the traveller meets them in one of these passages, he finds no means of avoiding them but by turning back, and climbing the earthen wall which borders the crevice, and keeping himself suspended by

ANDES.

Modes of passing them.

Natural bridges.

Pass of the mountain of Quindin.

The Quebradas, or chasms in the Andes.

ANDES, laying hold of the roots which penetrate to his depth from the surface of the ground.

"We traversed the mountain of Quindiu in the month of October 1801, on foot, followed by twelve oxen, which carried our collections and instruments, amid a deluge of rain, to which we were exposed during the last three or four days in our descent on the western side of the Cordillera. The road passes through a country full of bogs, and covered with bamboos. Our shoes were so torn by the prickles which shoot out from the roots of these gigantic graminæ, that we were forced, like all other travellers who dislike being carried on men's backs, to go bare-footed. This circumstance, the continual humidity, the length of the passage, the muscular force required to tread in a thick and muddy clay, the necessity of fording deep torrents of icy water, render this journey extremely fatiguing; but, however painful, it is accompanied by none of those dangers with which the credulity of the people alarms travellers. The road is narrow, but the places where it skirts the precipices are very rare.

"When travellers reach Ibaguë, and prepare to cross the forests of Quindiu, they pluck in the neighbouring mountains several bundled leaves of the vijao, a plant of the family of the bananas, which forms a genus approaching to the thalia, and which must not be confounded with the *heliconia bibai*. These leaves, which are membranous and silky, like those of the musa, are of an oval form, two feet long, and 16 inches broad. Their lower surface is a silvery white, and covered with a farinaceous substance, which falls off in scales. This peculiar varnish enables them to resist the rain during a long time. In gathering these leaves, an incision is made in the middle rib, which is the continuation of the foot-stalk, and this serves as a book to suspend them, when the moreable roof is formed. On taking it down they are spread out, and carefully rolled up in a cylindrical bundle. It requires about a bundled weight of leaves to cover a hut large enough to hold six or eight persons. When the travellers reach a spot in the midst of a forest where the ground is dry, and when they propose to pass the night, the cargueros lop a few branches from the trees, with which they make a tent. In a few minutes this slight timber-work is divided into squares, by the stalks of some climbing plant, or the threads of the agave, placed in parallel lines, twelve or thirteen inches from each other. The vijao leaves meanwhile become unrolled, and are now spread over the above work, so as to cover it like the tiles of a house. These huts, thus hastily built, are cool and commodious. If, during the night, the traveller feels the rain, he points out the spot where it enters, and a leaf is sufficient to obviate the inconvenience. We passed several days in the valley of the Boquia, under one of these leafy tents, which was perfectly dry, amidst violent and incessant rains."

Ronda.

Some very excellent public roads have been cut with great labour in the neighbourhood of Chimborazo, one of which is 1,000 miles in length; and similar labours of the ancient incas of Peru may be found throughout that interesting province. Over the Rio Desaguadero, in Buenos Ayres, is a singular road-way, formed of rushes, which is attributed to Copac Yupanqui, the fifth inca. He is said to have caused four large cables to be made of the long grass of the higher regions of the Andes; two of which were first stretched across the

stream; and bundles of dry rushes and flags fastened upon them; over these the other two cables were stretched, and covered with similar materials, until a safe bridge of 100 yards in length, and five yards broad, was constructed for the passage of his army to the conquest of Charcas. It was repaired, by a Peruvian hero, every six months, and the Spaniards, since their possession of the country, have regularly kept it in good condition. In the more difficult roads, the aid of the sagacious mule is continually required. These are sometimes full of holes, from two to three feet deep, in which the mules set their feet, and draw their bellies and their rider's legs along the ground with the utmost caution. Thus they form a species of steps, without which the precipices would frequently be impracticable. If the mule (which rarely happens) should accidentally place his foot between two of these holes, or in a wrong situation, the rider falls, at whatever peril. Where these holes are wanting, and the tracks are steep and slippery through incessant rains, the traveller is obliged to be preceded by Indians, who dig small trenches along the path with a peculiar species of spade. On other occasions of a smooth and steep descent, the mules seem to feel the pressing danger, and pause at the top of the eminence, as if to ascertain the best mode of procedure. The animal then carefully closes its fore feet, and stretching them out straight, draws its hinder legs in some degree under its body, and glides down the path with inconceivable rapidity. The rider, in this instance, must keep himself fast in his saddle, and impose no restraint upon his mule, for the least possible movement, by destroying the equilibrium, may precipitate both down the steep sides of the rocks. Whenever all is thus committed to themselves, the mules will exactly follow the different windings of the path, and pass the greatest irregularities with safety.

The water-falls of the Andes are numerous, and occasionally very interesting and imposing in their appearance. Humboldt was highly gratified at that of Tequendama, in the plains of Bogota, a mass of waters forty feet broad at the edge of the cataract, running first at the height of 7,465 feet from the level of the ocean, and thundering down 600 feet perpendicularly into a gloomy quebrada. The whole landscape seems to combine to soften the horrors of this part of the scenery. Luxuriant trees and barbacous plants reach to the very edges of the numerous precipices around, and display, according to this author, a remarkable freshness of vegetation. The climate is temperate in its vicinity, and fine crops of wheat are seen in all parts of the plain; below, the traveller feels a sensible approach to the ardour of equatorial regions; delightfully relieved, however, by the dashing spray and dews of the water-fall. A singular tradition of Tradition the natives respecting the formation of this cataract is respecting Tequendama, to whose useful collections on the subject of South American geography, we have been frequently indebted in this article. "In remote times, when the sun alone gave the earth light, and the people of the plain of Bogota were savage barbarians, an old man, totally unlike the natives, suddenly appeared amongst them from the east, with a white beard, and flowing garments. This was Bochica. He instructed them in agriculture, &c.; and with him came a woman, who, as well as himself, had three names; one of which was Chia; she was very beauti-

ANDES.

Superiority of the mules.

Water-falls.

Tradition respecting Tequendama.

ANDES.
—
ANDIRA.

ful, very malevolent, and overturned every thing Bochica attempted. By her magic she swelled the rivers and overflowed the plain; so that the people, with the exception of a few, who escaped to the mountains, perished in the waters. Bochica, exasperated at her conduct, drove Chia from the earth; and she became the moon. He then, by the mighty force of his arm, broke a passage through the rocks, and constituted the fall of the Tequendama; by which means the lake formed by Chia was drained, and the plain of Bogota rendered more beautiful and fertile than it had been before.

"The appearance of the plain of Bogota, at this moment, justifies the tradition of its having formerly been a lake. Low summits appear here and there like islets, and the whole plain is rendered marshy by the numerous streams which cross it in every direction."

Difference
between the
Andes and
the great
mountains
of Europe.

The Andes differ essentially from the mountains of Europe which approach their altitudes, in the circumstance of their entire freedom from those icy formations which constitute the glaciers of the Alps, and from the tremendous visitation of the avalanches of those regions. The variation of the temperament in climates under the equator is so trifling, as rarely to disturb the solidity of the vast collections of snow on the upper parts of these mountains, which literally, therefore, retain the accumulation of a thousand winters. On the Alps and Pyrenees, the case is widely different; for as the sun, in spring, acquires progressive power, immense portions of the upper fields of snow gradually detach themselves from the rest, and, in the rapidity of their descent, put other masses of the same nature in motion, till, spreading wider, and gaining accumulated force, the whole collection rushes down with the velocity of lightning, and spreads devastation through all the adjacent plains. The eboulements of the Alps, or the splitting of immense rocks by the change of weather, which spring therefore from the same cause, are also little known in the Andes.

Deserts of
the Andes.

The highest deserts of the Andes are in the north, called Paramos, and in Peru, Punas; and the air in these places is generally of so acute and peculiar a cold, as rather to pierce the vitals than affect the exterior

feelings; hence it is not an uncommon circumstance to meet occasionally with bodies of travellers who have fallen victims to the inclemency of the weather, and whose countenances wear the horrid appearance of laughter, owing to the contraction of the muscles at the period of dissolution. In these deserts, the pine ceases to linger last of the more stately tribes of vegetables, and accompanied only by a low sort of moss. It is found at the height of 13,000 feet from the level of the sea. The larger trees of every order begin progressively to appear at the height of between 10,000 and 9,000 feet in descent. The oak is met with at an altitude of 9,200 feet, and never descends near the equatorial regions below that of 5,500 feet; it is, however, occasionally to be met with in the neighbourhood of Mexico, at the height of only 2,620 feet.

The climate, which is best adapted to the generality of European grain, lies between the altitudes of 6,000 and 9,000 feet. Under the equator, wheat will seldom spring up below the elevation of 4,500 feet, or ripen above that of 1,080. The European colonists have not, however, sufficiently varied their experiments in agriculture, to ascertain with precision the capabilities of these regions. According to Humboldt, there are very fine harvests of wheat near Victoria, in the province of the Caracacas, at 1,640 or 1,900 feet above the sea; and at Cuba, even at a smaller elevation, the wheat fields will come to maturity. Rye, and more particularly barley, will resist cold better than wheat; and consequently ripen at a much greater elevation. Maize is cultivated in the same climate as the banana, but extends over a wider sphere, as it flourishes at 9,000 feet above the level of the sea. The lower grounds of the Andes, within the tropics, abounds in oranges, pine apples, the most delicious fruits, and every diversity of the vegetable tribes. Cacao, maize, cassava, indigo, coffee, sugar, and cotton, are cultivated with great success. Cacao and indigo, the banana-tree, and the root of the cassava, require immoderate heat, in order to ripen them; but cotton and coffee will flourish at a very considerable elevation; and in the more temperate parts of the kingdom of Quito, sugar arrives at a very superior degree of perfection.

ANDES.
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ANDIRON.

Vegetable
products.

ANDES, ANDEPAVE, or ANDICAVI, a people among the Celts, east of the Nannetes, or Nannetes, north of the river Niger. It is now the country of Anjou. The present town of Angers was the original capital, called Julianus, or Civitas Andicavorum. The inhabitants were a brave people, who strenuously defended their liberty. During the reign of Tiberius, having considered themselves wantonly oppressed by taxation, they raised a rebellion, and opposed the imperial armies with considerable success. *Cæs. Bell. Gall. ii. c. 35.* LUCAN, l. v. 434. Also a village near Mantua, in Italy, now called Bandeda, the birth-place of Virgil, sometimes called Andionis. *ITAL. viii. v. 595.*

ANDEOURANTE, a river, on the eastern coast of Madagascar, flowing through the country of the Batlimenes. The town, or village, of Andevourante, is situated on its banks, and is said to be able to bring an army of 10,000 fighting men into the field.

ANDIRA, or ANOELIN, in Botany, a tree cultivated

in Brazil for its wood, which is hard and suitable for building; it belongs to the class Diadelphina and order, Decandria.

ANIRIA, in Zoology, the name of a dangerous kind of cat, in Brazil, which attacks the feet of persons when asleep, and opens the veins with such caution, that it is extremely difficult to perceive its approach.

ANDIRON. It seems unsettled whether this word should be written *Hand* or *End-iron*, or considered as a corruption of *Brand-iron*. In A. S. there is *Brand-isen*, and in Dutch *Brandysen*. (*Isen* in the former and *Ysen* in the latter, meaning *Iron*); whence *Du Cange* derives the French *Landier*, formerly *Andeir*, and the barbarous Latin *Andela*.

See Good! I have

Some orphan's goods to come here.

ANA. Of what kind, Sir?

Sus. Pewter and brass, andirons, and kitchen ware.

Ben. Jemmy's Alchemid.

AND-
IRON.
—
AND-
VER.

If we place a needle touched at the foot of tongue or anilina, it will obvert or turn aside its fillic or north point, and confirm its cusps or south extremity unto the anilina.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

ANDLAU, a town of France, in Lower Alsace, department of the Lower Rhine, arrondissement of Bar, situated on a river of the same name. It is 18 miles distant from Strasburg S. S. W., and contains a population of 2,184 inhabitants, with a castle. Before the revolution, there was a convent, appropriated to ladies of noble extraction. The lady abbess had the title of a princess of the empire, and a seat among the Rhenish prelates. The barons of Andlau held this town as a fief of the abbess. E. lon. 7°, 30. N. lat. 48° 24'.

ANDOLSHEIM, a town of France, in Alsace, department of the Upper Rhine, arrondissement of Colmar. It is the head of a canton, and contains 1,800 inhabitants.

ANDOMADUNUM, in Ancient Geography, a Roman colony and city in Gaul, now called Langres, which appears to have been respectable from the remains of antiquity that are still visible. Its termination implies that its situation was on an eminence.

ANDORRE, a rich valley in the south of France, on the borders of Spain, now comprehended in the department of the Arrege, arrondissement of Foix. It contains six communes, with thirty-four villages and hamlets; and imparts its name to a village nine miles from Urga, in Catalonia. This district is remarkable for several extensive iron-works. The forests are very spacious, and supply the iron-works with fuel. It contains also extensive and excellent pasture land.

ANDOVER, a market-town in the county of Hampshire, 13 miles N. W. of Winchester, on the London road to Salisbury, from which it is distant 18 miles, and 63 from London. It derives its name from its situation on a small river, called the Ande, and is very pleasantly seated on the side of the Downs. It is a large, handsome, and thriving place, having a population of about 3,300 inhabitants. It has a weekly market on Saturdays. The market-house is a neat building, reared in a spacious square. This town has long been famous for its manufacture of malt, and, formerly, for its shalloons. Worsted-yarn is spun here, principally by the women; but not in very considerable quantity at present. The town is governed by a bailiff, steward, recorder, two justices, and twenty-two capital burgesses, who annually choose the bailiff; and he appoints two sergeants at mace to attend him. The corporation sends two members to parliament. The charter granting to the town this privilege was conferred by Queen Elizabeth; but it is said to have received an earlier one from King John, and to have sent representatives to parliament in the reign of Edward I. The church, which is dedicated to St. Mary, is a very ancient edifice. It was given by William the Conqueror to the French Abbey of St. Florent, at Saumur, in Anjou, and became a cell to that monastery. It was dissolved by statute, in the second year of Henry V., and was granted to Winchester College, in whose patronage it is at present. Here is an alms-house for the maintenance of six poor men, a free-school founded in 1569, and a charity-

school for thirty boys. In the neighbourhood, and a few miles from the town, are the remains of some Roman encampments.

ANNOVER is also the name of a large town of North America, in the state of Massachusetts, Essex county, divided into two parishes, or districts, containing together 2,863 inhabitants. It is 20 miles from Newbury Port W., and about 23 from Boston N. It contains a paper-mill and powder-mill, which, during the late war, supplied the American army with gunpowder. It has also a good academy. There are three other places in North America of the same name; one in New Hampshire state, incorporated as early as the year 1779; another in Vermont, 32 miles N. E. of Bennington; and a third in the state of New Jersey, five miles from New Town S. S. E., near the source of the Pequest river.

ANDRACHNE, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Monocia, and order Gynandria.

ANDRACIO, or ANDRACY, a town in the island of Majorca, three leagues S. of Benatufar, with a small harbour, about two miles distant.

ANDRANTSIAES, a race of pastoral people, generally small of stature, cowardly and unwelcome, inhabiting the interior of Madagascar. They have been exposed, by some travellers, to be the dwarfs, or kimoos, mentioned by Rochon; but Fressange denies the existence of dwarfs, in the common acceptance of the term, in any part of Madagascar.

ANDRAPODISMUS, or ANDRAPODOCAPELLI, in Antiquity, the act of selling persons for slaves. The Thessalians were notorious for kidnapping men or children and selling them for slaves, the dealers in which were called Andrapodists.

ANDRASTAIT, or ST. ANDRE, a town of the Austrian empire, in Lower Corinthia, 20 miles from Clagenfurt E. N. E., and 32 from Mahra S. E., situated in the valley of the Lavant. It belongs to the archbishop of Salzburg, and is the seat of a provost and a bishop, who is called bishop of Lavant, at St. Andre.

ANDRAVIRI, or GUADAVIRI, a town of Sumatra, is the centre of the island, on a river, and in a province of the same name. It carries on a flourishing trade in gold and spices with the whole of the interior, and with the inhabitants of Manincabo.

ANDREANOFKIE-OSTROVA, or ANDRENOVIAN ISLANDS. See ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.

ANDRENA, in Entomology, a name in the Fabrician arrangement for a genus containing thirty-one species of insects, consisting principally of the Apis genus of Linnaeus.

ANDRE DE CUBSAC, ST. a town of France, on the Dordogne, in Guienne, department of the Gironde, arrondissement of Bourdeaux, from which city it is distant four leagues N. It is the head of a canton, and contains 2,580 inhabitants.

ANDRE DE SANGONIS, ST. a town of France, in Languedoc, department of the Hérault, arrondissement of Lodeve, on the river Hérault, six leagues and a-half from Montpellier W. by N. It contains 1,400 inhabitants, who cultivate wine, figs, and other fruits, and manufacture brandy.

ANDRE DE VALBORGNE, ST. a town of France, in Languedoc, department of the Gard, arrondissement

AND-
VER.
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ANDRE
DE VAL-
BORGNE,
ST.

ANDRE
DE VAL-
BOURGNE,
ST.
AN-
DREW'S,
ST.

ment of Vigan, and head of a canton, containing about 1,850 inhabitants.

ANDRE DE VILLENEUVE, ST. a town of France, also in Languedoc, department of the Gard, *arrondissement of Uzès*. It is a fortified town, and contains a population of 3,300 inhabitants.

ANDREA, ST. a town of Naples, in the *Principato Ultra*. It contains about 2,200 inhabitants, and belongs to the archbishop of Conza. The same name is given to a group of islands in the gulf of Venice, N. of Ragusa.

ANDREASBERG, a town of the kingdom of Hannover, in the principality of Grubenhagen, in the Harz, 10 miles S. S. E. of Goslar. In the year 1810 there were 3,359 inhabitants; many of whom were employed in the iron, cobalt, and silver mines, in the neighbourhood. The latter are very valuable, and usually employ about 130 hands. The water necessary in the working of these mines is supplied from a large reservoir, constructed with much ingenuity.

ANDREDCHESTER, in Ancient Geography, a town of Britain, conjectured by Somner to be *Pevensey*, or *Hastings*; and by Camden, to be *Newenden*, in Kent. Ella, with the Saxons, furiously attacked the Britons who defended it, but it was shortly afterwards taken, and all who were discovered alive within its walls were promiscuously slaughtered.

ANDREW, ST. knights of, a military order of knighthood in Scotland, called also the order of the Thistle. Their ensign is a gold collar composed of thistles, linked together with annulets of gold, having pendant thereto the image of St. Andrew, with his cross, and the motto—*Nemo me impune lacessit*. Authors are divided as to the origin of this order; according to the bishop of Ross, the night before the battle between Hungus, king of the Picts, and Athelstane, king of Northumberland, a bright cross, similar to that on which St. Andrew suffered, appeared to Hungus, suspended in the air; as he gained the victory, he afterwards bore that cross as his arms, in which he has been followed by all the kings of Scotland. Some attribute the introduction of this order to Achaïus, king of Scotland, who, when he had formed a league of amity with Charlemagne, took for his device the Thistle and the Rue, and his motto was *Pour ma défense*. Others place the institution of this order in the reign of Charles VII. of France, who, receiving great assistance from the Scotch, renewed the league of amity which had been before entered into with King Achaïus.

ANDREW, ST. knights of, a Russian order of knighthood in honour of St. Andrew, who was supposed to have introduced Christianity into that country. It was instituted by Peter the Great, in the year 1698, for the purpose of encouraging the activity of his nobles in the war with the Turks. The badge of this order is a medal of gold, suspended from the right shoulder by a blue ribbon, with St. Andrew's cross on one side, and on the reverse, 'Czar Pierre, Monarque de toute la Russie.'

ANDREW'S, ST. an important city of Scotland, on the Firth of Tay, in the county of Fife, nine miles from Cupar, and 39 from Edinburgh, W. lon. 2°, 50'. N. lat. 56°, 19'. It is about a mile and a half in circuit, consisting of three principal streets; two churches of the kirk of Scotland, one episcopalian, two dissenting meeting-houses, and a university, having two col-

VOL. XVII.

AN-
DREW'S,
ST.

leges: St. Salvador's, and St. Mary's. The population amounts to about 3,300 persons. It is a royal burgh; and, in union with Cupar, Perth, Dundee, and Forfar, returns one member to parliament. St. Andrew's was formerly a place of considerably greater extent than at present; and contained several fine specimens of ancient architecture, and ecclesiastical antiquities, which are now demolished. The iconoclastic zeal of the reformers, in the year 1559, levelled with the ground its noble cathedral, which extended 370 feet by 180, within the walls. There were also several religious houses here, particularly the priory of St. Andrew's, one of the richest and best endowed monasteries in Scotland. Remains of an ancient chapel, called the chapel of St. Rule, or St. Regulus, a Greek monk, to whom tradition gives the merit of having been the founder of the city, about the close of the fourth century, are still to be seen. Here also are ruins of an ancient chapel, formerly belonging to a convent of Black Friars; and of a castle erected by Bishop Roger, in the year 1200, on the edge of the precipice, washed by the sea. This castle became the palace of the bishops of the diocese of St. Andrew's, which was the metropolitan see of Scotland. In front of it, in the year 1545, one Wishart, a minister of the reformed religion, was burnt for heresy by the Catholics. In the following year the Protestants retaliated this piece of cruelty, by the assassination of the celebrated Primate and Cardinal Beaton, in his own apartment in the castle. The fortress having been subsequently demolished by the reformers, its ruins have latterly been used as a land-mark to mariners.

But the principal object of importance in St. Andrew's, at present, is its university, the origin of which is dated as early as 1412. It consisted of three colleges, St. Salvador's, St. Leonard's, and St. Mary's. St. Leonard's having been alienated, its buildings were converted into private houses; and the foundations of that and St. Salvador's united in 1748. The united foundation is devoted to the study of the learned and foreign languages, philosophy, and the sciences. The building is a quadrangular edifice, extending round an open court, 230 feet long, and 150 wide, with a gateway, surmounted by a spire, 156 feet high. The college church was built in the fifteenth century, about the year 1458, by Bishop Kennedy, and contains a fine specimen of the monumental architecture of those times. This is the tomb of its founder, which was opened in the year 1683, when there were discovered six richly ornamented silver maces; three of which are preserved in the university, and the other three distributed to other universities in Scotland.

The college of St. Mary stands in another part of the city, and is entirely devoted to the study of theology. It was erected, by the enlargement of an older seminary, by Bishop Beaton, in the year 1538. There is a very extensive and increasing library, which is common to both colleges, and now consists of above 36,000 volumes. The number of students at both colleges have never been known to exceed 300; and they do not, at this time, amount to 200. There are fifty-six burgharies, or endowments, belonging to the university, which are constantly conferred on the students.

The parish church is a stately edifice, 162 feet in length, and 63 in breadth. It will hold 2,500 persons.

4 c

AN-
DREW'S,
ST.
—
ANDRO-
LEPSY.

One of the most valuable monuments which it contains, is a lofty one of white marble, erected to the memory of Archbishop Sharp, who was murdered by the reformers, in the year 1679. The story of this murder is designated by a rude piece of sculpture, in which all the tragical circumstances of that event are represented.

This city still retains a coasting trade of some importance; which, however, is constantly retarded by the low situation of the shore in the bay, and the narrow entrance of the harbour. It is also much exposed to the north-east winds. The principal manufactures of the town are those of sail-cloths, which, lately employed 150 weavers, and golf-balls; the game of golf being greatly practised in various parts of Scotland.

ANDREW'S, St. a town of North America, situated between the United States and New Brunswick, in a small island of the same name. There is also another town of this name, in Vermont, North America, about 100 miles from Bennington.

ANDRIA, in Antiquity, entertainments in which the whole city, or tribe, here a part, instituted by Muses of Crete, and afterwards introduced at Sparta by Lycurgus. The place where the feasts were given was called Andrian.

ANDRIA, a town of Naples, five miles from Trani, in the province of Bari. It bears the title of a duchy, belonging to the house of Caraffa, and has a bishop, who is suffragan of Totti.

ANDRICLUS, or ANDRICULUS, in Ancient Geography, a lofty mountain of Cilicia, between the promontory of Aemurium and the river Selinus; also a river of Troas, running into the Sennander. *PLIN. v. 27.*

ANDROGYNES, in Fabulous Antiquity, a nation of Africa, said to have been situated beyond the Nymones, and to have borne, individually, the distinguishing characteristics of both sexes. *LUCRET. v. 837. LIV. xviii. 11. AUSEN. lxix. 12. PLIN. v. 2.* There is also a fable in Plato (perhaps derived originally from the Scripture account of the formation of man) of the gods having at first created man with two bodies and two sexes, and that this being having made war against the celestial powers, Jupiter separated the male from the female. The astrologers called those planets Androgynous, which are sometimes hot (i. e. when near the sun) and sometimes cold and moist, according to their system, i. e. when near the moon.

ANDROGYNES, in Physiology, a name which has sometimes been given to those individuals of the human species who have appeared to unite in themselves the attributes of both sexes. See HERMAPHRODITE.

ANDROGYNOUS, or ANDROGINA, in Botany, a term used for plants bearing on the same root both male and female flowers.

ANDROIDES, in Mechanics (from *andros*, a man, and *eidos*, appearance), is a machine, or species of automaton, bearing an exact resemblance to the human figure, and so ingeniously constructed, that it imitates certain motions and actions of the living man. See AUTOMATON, where all the different kinds of these self-moving figures will be regularly classed and described.

ANDROLEPSY, in Antiquity, a word resembling our term reprisals. When a person had escaped after

committing murder, and the kindred of the deceased found in what place he had taken refuge, they were sanctioned in seizing three men in the house or city where he was sheltered, and detaining them until satisfaction was made for the offence, or the delinquent given up to justice.

ANDROMEDA, in Astronomy, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, situated between Cassiopeia and Pegasus, representing the figure of a woman chained.

ANDROMEDA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Decandria, and order Monogynia.

ANDROPHAGI (of *andros*, men, and *phago*, to eat), men-eaters. See ANTHROPHAGI.

ANDROPOGON, or ANDROPOGON, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Polygamia, and order Monocia. One species of this plant is well known as the perfume called spikeard.

ANDROS, or ANDRO, one of the Cyclades, in the Archipelago, E. lon. 25°, 2' and N. lat. 37°, 40'. See CYCLADES.

ANDROSACE, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Monogynia.

ANDROSCOGGIN RIVER. See AMORISCOGIN.

ANDRYALA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Syngenesia, and order Polygamia regularis.

ANDUJAR, or ANDUSAR, a small but respectable city of Andalusia, in Spain, in the province of Jaen. It stands in the centre of a beautiful plain, watered by the Guadalquivir, over which is a bridge of 17 arches. The town is defended by an ancient castle, and is the seat of a corregidor. It has a considerable trade in silk, corn, oil, wine, fruit, and honey, and contains about 14,000 inhabitants. The neighbourhood is noted for the making of the Spanish alcazras, or wine coolers.

ANDUSE, a town of France, in Languedoc, department of the Gard, arrondissement of Alais, and head of a canton. It is eight leagues and a half from Nîmes, and eleven N. of Montpellier, situated on the banks of the Gardon. There is a population of about 5,000 persons, chiefly Protestants, employed in the manufacture of woollen stuffs, stockings, and hats, for the fair at Beaucaire.

ANE, a town of France, in the modern department of the Jura, arrondissement of St. Claude, in Franche Comté, between Besançon and Geneva, on the Jura mountains. There is an ancient castle here, which is the only object of interest in the town.

ANEAR, OR NEAR.

The cardinal continues to persecute me; and to fright the clergy as much as he can from coming near me.

Bp. Atterbury's Letters.

ANECDOTE, s. } Anecdote, a. not, as, from, and
ANECDOCTAL, } *anecdoctos* (from *anecdoctos*), given.

Not yet given out, published, made known, divulged. Now usually applied to any little story, or incident of private life.

Antiquity has preserved a beautiful instance in an anecdote of Alexander, the tyrant of Greece, who, though he had an insatiable hunger for blood, yet he took delight in cruelty, inasmuch as to murder many of his subjects every day, without cause and without pity; yet, at the bare representation of a tragedy, which related the misfortunes of Hercules and Antiochus, he was so touched with the fictitious distress which the poet had wrought up in it, that he burst out into a flood of tears.

Seneca's Seneca.

ANEC-
DOTE.
ANEMUR,
CAPE.

If you have any thing worth communicating, in return, I hope you will not refuse the trouble of giving me the intelligence; not only so we are all of us reasonably fond, you know, of news, but because interesting anecdotes afford examples which may be of use in respect to our own conduct. *Melmoth's Plying's Letter.*

Anecdotal traditions, whose original authority is unknown, or justly suspicious, and that have required only an appearance of generality and notoriety, because they have been frequently and boldly repeated from age to age, deserve no more regard than doctrines evidently ascribed to the Scriptures.

Bolingbroke's Letter to A. Pope.

ANELE', ANFILE, or ANOYL. A. S. On-clan.
To oil, to rub, or anoint with oil.

Applied by old theological writers particularly to the extreme unction.

For no man may recreate the body of Christ, no man may marry, no man may be oiled or anointed as they call it, no man may receive orders, except he be first absterge.

The whole Works of William Tyndall, lcc. 6d. 157. c. 2.

Last of all cometh the anointing without promise, and therefore without the spirit and without profit, but altogether unprofitful and superfluous. *Id. 6d. 153. c. 1.*

S. Gregory is also pretended in objection; for he gave dispensation to the Priests of Sardina, at baptisms urgent, to anoint baptizand people.

Taylor's Episcopacy Annotat.

Consanguis is used in antiquity for any signifying with the Cross and anointing. Thus it is used in the first American Council for extreme unction, which is there in case of extreme necessity permitted to Presbyters: *Hereticus in mortis discrimine posuit. Si Catholici non desideret, id est Episcopus & Presbyter cum Chrisma, & benedictione, singularem placet. Consanguis est the word, and it was clearly in extreme unction, for that rite was not then allowed, and it was in anointing a dying body, and a part of reconciliation, and so limited by the sequent Canon, and not to be fancied of any other consanguis.*

Id.

ANELECTRIC BODIES, amongst the French Experimental Philologists, are bodies that are non-conductors of the electric fluid.

ANEMOCHORD, a former name of the Æolian Harp, which see.

ANEMOMETER (compounded of *anemos*, wind, and *metron*, measure), is a machine for measuring the force of the wind. It is also sometimes called a wind-gauge. Several different instruments of this kind will be found described in our treatise on PNEUMATICS, Div. II.

ANEMONE, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Polyandria, and order Polygynia.

ANEMONY, *Anemos*, i. e. *Ventus*, the wind, sic dict: quod vento hante spiritatur; because, when the wind blows, it openeth. *Minshew.*

Here in Adonis' gardens grow,

What neither Age nor winter know.

The Boy, with whom Love seem'd to dy,

Bleeds in this pale Anemone.

Sandy's Ovid Fronto to the Queen.

Thus, hand-in-hand, around his grave they go,

And sad sighs and falling lilies strow;

With sprigs of myrtle mix'd, and scattering cry,

"So sweet and soft the shepherd was! no soon decreed to die!"

There, fresh in dew remembrance of their woes,

His name the young anemones disclose.

Eden's Florin.

See ye anemones their leaves unfold,

With rubies shining and with living gold.

While crystal showers from weeping clouds descend,

Enjoy the presence of thy lawful friend.

Sir Wm. Jones's Turkish Ode of Melek.

ANEMUR, CAPE, a cape on the south coast of Carriannin, and the most southern point of Asia Minor,

in E. lon. 32°, 30', and N. lat. 36°, 15', about 120 miles from Conieh. This, though once a considerable city, is now in a ruinous state. It is supposed to have been the Anemurium of the ancients. The present town is called Old Anemur, by the Turks. The castle of Anemur stands about six miles east of the cape, on the edge of the sea, extending about 800 feet by 300. The citadel, placed on a rocky eminence, commands two open coasts, surrounded by a chain of variously-shaped towers.

ANEN', *prep.*

ANENST,

ANENY,

ANENYIS,

ANENY'IS.

Anenst, in the Pardoners and Tapsters, seems to signify, Concerning. *Anen*, and *Anenys*, in Maundeville, Against, opposite to.

Neam, A. S. near, is the etymology proposed by Skinner; and Ongeam, A. S. ex adverso, is preferred by Dr. Jamieson, who, under Fore-ancnt, cites from Luke viii. 26. Foran ongeam, over against, Galilee. But an etymology, which will satisfactorily account for the various applications of these words, is still to be sought. Stowe writes *foreancnt*.

And Jesus biddeth him and sayde anenst men it is impossible, but not anenst God for alle thinges ben possible anenst God.

Wiclif. Mark. ch. 3.

Therefore anenst their ostia I wol in so manere

Deane ne determyne.

Chaucer. Pardoner and Tapster.

Let no man rise behind, make all things sure anenst our backs, I lead thee through this lane, and wide, and waste put all to wreckis.

Arden. by Thomas Phaer, book ii.

And sure that Vale of Josephath, out of the Cytre, is the Chirche of seynt Steuene, where he was stoned to deith.

Sir John Maundeville, p. 96.

But I trowe, that 100000 men of Armes myght not passen the Desertis only, for the grete multitude of wyldis Beestes, and of grete Dragons, and of grete Serpentes, that there ben, that shal and devoure alle that comen anenst his face.

Id. p. 368.

Sic he shall have a bel, that's Abel;

And by it standeth one whose name is Dee;

In a rag gown, there's D, and Reg, that's drag;

And right anenst him a dog snarling er;

There's Dragger, Abel Dragger.

Ben. Jonson's Alchemist.

Within y^e church of S. Paul, to wit, from the west gate of it unto the uppermost greese or step at the gylting in of the quier, was made a piece of timber and boards to go upon, from the sayd west dore unto the fore-named greese, of the height of 6 footes from the ground, or more; and foremost the place where the consistory court is kept within the said church, was errected a standing, like unto a mountain, w^{ch} steeple on every side, which was covered over with red wadded, and in likewise was all the walls.

Sir John Chron. How's Ed. 1614.

The eighth of February 1577, the Lord Dacres Warden of the northes, late-erect Southland cast into Scotland, with five hundred men, by the King's commandment, and there proclaimed that the Scots should come into the King's power by the first of March following, or else to stand at their perils.

Id.

AN-END, in Naval Affairs, is the situation of the mast or boom when perpendicular to the plane of the deck or tops. The top-masts are "an end" when in their usual situation, with regard to the lower masts.

ANET, a town of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire, arrondissement of Dreux, and head of a canton: three leagues from Dreux, and 10 from Chantreaux, containing a population of about 1,570 inhabitants. Henry IV. erected a beautiful castle here

4 c 2

ANET. for the duchess of Valentinois. It afterwards belonged to the duke of Penthièvre. In the neighbourhood there is a large iron-forge. This is also the name of a large village in the canton of Berne, in Switzerland, 17 miles from Berne. It has a parish church, and several vineyards.

ANETHUM, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Dignia.

ANEURISM, in Anatomy, an excessive dilatation, or preternatural swelling of an artery. See **ANATOMY** and **SURGERT**, Div. ii.

ANEW. Of new. See **NEW**.

*His falsehood is not now a new
It is to long that he him knew
This is not the first day
For Wicked tongue hath custom sic
Young folks to bewrie
And false lettings on him lie.*

*Chaucer, The Roman of the Rose, fo. 134. c. 7.
Lat eich of thame his hap and fortune new,
Quiddir so the falsis has detourit of new
Trotanis to be ungett with Iulianis,
To thare myselve, or wraik of the Troianis.*

Douglas, Book x. p. 317.

He that will enter in at this gate, must be made a new: his head will els be to great, he must be rethought all that he hath learned, to be made leuse for to enter in.

The whole Workes of Tyndall, &c. fo. 241. c. 1.

O Vulcan, the Gods' great smith, we beseech thee to work us anew in thy furnace, and of two make us one; which he presently did; and ever since true lovers are either all one, or else desire to be united.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

And he can as easily form our bodies anew, fitted for the purposes of a better life, as he could form them originally, fitted for the purposes of this.

Secker's Sermons

When they [The Jewish copyists] had written a word, or part of a word, wrongly, and immediately saw their mistake, they left the mistake uncorrected, and wrote the word anew after it.

Leath's Jewish Prelim. Dis.

ANFRAC TUOSE, ad. Lat. Anfractus (am, ANFRAC TUOUS, around, and frango, fractured, ANFRAC TUOUSNESS, n. tum, to break.)

Broken round, so as to destroy the regular arch or circuit.

Some [Unicorn's horns] are plain, as that in St. Mark's, in Venice; others wreathed about, as that at St. Dionis near Paris, with anfractuous spires, and cockley turnings about it, which probably is the effect of age, those wreaths being but the wrinkles of most vivacious unicorns.

Feller's Worthies, London.

Behind the drum are several vaults and anfractuous cavities in the ear-bone, filled only with what naturalists call the insolated air; so to intend the least sound imaginable, that the sense might be affected with it.

Ray, on the Creation.

ANGAD, a very extensive and inferior district in Algiers, separating that territory from Morocco. It is about 84 miles in length, and 54 in breadth, and supports a considerable population of Arabs, who are wild and fierce.

ANGADIVA, or **ANGENIVA,** an island on the coast of Canara, in the Indian ocean, at which the early Portuguese navigators refitted and provisioned their vessels in their voyages to India. Almeida erected a fortress upon it, which is still standing. The island is about a mile in length, and two miles distant from the shore, containing a small town.

ANGAR, or **ANGAM,** an uninhabited island in the Persian gulf, near Kishma, almost covered with salt-pits and metallic ores. It is about 12 miles round, and contains the ruins of a considerable town.

ANGARAES, a province of Peru, in South America, 72 miles in length, and 12 in breadth; containing about 30 settlements, or villages, inhabited by Indians. The chief town is Gnanavelica. Although the climate is not generally esteemed very favourable, the country abounds in wheat, maize, and other grain; as also in cattle of every kind, and several valuable earths for painting, as vermilion, amber, &c. The sugar-cane, some fruits and herbs, together with a species of hay, which is used for fuel, are cultivated in the valleys, where the air is more temperate. Quicksilver, in very great quantities, is extracted by the miners here, and great profit is derived from it by the inhabitants. The province has an easy communication with the Atlantic ocean, by means of the river Amazonas, which receives some of the head streams of Apurimac.

ANGARI, in Antiquity, public couriers in Persia. The dagger they wore was called a *hanger*, from which it is supposed their name is derived. To expedite the business they were upon, they had the royal licence to seize horses, ships, or men. Their office still continues in Persia, under the modern denomination of *choppers*, who are appointed to carry the dispatches to the provinces; and have the power to take any person's horse, and to issue their orders for a supply of provisions and attendance, when requisite for the dispatch of their business.

ANGARIA, in the Roman Civil Law, was that duty which required subjects to provide waggons, horses, and every requisite to convey corn to the troops, and those things that belonged to the fæscus. This duty is denominated *cursum publicum*, *angarium*, *translatio*, and *avectio*. Horses employed in this way, are called *paraveredi*, and *equi cursuales*. Ships were not included in the *angarium*, though occasionally pressed for the transportation of provisions and necessities.

AGARIATION, *Agario* which Vossius and Du Cange derive from the Greek *Agryneuvn*, from *agryneuo*, One sent; compelled to go. Quicquid te angariaverit miliare unum,—is rendered by Wiclif, "Whosoever constryngeth the a thousand paces," Mat. ch. v. 42. Modern version. "Whosoever shall compel thee to go."

The popes continual exhortations and extortions, under colour also of the Turkish warres, kept these men [the Popes' Merchants] still in vae here in England, to the extreme begging of infinite numbers, who were inslaved (either by persuasion, or cunning, or commanding, or communicating, or extorting) to give way to the popes vulnerable extortions.

Speed's Hist. of St. Brit.

But if, in these earthly angariations, one mile, according to our Saviour's context, may bring on another; yet, in spiritual evil ways, no compulsion can prevail upon a resolved spirit.

Ep. Hui's Temptations Repelled.

ANGASMAYU, a river of South America, in the province of Popayna, running from E. to W. and entering the river Palis, in W. lon. 78°, 24', and N. lat. 24°.

ANGIOLOGY, in Anatomy, a description of the vessels of the system, including the arteries, veins, and lymphatics. See **ANATOMY**, Div. ii.

ANGEL, n. ἄγγελος, *angelus*, any one sent, a messenger. **ANGELICAL,** Applied particularly to the messengers of God:—(in A. S. Goddes wrend-gast, i. e. God's Errand Ghost) and sometimes of the devil.

**ANGA-
RAES.
—ANGEL**

ANGEL.

To that which, partaking of the nature of good Angels, is exquisitely beautiful, or lovely.

Alto illo p[er] morem et in se p[er] gignit.
Died S. Danstan, men herid p[er] angelu syng.

R. Brunne, p. 38.

After these things I saigh foure angelu standinge on the foure corners of the erthe, holdinge foure wyndis of the erthe that thei blowen not on the erthe, onurh on the see, neirish on any tree, and I saigh another angel thynge for the ryng of the sunne, that hadde a signe of the lyounge pel, and he cryede with a grete voise to the foure angelu to whiche it was gooun to noys the erthe and the see and seide, nyle gei noys erthe and see, neithir trees til we nacken the srammatis of oure god to the serfordis of hem.

Wiclyf. Apocalyp. c. vii.

And after that, I sawe. liij. Angeli stode on the iij. cornes of the erth holdyng the foure wyndes of the erth, y^e the wyndes shold not blowe on y^e erth, neithir on y^e see, neithir on any tree. And I sawe a nother angeli ascende fro the ryayngs of the sunne, which had the scale of the lyounge God, and he cryed with a loudre voise to the foure Angeli (he whom power was goun to hurt y^e erth & y^e see) sayng; hurt not the erth, neithir the see, neithir the trees, tyll we have sealed the srammatis of oure God in their fereheades. Bible, 1539.

Cresced was this ladies name right
As to my dome, in al Troies chit
Most fairest lady, for passio every wight
So angeli she shew her talle beate
That no mortal thing seemed she.

Chaucer. Troilus, book i. fo. 157. c. 4.

But yet it was a figure
Most liche to manumbe creature,
But as of beaute leuenliche
It was most to an angeli liche.

Gower. Con. A. Book vi.

Oh speake againe bright angeli, for thou art
As glorious to this eight being ere my head,
As is a winged messenger of heauen
Vnto the white plumed wondring eyes
Of mortalls that fall backe to gaze on him.

Shakespeare's Rom. and Jul.

Man be made, and for him built,
Magnificent this world, and earth his seat,

Himself promoueth; and, O indolgy!
Subjected to his service angel-ings,
And flaming militars to watch and tread
Their earthly charge.

Milton's Par. Lost. Book ii.

Angelic actions may be reduced into these three general kinds: first, most delectable love arising from the visible apprehension of the purity, glory, and beauty of God invisible, saving only those angels that are pure; secondly, admiration grounded upon the evidence of the greatness of God, on whom they see how all things depend; thirdly, imitation, bred by the presence of his exemplary goodness, who cannot but before them daily to fill heaven and earth with the rich treasures of the most free and undeserved grace.

Hooker's Eccles. Polity.

The ancient Hebrews (as we learn from Nachmonides) styled it the Resurrection-body the angelical clothing of the soul, and Testation himself, angelicetum carnis, angelized flesh.

Cudworth's Intellectual System.

When thou, attended gloriously from heaven,
Shalt in the sky appear, and from thee send
The summoning arch-angels to proclaim
Thy dread tribunal; forthwith from all winds
The living, and forthwith the cited dead
Of all past ages, to the general doom
Shall hasten.

Milton's Par. Lost. Book iii.

'Tis no just ground of complaint in man, that they were not created in the condition of angels; any more than 'tis an injury to inferior creatures, that they are not adorned with the capacities of men.

Clark's Sermons.

The great enemy of mankind, notwithstanding his will and angelic faculties, is the most odious being in the creation.
Spectator, No. 6.
Reason and appetite are masters of our reason in turn; and as we incline to the one, or pursue the other, we rival angels or imitate the brutes.

Goldsmit's in False Learning.

There is a darkness lies upon the actions of the intellectual or angelical world; their manners of subsistence and agency, the power of spirits to move bodies, and the union of our souls with this animal body of ours, are much unknown to us on this account.
Clark's Sermons.

Watts's Logic.

There frequent, at the visionary hour,
When musing midnight reigns or silent noon,
Angelic harps are in full concert heard.

Thomson's Summer.

ANGEL.

ANGEL (ἄγγελος, Gr. מַלְאָךְ Heb.), literally a messenger, "Nomen non naturæ, sed officii," a name not of nature, but of office, applied in the Scriptures, both of the Old and New Testament, to various kinds of agents, acting on the behalf of God and man. As, 1. To human messengers or agents between man and man, 2 Sam. ii. 5; Luke vii. 24. 2. To human messengers acting under a divine commission, Haggaï i. 13; Matt. xi. 10. 3. To officers or representatives of the primitive churches, Rev. i. 20; ii. 1, &c. 4. To inanimate or material agents of God's power or glory in nature, Ps. civ. 4. 5. And, most commonly, to a peculiar order of created intelligences, superior to man in wisdom and in strength, Ps. xci. 11; ciii. 20; Heb. ii. 7. et al.

"There is this difference between the import of such terms, as occurring in their native tongues," observes the judicious Campbell (*Preliminary Dissertations to his Translation of the Gospels*, vi. sec. 2), "and as modernized in translations. In the former, they always retain somewhat of their primitive meaning, and, beside indicating a particular being, or class of beings, they are of the nature of an appellation, and mark a special character or note of distinction in such beings. Whereas, when thus Latinized, or Englished, they answer solely the first of these uses, as they come

nearer the nature of proper names." The term angel, one of those of which this critic was immediately speaking, has fully justified his remark. As it is chiefly used in Scripture, so has it been principally regarded in theology, in relation to a specific order of spiritual beings, of whose nature and qualifications we know little, except what this very term may intend, and the various errands upon which they have been employed will serve to illustrate. The intimations respecting them in Scripture, like their own visits, have been "few and far between;" but this circumstance has been boldly forgotten by theorists and mythologists; while the clue supplied by the remark of Dr. Campbell has been as strangely overlooked. The "special character," or "note of distinction," with regard to these intelligences, will be found in their being the messengers of God, employed on specific occasions to execute His will, and endued with powers equal to such occasions; which embraces all we can learn from Revelation of those powers.

Keeping this remark in view, there can be no question that a distinct and personal existence is attributed to angels in Scripture. Though their nature is not defined, it is mentioned as distinct from that of man, and compared with it, Heb. i. 7 & 10; understanding, affections, will, are attributed to them;

The term itself.

Personal assistance of angels.

ANGEL- and they are spoken of as capable of sin and of obedience.
Their office.

As the word is a name of office, we may first inquire into that office:—and here the author of the Epistle to the Hebrews supplies us with an authentic description of it. "Are they not all ministering spirits sent forth to minister for them who shall be heirs of salvation?" And in the Old Testament, God's people are said to be given in charge of them, to be kept in all their ways, Ps. xci. 11. This extensive commission they appear to have fulfilled in all periods of time. On certain important occasions, and, as it would appear, by extraordinary intimations and assistance of the Most High, they have assumed a material form, and exercised an astonishing command over material nature. In the concerns of the church of God, we find them largely engaged, and frequently appearing; from the time of the call of Abraham to the close of the Christian Scriptures in the Revelations, which they were the instruments of affording to the Apostle John. The law of God, of old, is said to have been ordained, or disposed and ordered by angels, so actively were they employed in the promulgation of it from Mount Sinai; the miraculous conception of our Lord was foretold, and his birth first announced by them; they attended upon him from the period of his temptations to his death, and at his resurrection and ascension. The many personal services which they have been known to render the people of God, cannot here be enumerated: "Their angels" are said, "always to behold the face of our heavenly father; they rejoice in their conversion, they have assisted in their meditations (Dan. ix. 21), relieved them in want, and in personal peril; and peculiarly, perhaps (Luke xvi. 22), attend their dismissal from this lower world. It is announced in Scripture, that they shall attend the second coming of Christ; be employed in the resurrection of his people, and surround him in the day of judgment. Such is, in brief, the testimony of the Bible with regard to the offices of these interesting beings.

Qualifications.

Their qualifications, and so much of their nature as we learn from them, must be matter of inference from such facts as are alluded to above. They are spirits, and if they attend us in "all our ways," delivering, at God's command, from pestilence and plague, and neglectful of "no evil" that may befall us, they must have much that is purely spiritual under their charge, and have a connection, at the same time, with the material world exceedingly intimate and peculiar. Thus we find one of these glorious creatures visible and invisible to other creatures, on the same occasion (Numb. xxii. 22—32); they smite man with diseases, with blindness, and with death; they possess a derivative but a confirmed immortality (Luke xx. 36); and though they generally have appeared in the form of men (and have been occasionally mistaken for men), they have sometimes been surrounded by the most powerful material agents in the execution of the purposes of God (2 Kings vi. 15—17), and have passed un injured through fires and prisons, protecting in the same manner with themselves the persons of men committed to their care.

* "The general sense," says Doddridge, "is plain, that the highest angels do not disdain, on proper occasions, to perform services of protection and friendship for the meanest Christian, (Heb. i. 14.)"

Their numbers are represented in Scripture as very great. Our Lord speaks of his being able to ask of his Father "more than twelve" Roman "legions" of them for his defence, which would amount, at a low computation, to 70,000; and a "thousand thousands" of them, and "ten thousand times ten thousand" can only express what is elsewhere called an "innumerable company of angels."

Orders.

Their orders are described in Scripture by two words—angel and archangel, the latter of which occurs nowhere in the Old Testament, and only twice in the New; applied to one personage, Michael by name, in the Epistle of St. Jude v. 9, and to another, who shall attend in the pomp of our Lord's final descent from heaven, and be principally instrumental in raising the dead, 1 Thess. iv. 16. Whether, in both these instances, Jesus Christ himself may not be intended is worthy the consideration of the Biblical student. Bp. Horsley, with various other critics, decidedly considers him to be meant by the first of them. The word archangel itself simply indicates a superiority of rank or command over angels. The Scriptures name another angel, Gabriel (Luke i. 19), who appeared to Daniel, Zacharias, and the Virgin Mary.

All that can be known of the history of these beings is also peculiar to Revelation; and, as we have hitherto done in this article, we shall strictly confine ourselves, in the first instance, to the few facts contained or implied there.

A multitude of "the heavenly host," mentioned in St. Luke ii. 13, are afterwards called "the angels" who went "away into heaven;" and, perhaps, in Dan. iv. 35, they form what is meant by the "army of heaven." The concluding sentence, therefore, of the narrative of the creation, "Thus the heavens and the earth were finished, and all the host of them," would certainly seem to include them among the works of the six days; as on the other hand, "before the day was," it is peculiar to Jehovah to have been able to say, "I am He." The arguments of Doddridge and Owen on the force of the phrase, "In the beginning," with which the Mosiac narrative commences, will also apply to this subject; a phrase which, if it do not, as it is quite impossible language should, accurately express eternity, does yet imply a pre-existence to the whole creation; the period when all beings that had a beginning, did begin to be. And thus again, "Before the mountains were brought forth, or ever thou hadst formed the earth and the world," seems to express a similar sense with what follows in Ps. xc. 2, "Even from everlasting to everlasting, thou art God."

Thus created, they were amongst the good and perfect productions of Almighty wisdom, which he bled with complacency, and rested from them while they were in their perfection, on the first Sabbath. How soon after this a certain portion of the angels fell, is, together with the exact period of the fall of man, not possible to be ascertained from Scripture; they were made upright, they sinned, considerable numbers of them joining in the revolt, and God punished them with banishment from his immediate and joyful presence, casting them into some part of creation that is described as a prison to these rebellious spirits, in which they are confined as with chains, unto the judgment and punishment that is reserved for them at the last day. What was the exact nature of their

Fall of angels.

crime is nowhere stated; it may be implied by an allusion of St. Paul to Timothy, 1 Epist. iii. 6; but as they are "reserved" unto judgment, the facts of their case are in strict analogy of righteousness to them, and perhaps of mercy to man, reserved too. The *ubi*, which the learned Gill so ably argues for, as possessed by them in innocence, we can only consider as now completely reversed. "Though angels have not bodies," says he, "and so are not in places circumscriptively; yet, as they are creatures, they must have an *ubi*, a somewhere, in which they are definitely; so that they are here, and not there, much less everywhere; now where was there an *ubi*, a somewhere, for them to exist in, before the heavens and the earth were made? It is most reasonable, therefore, to conclude, that as God prepared an habitation for all the living creatures before he made them; as the sea for the fishes, the expanse, or air, for the fowls; and the earth for men and beasts; so he made the heavens first, and then the angels to dwell in them." In what portion of his boundless dominion this blissful region may be placed, we have no data to judge; and the same remark must be made of the *supra*, or abyss, in which, as their general "habitation," the fallen angels are now said to dwell. It is represented as a region of darkness and torment, full of the greatest miseries that creatures can suffer; and "to be cast into" it, is a phrase repeatedly used to express a state of the highest displeasure of Almighty God. In this revolt, there would seem to have been one leader, or chieftain, more distinguished than the rest, or at least such an one is spoken of throughout the Bible as having been ever since most conspicuous as the enemy of God and man. He is called *Lucifer*, *Satan*, or an adversary, *ἐναντίας*, a traducer, or accuser, with other appellations descriptive of his malignant character, throughout the Bible; he is said to possess, or command his angels, or messengers; to deceive the world; to have tempted our Lord Jesus Christ by the exercise of extraordinary powers; and to be occupied with fallen spirits, his associates, in opposing and persecuting the cause and church of God—filling the hearts of wicked men with lies, and tempting the virtuous. He is called, in the New Testament, the Old Serpent; and from this passage, and the general analogy of Scripture, it has been concluded that he was the real tempter of our first parents; and that consequently the fall of the angels must have taken place prior to that of man. Besides this great fact in their general history, we have nothing furnished us in the Bible but accounts of particular and insulated appearances of angels to man. For more of the history and condition of fallen angels, see the articles *DEMON*, *DEVIL*, and *SATAN*.

Habits of holy angels. Of the *habits*, and incessant occupation of the holy angels, the intelligent worship of God constitutes a striking feature; they are invoked in his word to lend the praises of his works in all places of his dominion; they are described as hearkening with no less diligence to the delivery of his will, than they possess strength to execute it; and the manner in which the divine will is performed by them amongst the other exalted inhabitants of heaven, is held up for imitation by our blessed Lord in the language of that prayer designed for the daily use of Christians, Matt. vi. 10.

Having thus placed before the reader, from the only

authentic source of information, the best account of ANGEL. these interesting beings which our limits would admit us to gather, we may remark, that almost all religions, ancient and modern, retain distinct traces of the history of angels, and enjoin some belief in their present existence and offices. We certainly cannot argue with some of our contemporaries (*Edinburgh Encyclopedia*, on this subject, art. ANGELS), that "It can scarcely be believed that the interval between man and the Supreme Being, which presents so wide a chasm, is totally unpeopled." And that because "It is more natural to suppose that the interval is filled up by numerous orders of intelligent creatures;" therefore, the traditions upon this subject are universal, nor can we suffer such an argument to pass us unopposed. The existence of any such order of creatures as angels is clearly incapable of any *a priori* proof. And an argument that is allowed this latitude, would prove ten thousand orders of beings—material or spiritual—above them. "A regular gradation pervading the whole of the works of creation, from the rudest specimen of brute matter up to man," pushed forward from man up to God, is only as irrational as it is indecorous, in the very thought of its consequences. We had conceived that the interval between debile creatures and the only Infinite must remain for ever vast and boundless. And to speak of angels, or any series of beings constituting a *scala* up to God, is only another proof of the danger of speculations and abstract reasoning upon any such subject; hardly equalled by the numerous absurdities with which this unfortunate topic abounds.

In the earliest fragments of the poetry of Greece, Tradition, we find allusions to the agency of those distinguished beings. Hesiod furnishes no incorrect description of their powers and office, *Op. et Dies*, l. 346:

Ἦσαν γὰρ καὶ ἀδελφοὶ ἱερεῖς
Ἀβύσσου καὶ γῆρας, καὶ οὐρανὸς ἅπας
Ἄνθρωποι τῶνδε, οἱ δὲ θεοὶ καὶ ἀνθρώποι
Τῶνδε γὰρ πρῶτος ἦν ὁ νόμος ἀνθρώπων
Ἀβύσσου γένεσι, καὶ οὐρανὸς ἀπὸ γένεσι
Ὅτι ἐν γένεσιν αὐτῶν καὶ οὐρανὸς ἦν
Ἦσαν ἱερεῖς, καὶ οὐρανὸς ἦν ἅπας

Thus freely given by Cooke,

— a world of holy demons under,
Aerial spirits, by great Jove designed
To be on earth the guardians of mankind;
Invincible to mortal eyes they go;
And none our actions, good or bad, below;
Th' immortal spirits, with a subtle care, preside,
And thrice ten thousand round their charges glide,
They can reward with glory, or with gold,
A power they by divine permission hold.

These spirits, or demons, were believed, by the Greeks, to hold a middle rank between the gods and mankind; *Πῶς τοι ἐμφανέει παραγὰν ἐνὶ Σέσω καὶ Σέσω*, Plato in *Symp*; and Plutarch says, "these seem to me to have solved very many and great difficulties, or doubts, who place the demons, or *πνεύματα* *Σέσω* καὶ ἀνθρώπων." De Defect. Orat. The word *dæmon* was generally used in a good sense; great and wise men were reported to hold familiar intercourse with these tutelary agents of the gods; and none of the philosophers disputed their influence but Epicurus, who seems himself to have admitted their existence. The tutelary genius of Socrates, of Numa, and of Augustus, are well-known in history. Sometimes also the

ANGEL—respective terms for these beings (dæmon and genius) were used in an evil sense among the Greeks and Romans. Justin usurpatus, says Calcidius, *per Grecos loquendi consuetudinem, tam sancti sunt dæmones quam profesti est insidi;* and thus we find the evil genius of Brutus appearing before him just previous to the battle of Philippi.

Persian, Jewish, and Mahometan accounts. The ancient Persians were so learned in the ministry of angels in this lower world, according to Mr. Sale, that they assigned them distinct charges and provinces, giving their names to the months and days of the months. The Jews, after their return from the captivity in Babylon, infected by the boasted wisdom of the Chaldean sages, who peopled the air with agencies of this description, began to find numerous names and distinct orders of angels; of which four principal ones are reckoned. That of Michael, the first in order; Gabriel, the second; Uriel, the third; and Raphael, the fourth. In the apocryphal book of Tobit, the last is made to say, "I am Raphael, one of the seven holy angels which present the prayers of the saints, and which go in and out before the glory of the Holy One." Ben Maamon, and other writers, speak of ten degrees, or orders of angels, being anciently acknowledged by the Jews.

In the Mahometan theology, angels occupy a very prominent place. The highest order of the heavenly hierarchy is named Azazil, to which Satan, so called in the Alcoran (as well as Eblis, or perdition), is said to have originally belonged, and in which the Michael and Gabriel of Holy Writ are found. Here also are placed Azazel, the angel of death, or destiny, and Israfil, the angel of the resurrection. Subordinate to this is the order of the examiners, of whom, the principal are Monker and Nakir, and who have the office of inquiring into the true condition of all departed souls on their decease, preparatory to their doom. To every man on earth, two guardian angels, who are relieved daily, are also said to be assigned; and they record his actions against the judgment of men and the evil spirits at the last day. A lower race, denominated jin, or genii, formed of grosser fire than the superior orders, and subject to the passions and appetites of man; who propagate their species, and who are subject to death; is also added to the modern theology of the Arabians.

Opinions of the fathers. The Christian fathers, full of the prejudices of their early life, and fond of imitating the learned trifling of their adversaries, retained or adopted many strange and groundless notions of the heathen world on this subject. Several of them believed angels to have bodies; and others that they were pure spirits, but could assume bodies at pleasure. Of the first opinion were Clemens Alexandrinus, Origen, Cæsarion, and Tertullian; while St. Athanasius, Basil, Gregory Nicene, Cyril, and Chrysostom, advocated various shades of the latter. As the heathen writers tell us of a race of *heroes* (Socrates ap. Platon, Cratyl.) who "were all of them born from the love either of gods for women, or of mortal man for a goddess," Josephus and Philo, speak of the angels of God mixing with women, and begetting a most wicked offspring; a sentiment which the Jewish historian, and the fathers after him, assign to Gen. vi. 2, which in some copies of the Septuagint is said to have read "angels of God." At this period, indeed, it seems to have been the prevailing opinion, not only

that angels once had an intercourse of this description with the world, but that it was continued at intervals, and the pages of some of these writers are deluged by attributing to them the grossest vices of mankind. St. Gregory Nazianzen, and after him some of the Nicene writers, held that angels were created long before our world.

In the middle ages, angels were divided into nine orders, or three hierarchies; the first of which consisted of cherubim, seraphim, and thrones; the second, of dominions, virtues, and powers; and the third, of principalities, angels, and archangels. Thus Milton, to whose inimitable use of angels in the machinery of the *Paradise Lost*, many of the popular opinions upon this subject may be traced.

Hear, all ye angels, property of light,
Thrones, dominations, principedoms, virtues, powers,
Hear my decree!

Similar distinctions have been thought, by many able critics in modern times, to be sustained by the language of inspiration in such passages as Ephes. i. 21; Col. i. 16, &c. Bishop Horsley, in one of the latest, but not the least vigorous, of his sermons, has a passage upon this subject, which we cannot forbear extracting, as an able summary of numerous opinions upon this point. It is from Dan. iv. 17. "This interpretation of these words" (that the Watchers and Holy Ones are principal angels) "is founded upon a notion which got ground in the Christian church many ages since, and unfortunately is not yet exploded; namely, that God's government of this lower world is carried on by the administration of the holy angels,—that the different orders (and those who branched this doctrine could tell us exactly how many orders there are, and how many angels in each order),—have their different departments in government assigned to them; some, constantly attending in the presence of God, form his cabinet council; others are his provincial governors; every kingdom in the world having its appointed guardian angel, to whose management it is entrusted; others, again, are supposed to have the charge and custody of individuals. This system is in truth nothing better than the pagan polytheism, somewhat disguised and qualified; for, in the pagan system, every nation had its tutelary deity, all subordinate to Jupiter, the sire of gods and men. Some of those prodigies of ignorance and folly, the Rabbins of the Jews, who lived since the dispersion of the nation, thought all would be well, if for tutelary deities they substituted tutelary angels. From this substitution, the system which I have described arose; and from the Jews, the Christians, with other fooleries, adopted it. But, by whatever name these deputy gods be called,—whether you call them gods or demigods, or dæmons, or genii, or heroes, or angels,—the difference is only in the name; the thing in substance is the same: they still are deputies, invested with a subordinate, indeed, but with a high authority, in the exercise of which they are much at liberty, and at their own discretion. If this opinion were true, it would be difficult to show that the heathen were much to blame in the worship which they rendered to them. The officers of any great king are entitled to homage and respect in proportion to the authority committed to them; and the grant of the power is a legal title to such respect. These officers, therefore, of the greatest of kings, will be entitled to the

ANGEL.

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greatest reverence; and as the governor of a distant province will, in many cases, be more on object of awe and veneration to the inhabitants than the monarch himself, with whom they have no immediate connection, so the tutelar deity or angel will, with those who are put under him, supersede the Lord of all; and the heathen, who worshipped those who were supposed to have the power over them, were certainly more consistent with themselves than they, who, acknowledging the power, withhold the worship.

So nearly allied to idolatry, or rather so much the same thing with polytheism, is this notion of the administration of God's government by the authority of angels. And surely it is strange, that in this age of light and learning, Protestant divines should be heard to say, that 'this doctrine seems to be countenanced by several passages of Scripture.'

"That the holy angels are often employed by God in his government of this sublunary world, is indeed clearly to be proved by Holy Writ. That they have powers over the matter of the universe, analogous to the powers over it which men possess, greater in extent, but still

limited, is a thing which might reasonably be supposed, if it were not declared; but it seems to be confirmed by many passages of Holy Writ; from which it seems also evident, that they are occasionally, for certain specific purposes, commissioned to exercise those powers to a prescribed extent. That the evil angels possessed by their fall the like powers, which they are still occasionally permitted to exercise, for the punishment of wicked nations, seems also evident. That they have a power over the human sensory (which is part of the material universe), which they are occasionally permitted to exercise, by means of which they may inflict diseases, suggest evil thoughts, and be the instruments of temptations, must also be admitted. But all this amounts not to any thing of a discretionary authority placed in the hands of tutelar angels, or to an authority to advise the Lord God with respect to the measures of his government. Confidently I deny that a single text is to be found in Holy Writ, which, rightly understood, gives the least countenance to the abominable doctrine of such a participation of the holy angels in God's government of the world."

ANGEL.

ANGER.

ANGEL, in Commerce, an ancient gold coin of England, $\frac{23}{4}$ carets fine, and weighing four pennyweights. In the reign of Henry VI. its value was six shillings and eight pence; at the beginning of that of Henry VIII. seven shillings and sixpence; and at the end of his reign, eight shillings. In the reign of King Edward VI. its worth was ten shillings, at which it continued during the reign of Elizabeth, and to the period of its gradual disuse. The ANGEL was a half angel, and bore its value accordingly; there was also a quarter angel, or angel, of proportionate worth. The French formerly had their angels, demi and quarter angels, or angelets, but they are now obsolete.

ANGELICA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Dignia.

ANGELITES, in Ecclesiastical History, otherwise called Severites, Theodosiani, Damianisti, &c. a Christian sect so denominated from Angellum, in Alexandria, the place where their earliest assemblies were usually held. They first appeared during the reign of Anastasius, and Pope Symmachus, in the year of Christ 494. They are said to have affirmed that the Trinity consisted of a Deity in common, and not of persons self-existent; each being divine by a participation of this common nature.

ANGELIN, or ANGLEIN, a district of Sleswick, Denmark, between the bay of Fleushurg and the river Schley, on the eastern coast.

ANGELO, ST. a town of Naples, in the province of Capitanata, 10 miles from Luvio, with a population of 11,500 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan of Conza. The town stands upon a high mountain of the same name, in which is a cave, and a church dug out of the solid rock. It is dedicated to the archangel Michael.

ANGELOS, PUEBLA DE LOS, or the city of ANGELS, is the metropolis of the province of Tlascala, in the kingdom of Mexico. It is an episcopal see, under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Mexico; and possesses a beautiful cathedral, which occupies almost

VOL. XVII.

one whole side of the spacious square in the centre of the city, which is superior to the great square of Mexico itself. From this the principal streets branch off, and are crossed by others in a rectangular direction. The whole town is remarkably clean, and the piazzas of the great square are full of the most costly goods. There is a mint, a glass house, and fine salt manufactory in the town; and mineral waters abound in the vicinity. The population is computed at about 68,000. The city stands at an elevation of 7,380 feet from the sea, and the surrounding country is extremely fertile. W. lon. $102^{\circ} 43'$, and N. lat. $19^{\circ} 35'$.

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ANGER. Wenae ich ne may have je miastre, merbe melancholie ich take
 þat ich catche þe crampe, þe enallie som tyme.
Of an ague in such an anger. Fison of Peire Pluchman, p. 91.

It is a great perfection not to be moved with *anger*, but in case
 through the frailty of man's nature any rage of *anger* come in
 your mind, remember (as ye holy psalmographic writeth) so to
 restrain your *anger*, when it would burst out, that it breake not
 out into scolding, or iniurie, or malicious hatred. And let not your
anger be only valiant, but also let it remain so fit while with you,
 that it be soe out of your dominions, than the sunne from be-
 sides the earth: lest when the earth in the night season is naturally
 cold, you contrary wise claue your selfes in the morn'g time hotely
 with *anger*. *Idell, Ephesiens, c. iv.*

Now sweete air, is it your case
 Him for to *anger* or disease
 Also, what may it you summer
 To doo to him so great grievance.

Clancor. The Remount of the Rose, fo. 132. c. 4.

She said, Daunger great wronge ye doe
 To worch this man to such woe
 Oþ place him so *angrily*
 It is to you great villanie. *Id. c. 3.*

For an *angrie* man kindeleth variances, and the vngodly disquiet-
 eth freudes, and putteth discord amonge them that be at peace.
Bible, 1539. Synecch. c. xxviii.

Anselm told him (William I.) your grace may have me and all
 that is mine, to serve your turn in a friendly manner: but in the way
 of territude and bondage you shall neither have me nor mine: which
 words so *angred* the king, that they could never after be reconciled.
Baker's Chronicle.

When a man is apt and prone to *anger*, as being of nature hot,
 rough, and cholericke, to know himselfe so given, and threewith to
 prevent, deride, and avoid all occasions of ire, and by the guidance
 of reason to hold off, in such sort, that even as it were, against his
 will, he shuld not fall into any passionate fits, is a point of great
 wisdom and singular providence.

Holland's Plotarch's Morals.

They have their several sounds and notes of expression, whereby
 they can signify their dislike and *anger*: but only man can clothe
 his *angry* thoughts with words of offence; so as that faculty, which
 was given him for an advantage, is depraved to a further mischief.
Up. Hall's Booke of Golead.

Nay brate me Holbert, drine these two swags,
 And I will sit as quiet as a lumbe.
 I will not stirre, nor winch, nor speake a word,
 Nor looke upon the irene *angrily*.

Shakespeare's K. John, act iv.

It *angred* d' Turuene, once upon a day,
 To see a footman kick'd, that took his pay:
 But when he heard th' affront the fellow gave,
 Knew one a man of honour, one a knave;
 The prudent general turn'd it to a jest,
 And begg'd he'd take the pains to kick the rest.

Pope's Im. of Horace.

So when the generous lion has in sight
 His equal match, he rouses for the fight;
 But when his foe lies prostrate on the plain,
 He sheathes his paw, marks his *angry* train,
 And plucks'd with bloodless honours of the day,
 Walks over and disdain'd th' inglorious prey.

Dryden's Hind and Panther.

When haring girro express command that none
 Should press to him; yet bearing what came,
 Turns *angrily* about his griev'd eyes;
 When lo! his sweet afflicted quere be open.

Daniel's Civil War, book ii.

Vejoris, or Vejupiter, and Vedins, that is, little Jupiter, was his
 title when he was described without his thunder, viewing *angrily*
 short spears which he held in his hand. *A. Tooke's Pantheon.*

For *Anger*, as a passion of the mind, and in its
 hearings on morality, see *MORALS*, Div. I.

ANGEL. in Geography, a small town of Germany,
 on the river Feistritz, in the circle of Gratz, 12 miles

N. N. E. of that place, and containing a good linen
 manufactory. Also a market town in Lower Austria,
 eight miles S. of St. Polten, on the Moravia, in the
 quarter of Mannhartsberg. It is in the possession of
 the family of Kinsky, to whom the neighbouring castle
 of Angermuhlen belongs.

ANGERBURG, a town and castle of East Prussia,
 in the circle of Schenstien, 55 miles from Königsberg,
 containing a population of 3,400 inhabitants, who carry
 on a considerable linen trade.

ANGERMANN-ÅA, or **ANGERMANN-ELF**, a river
 of Sweden, in the province of Asele-Lappmark, which
 falls into the gulf of Bothnia, in E. lon. 17°, 50', and
 N. lat. 62°, 32'.—**ANGERMANNLAND** is a district of
 Swedish Lapland, lying on each side of this river, and
 the most southern division of that country.

ANGERMANNLAND, a district of Sweden, in the
 province of West Norland, 150 English miles in length,
 and 100 in breadth; and containing abundance of iron
 ore, and other valuable metals. In the valleys and level
 grounds, there are some tracts of oats, barley, pence,
 flax, and good pasture land. The district is divided into
 two parts, called the northern and southern districts.

ANGERMUNDE, a town of Prussia, seven miles
 from Düsseldorf, in the grand duchy of the Lower
 Rhine. There is a district of the same name, in which
 the town is part stands. In the year 1806, this district
 contained 13,730 inhabitants, two market towns, two
 inferior towns, 21 castles, nine Catholic, three Lutheran,
 and five Calvinistic parishes. The town of Angermunde
 contained 969 inhabitants.—**NEW ANGERMUNDE** is a
 small town of Brandenburg, circle of Stolpe, on the
 lake of Munde, 40 miles from Berlin, containing
 about 2,300 inhabitants. In the year 1439, this town
 afforded an asylum to the Hussites, and from that
 circumstance obtained the name of the Heretical
 Angermunde.

ANGERONA, in Heathen Mythology, a Roman
 deity, resembling the Harpocrates of the Egyptians,
 and the Sigalion of the Greeks, to whom they applied
 for relief when suffering with the quinsy, or angina.
 Pliny denominates this deity the "goddess of silence
 and calmness of mind;" for all uneasiness and melan-
 choly were dispelled by her. She is represented with
 the mouth shut, and a finger laid upon it, to express
 patience and resignation under suffering. A moral al-
 legory was held forth by her statue being placed in the
 temple of the goddess Voluptia, implying that patience
 under affliction led ultimately to pleasure. There were
 solemn feasts, called *Angeronalia*, held in honour of
 this goddess, on the 21st of December.

ANGERS, a large and handsome town of France,
 on the banks of the Mayenne, in the department of
 the Maine and Loire, 22 leagues W. of Tours, and 30
 S. E. of Rennes. It is the capital of the department,
 as it was formerly of that of Anjou. It contains 16
 parishes, and about 39,000 inhabitants. This town
 suffered very greatly during the Vendean war; and,
 being the seat of a revolutionary tribunal, the inhabi-
 tants were swept away in great numbers. There was
 also at this period a celebrated university at Angers,
 and a royal academy of helles lettres, founded by
 Louis XIV. Neither of these institutions could sustain
 the political shocks of the time; but the castle is
 still standing, on a rock, inaccessible on the side of
 the river, and flanked by 18 towers, and a half-moon.

ANGERS. The noble cathedral church is also standing, and is accounted one of the finest pieces of ecclesiastical architecture in France. There are some productive slate quarries, and mines of iron and coal in the neighbourhood; and in the town are several flourishing manufactures of stamine, camlets, serges, hats, and all sorts of leather goods; as also establishments for bleaching wax and refining sugar. The inhabitants export white wine, brandy, grain, hemp, wax, fruit, and honey. This town is celebrated in the records of ecclesiastical history as the seat of several general and provincial councils, particularly the council of 1583. It also merits notice as the birth-place of Menage.

ANGHIERA, a country of Upper Italy, situated in E. lon. 8°, 27', and N. lat. 45°, 38'; having the Italian districts of Switzerland on the N. the provinces of Verceili and Novara to the S. Milan Proper to the E. and the valley of Aosta to the W. This country is very populous and fruitful, and gives the title of viscount to an ancient Italian family. This is also the name of a small town on the east bank of the Lago Maggiore, 30 miles N. W. of Milan.

ANGINA, in Medicine (from *αγγος*, to strangle,) is an inflammation attended with acute pain, and danger of suffocation in the muscular parts of the larynx, or pharynx. See MEDICINE, Div. II.

ANGIOSPERMIA, in Botany, according to Linnaeus, the name of the second order of plants in the class Dicotyledina.

ANGLADE, a town of France, in the department of the Gironde, arrondissement of Blaye, seven leagues N. of Bourdeaux. It contains 1,500 inhabitants, and formerly conferred the title of a marquisate.

ANGLARD, a town of France in Upper Auvergne, department of the Cantal arrondissement of Flour, 12 leagues N. W. of that place. During the fourteenth century, the English had possession of the castle here for a long time. It is now a place of little note.

ANGLE, v. } A. S. Angel, Hamus, an hook, Saxon-
ANGLA, n. } ner. nam purp pinne angel ut. And
ANGLA, n. } enst an hook, Wic. Mat. xvi. 27.
ANGLING. } Wacher prefers the Geru. Ankeu, figere, to fix, to pierce. Skinner inclines to the verb, To Hang. And Minshew, to the B. Anghel or hanghel, from hanghen, to hang. To Angle then will mean

To hang out (as) a bait, allurement, snare, enticement; and, consequently, to allure, to ensnare, to entice, to delude.

B. Jonson writes *Engle*, and applies the noun to one who has been, or may be allured, ensnared, enticed, deluded. Shakespeare uses *Angle* in the same manner.

Or with my Bryn, and a hook,
Lether long days near Shawford brook:
There sit by lion and cut my meat,
There see the sun both rise and set;
There bid good morning to next day,
There meditate my time away,
And angle in, and beg to have
A quiet passage to a welcome grave.

Walter in *Edith*, v. iii. p. 129.

I in these flowery meads would be;
These crystal streams should solace me;
To whose harmonious bubbling noise
I with my angle would rejoice,
Sit here, and see the turtle-dove
Court his chaste mate to acts of love.

Id. B. p. 127.

And I founde, that a womā is bettere the death: for she is a **ANGLE**.
very angle her herte is a nett, & her handes are cheynes.

Bible, 1539. *The Preacher*, c. vii.

It seemeth he hath to loovers comie
And like a fisher, as men may all day so
Baiteth his angle hoke with some pleasure
Till many a fish is wood to that he be
Caught therewith, and thus at evnt hath he
All his desire, and therewith all mischance
And though the line broke hee hath penance
For with that hoke he wounded is no more
That he his wages hath for evermore.

Chaucer. The Complaint of Mary and Venus, fo. 376. c. 3.

Nor lay these arts too soon aside,
In hopes your lover fast is tied;
For I have oft an angle seen,
With over-haste, lose all again;
When, if the fish had longer staid,
The harmless fish had beene betray'd.

Edith, vol. iii. p. 413. *Uncertain Authors*.

And this is the most brassy fruit of y^e pleasure y^t is deleterious
in outward appearance, & promising sweete yeare, I wrote not what
while it hideth under the baile of pleasure, the very *enging* hake
of death.

Wick. Jonson, vol. ii.

How. Oh master, master, I have watcht so long
That I am dogge-wearie; but at last I spied
An ancient *Angle* coming downe the hill
Will serve the turn.

The Tempest of the Shrew, act. iv. sc. 5.

3 CHILD. I would speak with your author, where is he?

2 CHILD. Not this way, I assure you, sir; we are not an officiously befriended by him, is to have his presence in the dining-room, to prompt us aloud, stamp at the book-holder, swear for our perplexities, curse the poor tireman, rail the music out of tune, and vent for every venial trespass we commit, as some author would, if he had such fine angles as we.

Ben Jonson's Cynthia's Revels. Ind.

What! shall I have my son a stager now? an angle for players? a gull, a rook, a shot-dog, to make suppers, and be laughed at? Pish! I will set thee on the funeral pile first.

Id. Postmaster, act. i. sc. 1.

Cass. I'll presently go and *engle* some braker for a poet's gown, and bespeak a gaud: and then, Jeweller, look to your best jewel, I'faith.

Id. Act. ii. sc. 1.

Caz. Preferrance, my lord, I show more craft than love,
And fell so roundly to a large confession,
To angle for your thoughts.

Shakespeare's Tro. & Cres.

Give me mine angle, weele in'th'river there,
My musick playing larve off. I will betray
Tway fine fishes, my bearded hook shall pierce
Their slimy scales: and as I draw them up,
He thinks them every one an Anthony.

Id. Act. i. Cles.

I am Sir, a brother of the angle, and therefore an enemy to the other: for you are to note, that we angles all love one another, and therefore do I hate the other both for my own, said for their sakes who are of my brotherhood.

Walter's Angler.

Seest thou the wary angle tryle along
His feeble line, soon as some pike too strong
Hath swallowed the bait that scorns the shore,
Yet now near-hand cannot resist no more?

Sp. Hall. Satire v.

He that reads Plutarch, shall find, that *engling* was not contemptible in the days of Mark Antony and Cicerus, and that they, in the midst of their wonderful glory, used *engling* as a principal recreation.

Walter's Angler.

I must not omit that my old friend *angles* for a trout, the best of any man in England. May-fles come in late this season, or I myself before now, should have had a trout of his hooking.

Guardian. No. 67.

A soldier new he with his sword appears;
A fisher next, his trembling *angle* bears.

Page's Fortunate & Poignant.

The ladies *engling* in the crystal lake,
Fract on the waters with the prey they take:
And once victorious with their lines and eyes,
They make the fishes and the men their prize.

Walter. On St. James's Park.

4 o 3

ANGLING.

AN-
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The art of Angling is a peculiar method of ensnaring fish with a hook, which has been previously baited with small fish, worms, flies, or some other suitable attraction. This hook is usually attached to a line, made of twisted hair or silk, and suspended from a long light rod, which is either in one entire piece, or for the greater convenience of carriage, divided into joints, capable of being united at the option of the angler.

Origin of
the art.

The origin of this art, among civilized nations, is involved in considerable obscurity, for its connection with the pursuits of barbarous tribes is no part of our present object to trace. The articles *FISHING* and *FISHERIES* will embrace the various methods of taking fish as a necessary of life; this paper will be confined to the consideration of that elegant amusement, which poets and philosophers, statesmen and divines, have eulogized as the art of Angling; and which good old Izaak Walton (who has furnished us with the only English text book of the art) denominates in particular *The Contemplative Man's Recreation*. We find occasional allusions to this pursuit among the Greek writers, and throughout the most ancient hooks of the Bible; in Job, Amos, Isaiah, Habakkuk, &c. Bishop Lowth, in his "Isaiah," has given a spirited turn to the prophetic description of the destruction of Egypt, which makes the allusion to it very distinct:

And the fishers shall mourn and lament;
All these that eat the hook in the river;
And those that spread nets on the face of the waters, shall languish.
And they that work the fine flax shall be confounded,
And they that weave net work,
And her stores shall be broken up;
Even of all that make a gain of pools for fish.
Isaiah, xix. 8.—10.

None of our classical readers will forget the circumstance in which Cleopatra "made" such "a gudgeon" of Antony. That general, having for the greater part of a day, according to Plutarch, been unsuccessful in this diversion in the presence of the queen, gave secret directions to some of his attendants to dive into the water, and fasten several fine large fishes to his bait. Cleopatra, while applauding his success, discovered the stratagem, and sent down one of her own slaves to affix a large *sailed fish* of the Euxine to his hook! When Antony, thus caught, exhibited considerable displeasure at her trick, she threw her arms round him exclaiming, "Resign, dear general, this kind of sport to us petty princes of Pharos and Cynopus—your game is cities, provinces, and kingdoms."

It was about the period of the Reformation that this amusement was brought into general repute among the gentry of England. The secular, as well as the regular, clergy being prohibited by the canon law from indulging in the recreations of hawking, fowling, and hunting,

* When gudgeons are we men,
Every woman's easy prey,
Thou we've felt the hook, again
We bite, and they betray.

Gog.

had turned their attention for a considerable period to this sport; but the invention of prioting was destined to make its importance known, "to cause the helthe of your body, and specially of your soule," as the first treatise concludes; and at the same time to perpetuate some of the rarest specimens of the typographic art. We have a book, printed by Wynkin de Worde, in 1496, small folio, a re-publication of the celebrated *Book of St. Alban's*, and containing, for the first time, a tract, entitled "The Treatise of Fysshynge wyth an Angle," adorned with a curious Woodcut of the angler.

AN-
GLING.

This treatise is imputed to Dame Juliann Berners, Early or Borne, prioress of a nunnery near St. Alban. writes on "The angler," says the fair advocate of our art, "atte the leest, hath his holson walke, and mery at his esse, a swete ayre of the swete sauoure of the meede floures, that makyth him hungry; he hereth the melodious armony of fowls, he seeth the yonge swannes, heerons, duckes, cotes, and many other fowles, with their brodes; whych me seemyth better than alle the noyse of houndys, the blastes of horrys, and the serye of fowles, that hunters, fawkeners, and foulers can make. And if the angler take fyshe, surely thenne, is there noo man merier than he is in his spyryte." Various editions of the *Book of St. Alban*, which contains "Treatises percyoyng of Hawkyng and Huntynge," as well as *Fysshynge with an angle*, were printed in the 16th and 17th centuries, as that under the title of *The Gentleman's Academie*, in 1595; another called the *Jewell for Gentrie*, 1614; and a third entitled the *Gentleman's Recreation*, 1674. Mr. Haslewood, a learned modern bibliographer, has recently favoured the public with a well-finished facsimile reprint of the work, in which he disputes the claim of the fair lady above-mentioned to have been the authoress of the first printed Treatise on Angling, and only assigns to her pen a small portion of the Treatise on Hawking; the entire Treatise upon Huntynge; a List of the Beasts of Chace; and another of Birds and Fowls.

The only works having any claim to originality, that were published between this early performance and that of Walton, were, "A booke of Fishing with Hooke and Line, and of all other Instrument a thereunto belonging, made by L. M. (LEONARD MARSCALL, a gentleman of Plumstead, in Sussex), 4to. Lond. 1590;" "Certain Experiments concerning Fish and Fruit, practised by JOHN TAYLOR, gent. and by him published for the benefit of others, 4to. Lond. 1600;" "The Secrets of Angling, teaching the choicest Tooles, Baytes, and Seasons for the taking of any Fish, in Pond or River; practised and familiarly opened in three hookes, by J. D. Esq. (JOHN DENNIS, or DAYTON), Lond. 1613," containing some beautiful poetry quoted by Walton; and "The Pleasures of Princes, or Good Men's Recreations; containing a Discourse of the general Art of Fishing with the Angle; and of all the hidden Secrets belonging therunto, ANON, 4to. Lond. 1614." Gervase Markham's Country Con-

Its early
history in
England.

AN-
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tentments, 4to. 1633, contains a prose version of Davor's Secrets, with many additions, but he himself acknowledges that "It was, originally, written in a small treatise in rhyme; now, for the better understanding of the reader, put into prose, and adorned and enlarged." * Walton's inimitable Discourse on Angling

* We cannot forbear to subjoin from the scarce old poem of Davor's what we think every reader of taste will thoroughly understand,—the opening of the first book; and the beautiful eczomium on the art incoarsely given by Walton:—

Yea Nymphs that in the springs and waters sweet,
Your dwelling here, of every hill and dale,
And oft amid the meadows green do meet
To sport and play, and hear the slightest tale,
And in the rivers fresh do wash your feet,

While Frogs the slater tells her wofull tale;
Such aid and power unto my verses lend,
As may suffice this little work to end.

And thou, sweet Rhye, that with thy wat'ry way
Dost wash the lives of Dreyton and of Wode,
And through their rocks with crooked winding way,

Thy mother Avon runneth soft to seek;
In whose fair stream, the speckled trout doth play;
The roach, the dace, the gudgeon, and the bleak;

Touch me the skill with slender line and hook
To take such fish of river, pond, and brook.

Comparing this art with poising, and the pleasures of licentious
or drinking parties. He adds,

O let me rather on the pleasant brinke
Of Tyne and Trent possess some dwelling place,
Where I may see my quill and corke downe sink

With eager like of hinch, bleake, or dace;
And on the water and his Crested shrike,

While they prove Thain's painted sheet embrace,
And with the fume of strong tobacco smoke,
And quaffing round are ready for to choke.

Let them that list these pastimes then pursue,
And on their pleasing fancies feed their ill;
So I the fields and meadows green may view,

And by the rivers fresh may walk at will;
Among the daisies and the violets blue:
Red hyacinth, and yellow daffodill,

Purple narcissus like the morning rayes,
Pale ganderlily, and snow columbkyn.

I could it better pleasure to behold
The gently meadowe of the lilly skie,
And in the midst thereof like burning gold;

The glazing chariot of the world's great eye;
The watry clouds that in the ayre upbide
With swetty kinde of painted colours dyed;

And face Aurora filling up her bed,
All blushing rise from old Tithonus bed.

The hills and mountains raised from the plaines,
The plains extended level with the ground,
The ground divided into sundry vaines,

The vaine crakes with running rivers run,
The rivers making way through nature's chains,
With headlong course into the sea profound;

The strutting sea beneath the valleys low,
The valleys sweet, and lakes that lovely flow.

The lofty woods, the forest wide and long
Adorn'd with leas and branches fresh and green,
In whose cool bowers the birds with chaunting song

Do welcome with their quire the Summer's Queen,
The meadows fair where Flora's gifts abound,
Are intermixt the verdant grass between,

The silver skaled fish that softly swim
While the brooke and crystal watry leins.

All these and many more of his creation
That made the heavens, the Angler oft doth see,
And takes therein no little delectation

To think how strange and wonderful they be,
Framing thereof an inward contemplation,
To set his thoughts in other fancies free;

And whilst he looks on these with joyfull eye,
His mind is wrapt above the starry skie.

first appeared in 1653, in an elegant duodecimo, having plates of the most considerable fish, which, from their appearance, seem to have been cut in steel. This edition, and three subsequent ones, consisted wholly of what is now called Part I. of the *Complete Angler*; or, Walton's individual portion of the work. As he was preparing the fifth edition in 1676, in the 83d year of his age, he received from his friend CHARLES CORROX, Esq. a gentleman of independent fortune in Derbyshire, the Instructions how to Angle for a Trout, or Grayling in a clear stream (as they were first called), which with some alterations, he warmly adopted, and they have ever since been printed as Part II. of the joint work.

Of this it may be enough to say, that little has been added to its directions for exercising the sport, or its detailed accounts of the habits and haunts of the fish that are the objects of Angling, in the lapse of a century and a half; and that nothing can be added to the true poetry of his many descriptive scenes, as they occur both in prose and in verse.

In the above sketch, at the hazard of a little proximity, we have endeavoured to furnish the reader with a complete history of the progress of the Art of Angling in England; and as our entire subject is an amusing, though certainly not an uninteresting one, let the young angler understand, that these fathers of the art uniformly reckon upon certain moral qualifications as essential to the patience and perseverance required in entering upon the sport. The preface of the expositor of its secrets above referred to, tells us of twelve mental virtues and qualities that are indispensable to its successful exercise, i. e. faith, hope, charity, patience, humility, courage, liberality, knowledge, pliancy, temperance, and memory! But Markham's improved edition of the work of Davor's is still more copious on the qualifications of the skilful angler, and an extract from his second edition of the Country Contentments will probably content the most scrupulous advocate of its merits in modern times.

* Now for the inward qualities of mind, albeit some writers reduce them to twelve beads, which, indeed, whosoever enjoyeth, cannot chuse but be very competent in much perfection, yet I must draw them into many other branches. The first and most especial whereof is, that a skilful angler ought to be a general scholar, and seen in all the liberal sciences, as a grammarian, to know how either to write or discourse of his art in true and fitting terms, either without affectation or rudeness. He should have sweetness of speech, to persuade and induce others to delight in an exercise so much laudable. He should have strength of arguments to defend and maintain his profession, against envy or slander. He should have knowledge in the sun, moon, and stars, that by their aspects he may guess the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the weather, the breeding of storms, and from what coasts the winds are ever delivered. He should be a good knower of countries, and well used to highways, that by taking the readiest paths to every lake, brook, or river, his journeys may be more certain, and less wearisome. He should have knowledge in proportions of all sorts, whether circular, square, or diametrical, that when he shall be questioned of his diurnal progresses, he may give a geographical description of the angles and channels of rivers, how they fall from their

AN-
GLING.

Qualifications required by the early writers.

AN-
GLING.

heads, and what compasses they fetch in their several windings. He must also have the perfect art of summing, that in the sounding of lakes or rivers, he may know how many fathoms or inches several containeth; and by adding, subtracting, or multiplying the same, he may yield the reason of every river's swift or slow current. He should not be unskilful in music, that whensoever either melancholy, heaviness of his thoughts, or the perturbations of his own fancies, stirreth up sadness in him, he may remove the same with some godly hymn or anthem, of which David gives him ample examples.

"He must be of a well settled and constant belief, to enjoy the benefit of his expectation; for then to despair, it were better never to be put in practice; and he must ever think where the waters are pleasant, and any thing likely, that there the Creator of all good things hath stored up much of plenty, and though your satisfaction be not as ready as your wishes, yet you must hope still, that with perseverance you shall reap the fullness of your harvest with contentment; then he must be full of love both to his pleasure and to his neighbour, to his pleasure, which otherwise will be irksome and tedious, and to his neighbour, that he never give offence in any particular, nor be guilty of any general destruction: then he must be exceeding patient, and neither vex nor execrate himself with losses or mischances, as in losing the prey when it is almost in the hand, or by breaking his tools by ignorance, or negligence, but with pleased sufferance amend errors, and think mischances instructions to better carefulness.

"He must then be full of humble thoughts, not disdaining when occasion commands to kneel, lye down, or wet his feet or fingers, as oft as there is any advantage given thereby, unto the gaining the end of his labour. Then must he be strong and valiant, neither to be amazed with storms, nor affrighted with thunder, but hold them, according to their natural causes, and the pleasure of the Highest: neither must he, like the fox which preyeth upon lambs, employ all his labour against the smaller prey; but like the lion that seizeth elephants, think the greatest fish which swimmeth, a reward little enough for the pains which he endureth. Then must he be liberal, and not working only for his own belly, as if it could never be satisfied; but he must with much cheerfulness bestow the fruits of his skill amongst his honest neighbours, who being partners of his gain, will doubly renew his triumph, and that is ever a pleasing reward to vertue.

"Then must he be prudent, that apprehending the reasons why the fish will not bite, and all other casual impediments which hinder his sport, and knowing the remedies for the same, he may direct his labours to be without troublesome-ness.

"Then he must have a moderate contentment of the mind to be satisfied with indifferent things, and not out of any avaritious greediness think every thing too little, be it never so abundant.

"Then must he be of a thankful nature, praising the author of all goodness, and showing a large gratefulness for the least satisfaction.

"Then must he be of a perfect memory, quick and prompt to call into his mind all the needfull things which are any way in this exercise to be employed, lest by omission or by forgetfulness of any, he frustrate his hopes, and make his labour effectless. Lastly, he

AN-
GLING.

must be of a strong constitution of body, able to endure much fasting, and not of a gawking stomach, observing hours, in which if it be unsatisfied, it troubleth both the body and mind, and loseth that delight which maketh the pastime only pleasing."

There is no pursuit that unites a greater variety of exercise than Angling: the robust and adventurous are required in some branches of this art, to endure the utmost fatigue, as in salmon fishing in particular; and to expose themselves to all sorts of inconveniences and inconveniences, in the attainment of their object. The fretful and irritable have been recommended to addict themselves to some of its gentler exercise, to learn the indispensable lessons of patience and self-denial; while the valetudinarians, the infirm, and the aged, may indulge themselves in float-fishing, and other branches of the art, which require little or no exertion. In a word, it is cheap, simple, and inexhaustible as a sport; calculated to relieve many a weary hour, in the ingenious preparations which it requires at home and the extensive acquaintance with the works of nature, that it presents abroad. We present the young sportsman, 1. With a short general description of the Tackle he will require. 2. With a detailed List or account of the fish usually taken by anglers in Great Britain; and, 3. With a Table, which forms a summary of the art, and in which various baits are included, not mentioned in the list.

§ 1. Tackle for Angling.

In the choice of his rod the angler will generally Rod. be directed by local circumstances. The cane rods are lightest; and where fishing-tackle are sold, they most commonly have the preference; but in retired country places, the rod is often of the angler's own manufacture, and he should, at any rate, be capable of supplying himself with one upon an emergency. No wood, as a whole, is better adapted for this purpose than the common hazel; and if to this he can add a sound ash stock, or hutt-rod, and a whalebone top, he is as well furnished with materials as he need desire to be. To prepare against accidents, let the young angler furnish himself, in the decline of the year, with six or nine wands of hazel, tapering toward the size of each other, in sets of three or four, and dry them in a chimney during the winter. On long excursions in the fishing season, a set of these wands will be a prudent addition to his baggage; and by sloping off their ends, to the length of two inches, and fastening them together with shoe-makers' waxed thread, he will quickly form a useful rod. If he can varnish the whole over with Indian rubber dissolved in linseed oil, with a small quantity of seed or shell lac, it will be an excellent preservative against the weather. A whalebone top is always an agreeable addition to a rod, but not as essential one. Salmon rods are sometimes wholly made of ash, with a whalebone top. Other rods may be formed thus:—a yellow deal joint of seven feet; a straight hazel joint of six feet; a piece of fine grained yew, tapered to a whalebone top, and measuring together about two feet. Always carry a jointed rod, when not in use, tightly looped up.

The line, like the rod, should gradually diminish line. toward the further extremity; and no materials exceed strong clear horse hair. If you make it yourself, the hairs from the middle of the tail are best, and those

AN-
GLING.

of a young, and healthy, gray, or white stallion; sort them well, that the hair of every link may be of equal size with each other; and if you wash them, do not dry them too rapidly. For ground-fishing, brown or dark hairs are best, as resembling the colour of the bottom. Silk lines are more showy than useful. They soon rot and catch weeds.

Hook.

Your hook should readily bend without breaking, and yet retain a sharp point, which may be occasionally renewed by a whet-stone. It should be long in the shank and deep in the bed; the point straight, and true to the level of the shank; and the barb long. From the difficulty of tempering and making them, few anglers ever undertake the task. Be careful to provide yourself with a variety accordingly. Their sizes and sorts must, of course, entirely depend on the kind of fish for which you mean to angle.

Floats.

Floats are formed of cork, porcupine quills, goose and swan quills, &c. For heavy fish, or strong streams, use a cork float; in slow water, and for lighter fish, quill floats. To make the former, take a sound common cork, and bore it with a small red hot iron through the centre, length-ways; then taper it down across the grain, about two-thirds of the length, and round the top, forming it, as a whole, into the shape of a pear. Load your floats so as just to sink them short of the top.

§ II. Fish usually taken by anglers in Great Britain.

Barbel.

The BARBEL, so called from its four barbs, two of which are at the corners of its mouth, and the others at the end of its snout, is a heavy, dull, fish, and gives very inferior sport to the angler, in proportion to his size and strength. They begin to shed their spawn about the middle of April, and come in season about a month or six weeks after. In their usual haunts, among weeds, &c. they are fond of rooting with their nose like the pig. In summer, they frequent the most powerful and rapid currents, and settle among logs of wood, piles, and weeds, where they remain for a long time apparently immovable; during the winter-time, they return to deep bottoms. The most killing baits for the barbel are the spawn of trout, salmon, or indeed of any other fish, especially if it be fresh, respecting which, the barbel is very cunning; the paste that imitate it must, therefore, be well made, and of fresh flavour. It is also an advisable plan to bait the water over night, by spawn or a quantity of cut worms. The barbel will also bite well at the cobworm, gentles, and cheese, soaked in honey. See the Table.

Directions
for fishing
for Barbel.

The rod and line, with which you fish for barbel must both be extremely long, with a running plummet attached to the latter, as they swim very close to the bottom. By a gentle inclination of the rod, you may easily ascertain when there is a bite; immediately upon which the fish should be struck, and seldom escapes, unless he break the line. Sir John Hawkins mentions a curious story respecting barbel fishing. "Living, some years ago, in a village on the banks of the Thames, I was used in the summer months, to be much in a boat on the river. It chanced that at Shepperton, where I had been for a few days, I frequently passed an elderly gentleman in his boat, who appeared to be fishing at different stations for barbel. After a few salutations had passed between us, and we were become a little better acquainted, I took occasion to

inquire of him what diversion he had met with. 'Sir,' says he, 'I have had but bad-luck to-day, for I fish for barbel, and you know they are not to be caught like gudgeons.' 'It is very true,' answered I, 'but what you want in tale, I suppose you make up in weight.' 'Why, Sir,' says he, 'that is just as it happens, it is true, I like the sport, and love to catch fish, but my great delight is in going after them. I'll tell you what, Sir,' continued he, 'I am a man in years, and have used the sen all my life (he had been an India captain), but I mean to go no more, and have bought that little house, which you see there, for the sake of fishing; I get into this boat (which he was then mopping) on a Monday morning, and fish on till Saturday night for barbel, as I told you, for that is my delight; and this I have done for a month together, and in all that while have not had a single bite.' In this same neighbourhood, however, four gentlemen, in August, 1807, caught 83 fish (barbels of the following sizes: 2 of 15 lbs. 2 of 20 lbs. 20 of 23 lbs. 30 of 29 lbs. 29 of 32 lbs. in five hours.—*Notes to Walton's Angler.* Bagster, 1815.

THE BLEAK, or BLAY, is a common river fish, so called from its bleak or white appearance, that spawns in March; and is fond of many of the baits for trout. It is usually caught with a small artificial fly of a brown colour; and the hook should be suited in size to the fly. The bleak seldom exceeds six inches in length; its flesh is highly valued by epicures, and heads are made of its scales.

BREAM shed their spawn about Midsummer, and although they are occasionally met with in slow running rivers, are reckoned a pond fish, where they will thrive in the greatest perfection; and have been known to weigh from 8 to 10 lbs. In fishing for them, the angler should be very silent, and take all possible care to keep concealed from the fish, which are angled for near the bottom. His tackle also must be strong. This fish, according to Dr. Shaw, is a native of many parts of Europe, inhabiting the still lakes and rivers, and is sometimes found even in the Caspian sea.

BULL HEAD, or MILLER'S THUMB, is a small ugly fish, Bull head, which hides itself in brooks and rivers, under a gravelly bottom. They spawn in April, and their average length is from four to five inches. When their gill-fins are cut off they serve as good baits for pike and trout, and, like the cry-fish, when boiled, their flesh turns red.

CARP is a fish, that by its frequency of spawning, Carp, and quickness of growth, is greatly used to stock ponds, where it thrives better, and lives longer, than in rivers. Gesner speaks of one who lived to 100 years old; there is much doubt about its general age, but it is supposed to be a very long-lived fish. They spawn three or four times a year, but the earliest time is about the commencement of May. They are observed to live uncommonly long out of water; and in Holland are frequently kept alive for three weeks, or a month, in a cool place, by being hung with wet moss in a net, and fed with bread, steeped in milk. In angling for carp, it is necessary to make use of strong tackle, with a fine gut used the hook, and a float formed of the quill of a goose. They bite almost close to the bottom; and are rarely caught if angled for in a boat. From its subtlety, it has been sometimes called the water-fox.

The river carp is accustomed to haunt, in the winter,

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GLING.

the most quiet and broad parts of the stream. In summer they live in deep holes, reaches, and nooks, under the roots of trees, and among great banks of weeds, until they are in a rotten condition. The pond carp loves a rich and fat soil, and will seldom or never thrive in cold, hungry, waters. The carp-ponds of Germany yield a considerable income to the gentry.

The introduction of this fish into England, has generally been assigned to Mascall, one of the writers on Angling, mentioned in the beginning of this article, on the authority of Fuller, who indeed quotes from an early edition of Mascall's book. But Pennant, in his *British Zoology*, disputes this claim, quoting the following distich from the *Book of St. Alban's*, to prove that this fish was known here, at least, as early as 1496.

Turkies, carps, hops, pickerel, and beer,
Came into England all in one year.

Chub.

The CHUB, or CUVIN, is like the perch, a very bold luter; and will rise eagerly at a natural or artificial fly. They spawn in June, or at the latter end of May, at which time they are easily caught by a fly, a beetle with his legs and wings cut off, or still more successfully by a large snail. When they are fished for at mid-water, or at bottom, a float should be made use of; when at top, it is customary to dilt for them, or to use a fly, as if a trout were the angler's object. Strong tackle is also requisite, as they are a heavy fish, and usually require a landing net to pull them out. Their average length is from 10 to 14 inches. This fish is the *squalus* of Varro, and very common throughout England, and the eastern United States.

Dace.

DACE, DANT, or DARE, are a very active and cautious fish and rise to a fly, either real or artificial. It is necessary, in Angling for them, to refrain in concealment as much as possible. They spawn in February and March and their flesh is but inferior in point of flavour. They frequent gravelly, chucky, and sandy bottoms, leaves of the water lily, and deep holes, if well shaded. In sultry weather they are frequently caught in the shallows; and during that period, are best taken with grasshoppers or gentles. In fishing at bottom for roach and dace, who are similar in their habits and disposition, bread soaked in water, and kneaded to a good consistency, and then made up together with bran into round balls, and thrown into the place where it is proposed to angle, will be found very serviceable, but must always be thrown up the stream. There is a mode of intoxicating dace, and by this means rendering them an easy prey; but this is no part of the real angler's sport. The Thames is well known to abound in dace; and the graining of the Mersey is thought to be a variety of the same species.

Ground
bait.

Eel.

The EEL is rarely angled for, but it is usually caught by the process of snigging or lobbing, with night-lines, &c. Being fond of quiet in the day-time, all who expect much sport in eel-fishing must devote their evenings, and even whole nights, to the pursuit. The method of snigging for eels is as follows:—Take a common needle, attached in the middle by line waxed twine to a packthread line, or a strong small hook fixed to this kind of line; place a large lob-worm, by the head end, on your needle or hook, and draw him on to his middle; affix another needle to the end of a long stick, and guide your bait with it into any of the known haunts of the fish, between mill-boards, or into clefts

of banks or holes, holding the line in your hand, now give the eel time to gorge the bait, and then by a sharp twitcb fix the needle across his throat, or the hook into his body; tire him well, and your triumph is certain. Although this is not strictly a method of Angling, the lovers of that sport will find it so successful a mode of diversifying their pursuits, where eels are common, that the present appeared the most convenient place to insert it. Bobbing is a rough species of Angling. The best method is to provide yourself with a considerable number of good-sized worms, and string them from head to tail, by a needle, on fine strong twine, viz. to the amount of a pound, or a pound and a half in weight. Wind them round a card into a dozen or fifteen links, and secure the two ends of each link by threads. Now tie a strong cord to the bundle of strung worms, about a foot from which put on a bored plummet, and angle with a line from two to three feet long, attached to a stout tapering pole.

Eels, and periaip pike, are found in no part of Great Britain in such numbers, or variety as in the marshy parts of the counties of Cambridge and Lincoln. Of two rivers of the latter, it is said in an old proverb,

Ankham eel and Witham pike,
In all England is none like;

and a considerable district of the former is supposed to have been called after the fish of which we are now treating, the Isle of Ely; from which, says Fuller, the courts of the kings of England were anciently supplied with eels.* The silver eel is the finest, and is very common in Scotland.

The manner in which this fish is propagated, has long been a matter of dispute. They have neither spawn, melt, or known organs of generation. Walton gravely argues for their being bred of corruption, "as some kind of bees and wasps are;" others strongly contend for their being viviparous. It is a subject, indeed, upon which naturalists have no certain information.

The lamprey, "a lambendo petrus, from licking the rocks," says the quaint author of the *Worthies of England*, is a species of eel variously esteemed. In Worcestershire and Gloucestershire, the Severn lamprey is regarded as a luxury; and, by the city of Gloucester, a pie made of this fish is annually presented to the king. In the north of Great Britain it is much disliked.

Eels bite in a shower, and in winly, gloomy weather, at the lob and garden worm, designed for other fish, particularly trout. Unlike other fish, they are never out of season. They are a very greedy fish, and if you wish to angle for them in the ordinary way, they will take a lamprey, wasp grubs, minnows, &c. but particularly the first.

THE PINKNOCK, or HIRLING, is a species of sea-trout. Pinknock, which usually attains the length of from nine to 14 inches, and is principally known in Scotland; the whitling, another species, is from 16 to 24 inches long. They will both rise equally at an artificial fly, but re-

* "Here I hope," he adds, "I shall not trespass upon gravity, in mentioning a passage observed by the Reverend Professor of Oxford, Doctor Prideaux, referring the reader to him for the author's attesting the same. When the priests in this part of the country would still retain their wives, in despite of whatever the pope or monks could do to the contrary, their wives and children were miraculously turned all into Eels (scarcely the great lake Congress, the least into Greengs,) whence it had the name of EELY. I understood him a Lot of EELS." *Foster's Worthies, Cambridgeshire*.

AN-
GLING.

AN-
GLING.
Grayling.

quire generally a more showy one than the common trout.

The GRAYLING, or UMBER, spawns in May, and is in the best condition in November. They will greedily take all the baits that a trout does, and frequent the same streams. They are said to have the fragrant smell of the plant *Thymallus*. Their average length is from 16 to 18 inches; and they must be angled for with very fine tackle, as they are remarkably timid fish. When hooked, they must also be cautiously worked, as the hold in their mouth easily gives way; but they will speedily return to the bait. It is fine eating; unknown to Scotland or Ireland.

Gudgeon.

The GUDGEON is a fish in some request, both for its flavour and the sport it affords to the inexperienced angler. It is very simple, and is allured with almost any kind of bait. It spawns two or three times during the year; is generally from five to six inches long, and fond of gentle streams with a gravelly bottom. In angling for gudgeon, the bottom should be previously stirred up, as this rouses them from a state of inactivity, and collects them in shoals together. Some anglers use two or three hooks in gudgeon-fishing. A float is always used, but the fish should not be struck on the first motion of it, as they are accustomed to nibble the bait before they swallow it. It frequently happens, that in angling for gudgeons, perch are caught.

Loach.

The LOACH, or GROUPELOINE, sheds its spawn in April, and remains in the gravel; where they are usually caught with a small red worm. They are principally found in the North of Great Britain, and in the streams of the mountainous parts. They are about three inches in length; and their flesh is pleasant and wholesome.

Minnow.

THE MINNOW, or MINNI, one of the smallest river fish, seldom exceeds two inches in length. They spawn generally about once in two or three years, and swim together in shoals, in shallow waters, where they are very free, and bold in hitting. They serve also as excellent baits for pike, trout, chub, perch, and many other fish, which prey upon, and devour them greedily.

Mullet.

MULLET take almost the same baits as the trout; and will very eagerly rise to an artificial fly; they are considered free biters, and come and go with the tide. If artificial flies are made use of, their size should be larger than those generally used to ensnare the trout. They are found in their greatest perfection in the river Arun, Sussex; but are seldom or never seen in Scotland.

Par, or Samlet.

THE PAR, or SAMLET, is a fish that is known by different names in different parts of Great Britain. On the river Wye it is usually called a skirling; in Yorkshire, a handrilling; in Northumberland, a rack-rider; and in some other parts of England, a fingerling, from the resemblance of its spotted streaks to the human fingers. Par, or Samlet, is its Scotch name; and in that part of Britain it is best known. Some have affirmed, that it is the blended spawn of the trout and salmon. This opinion is strengthened by the circumstance of their usually frequenting the same haunts with the salmon and sea-trout; and their being forked in their tail like the former.

Perch.

THE PERCH is a very bold biting fish, and affords excellent amusement to the angler. He is distinguished by the beauty of his colours, and by a large erection on his back, strongly armed with stiff and sharp bristles,

which he can raise or depress at pleasure. Defended by this natural excrescence, he bids defiance to the attacks of the ravenous and voracious pike, and will even dare to attack one of his own species. Perch spawn about the beginning of March, and measure from eight to 14 inches. In fishing for perch with a minnow, or handrilling, the hook should be run through the back fin of the bait, which must hang about six inches from the ground. A large cork float should be attached to the line, which should be leaded about nine inches from the hook. It must be observed, that they invariably refuse a fly.

THE PIKE, LUKE, or JACK, is a fish of enormous size, Pike.

and the greatest voracity; indeed so notorious is he for the latter quality, as to have gained the appellation of the fresh water shark. They are also great breeders. According to a common but fallacious account,* they were originally brought to England about the commencement of the reign of Henry VIII.; they were certainly at that time considered as great rarities. Their usual time of shedding their spawn is about March, in extremely shallow waters. The finest pike are those which feed in clear rivers; those of fens or meres, being of very inferior quality. They grow to a vast size in these last-mentioned places, where they feed principally on frogs, and such like nutriment. They are reckoned to be the most remarkable for longevity of all fresh water fish; are solitary and melancholy in their habits, generally swimming by themselves, and remaining alone in their haunts, until compelled by hunger to roam in quest of food. It is Asseclote. related by Gesner, in his letter to the Emperor Ferdinand, which furnishes a sort of preface to his book *De Piscibus*, that near Hallebarne, in Germany, a pike was taken up, in 1497, with the following curious inscription on a brass collar attached to his neck, "Ego sum ille piscis huic stagno omnium primus inpositus per mandu rectoria Frederici Secundi mamas, 5 Octobris, anno 1497." A high wind, or a dark cloudy day, promises the best sport in angling for this fish; as their appetite is keener at those periods.

There are three modes of catching pike: by the Modes of trolling, &c. ledger, the trolling, or walking bait, and the trimmer. The ledger is a bait fixed by a stick driven into the ground, in one particular spot, or the angler's rod may be so secured; a live bait is attached to the hook, such as dace, gudgeon, or roach; and, if a frog is made use of, the largest and yellowest will be found the most tempting. Sufficient line must be left free to allow the pike to carry the bait to his haunts. When fish are used as baits, the hook must be securely stuck through the upper lip; and the line should be between 12 and 14 yards in length. If a frog be made use of for a bait, the arming wire of the hook should be put in at the mouth, and out at the side, and the hinder leg of one side should be fastened to it with strong silk.

The second method, or trolling for pike, is the most general, and, at the same time, the most diverting way of catching them; there are several small rings, which are fixed to each joint of the trolling rod; and on the bottom and thickest joint a reel is placed. To this reel 30 or 30 yards of line, according to the option of the angler, are not uncommonly attached; the line

* See under "CARP" in this article.

AN-
GLING.

passes through each ring of the rod, and is then joined to the gimp, or wire, to which the hook, or hooks, are suspended. Two large hooks are used, about the size adapted to perch-fishing, which are placed back to back. There is also a little chain, which hangs between the two hooks, and at the end of this chain is a leaden plummet, sewn, or fastened in some secure way, into the mouth of a dead fish, and the hooks are left exposed on the outside. The bait, when it is thus fastened, is constantly moved about in the water; that, by the continuance and variety of its movements (being sometimes raised, and sometimes kept sinking), now going with the stream, now against it, the resemblance to life may appear more striking and probable. The pike, if he be near, no sooner perceives this bait, than he immediately darts at it with velocity, supposing it to be a living fish, and drags it with him to his hole, where, in about ten or twelve minutes, he voraciously devours it, and implants the two hooks in his body. When he is thus secured, you must allow him ample time to fatigue and weary himself, then drag him slowly and carefully to shore, and land him with your net, being cautious of his bite.

The third mode, by which pike are occasionally caught, is by the trimmer, a small wooden cylinder, round which, about the middle, is a smaller diameter, 20 or 30 yards of strong platted silk, or packthread, are wound. A yard, or perhaps more, as occasion suits, is suffered to hang down in the water, tied to the armed wire of a hook, constructed for the purpose, and baited with a living fish, commonly a roach. The trimmer is now permitted to go whither the current drives it, and the angler silently follows, until a fish has pounced the bait, when he comes up and secures his prey, and retires with it to the reeds, near the shore.

Col. Thorn-
ton's mode.

Colonel Thornton, of sporting notoriety, has suggested a new method of fishing for pike, by the aid, as he terms them, of fox-hounds. The colonel's method is, however, but an improvement of the use of trimmers; and, as we understand he has found these projects extremely successful, we shall subjoin an account of them, in his own words. "In order," says he, "to describe this mode of fishing, it may be necessary to observe, that I make use of pieces of cork of a conical form, all differently pointed, and armed after favourite hounds. The mode of baiting them is by placing a live bait, which hangs at the end of a line of one yard and a half long, fastened only so slightly, that, on the pike's striking, two or three yards more run off, to enable him to gorge his bait. If more line is used, it will prevent the sport that attends his diving, and carrying under water the bound, which being thus pursued in a boat down the wind (the course they always take), affords very excellent amusement; and where pike, or large perch, or even trout, are in plenty, before the hunters (if I may so term these fishes) have run down the first pike, others are seen coming towards them, with a velocity proportionable to the fish that is at them." Whatever fish are made use of in enticing pike, they should be fresh, and preserved in a tin-kettle, the water of which, if changed frequently, will considerably improve them.

It may be noted in this place, that pike are denominated jack, until they have attained the length of 24 inches; their usual haunts are shady, still, unfrequented waters, near which are dark over-hanging

AN-
GLING.

boughs, and abundance of weeds; they are also to be met with in standing waters or ditches, which are partly overspread with that green slimy substance, which is better known by the name of duck-weed. In such places he is sometimes discovered at the top, and occasionally in the middle of the water; but in cold weather he is almost always at the bottom. Numerous and almost incredible instances are given of his voracity, by Walton. He says, "that a pike will devour a fish of his own kind, that shall be bigger than his belly or throat will receive, and swallow a part of him, and let the other part remain in his mouth till the swallowed part be digested, and then swallow that other part that was in his mouth, and so put it over by degrees."

The *Porz*, or *Rurr*, is a fish very similar in its nature *Ruff*, and appearance to the perch; and is frequently caught when fishing for the latter. They spawn in March and April, and are taken with a brandling, geathea, or eadlie. They are extremely voracious in their disposition, and will devour a minnow, which is almost as big as themselves. In their favourite haunts of gentle deep streams, overhung by trees, they swim in shoals together; and you may fish for them either at the top or the bottom of the water, as they are known to bite in almost any weather, and in any situation. Their average length is from six to seven inches.

Roach are frequently taken with flies under water. *Roach*. They will bite at all the baits which are prepared for chub or dace, and are considered a simple and foolish fish. They spawn in May, and turn red when boiled. The compactness of their flesh gave rise to the proverb, "Sound as a roach." The roach haunts shallow and gentle streams, and the mouths of small streams which run into larger ones. In angling for roach, the tackle must be strong, and the float large and well leaded.

The *Rcd*, or *FINSCALE*, is a very scarce fish, found *Rud*, or *Fincale*, only in the river Charwell, in Oxfordshire, and a few of the lakes of Lincolnshire and Yorkshire. It sheds its spawn in April, will take all kinds of worms, and will rise at an artificial fly. Its colour is a kind of yellowish brown, and its average length from nine to 16 inches.

SALMON are accustomed to quit the fresh waters, and retire into the sea at the approach of winter, which, at the commencement of April, they usually leave for rivers; but the Wye and Usk in Monmouthshire, and the Exe in Devonshire, have them in season during the six watery months. The finest species are caught in the Exe, Thames, and Tamar; but not so abundantly as in many other places. Salmon prefer more chilly streams, and are consequently found in greater numbers northward, in the rivers of Scotland, particularly in the Tweed, the Tyne, the Clyde, and the Tay. In the latter, they occasionally occur at the immense weight of 70 pounds; and in the Tweed, and Clyde, at about 50 or 60 pounds weight. They are also found in all the great streams of Europe N. of 51°, and in the United States of America N. of 41°. Some recent accounts of the N.W. coast of America, describe them also as abounding there. In the American rivers, they seldom exceed from 15 to 20 pounds weight.

They appear some time in the rivers before they are in a healthy state; and the best season for the angler to commence his operations, is, in the close of the month of May, or the early part of June. The usual

ANGLING.

Spawning of salmon.

Vivification.

Time of returning to rivers.

Shotten salmon.

Habits and disposition.

time for the salmon to deposit their spawn, is, from the 1st of September to the latter end of October, when they grow very sickly both in appearance and flavour. Previous to this, they generally retire to brooks which branch out irregularly from the main river, or remain in shallows, where they sometimes are scarcely covered with water. Here they fabricate a kind of trough, in the gravel, as a depository for the eggs of the female, over which the male sheds a fluid of a white appearance. On the completion of this task, the male and female unite to cover the whole with gravel, and conceal it with the greatest industry. The male is so diligent in accomplishing his share of the formation and subsequent concealment of the trough, that he frequently fatigues himself to death; and is always much longer in recovering his original state of health than the female.

The vivification of the secreted spawn usually occurs about the commencement of April, when the sun has acquired sufficient strength to warm the bottom parts of the shoals in which it is deposited. It takes place with considerable rapidity; and, when the shoals are swelled by the spring floods, the young fry intuitively (or, probably, from an inability to withstand the force of the torrents) hurry downward to the sea. In the course of the summer, generally during the months of July and August, they return to the same rivers which they left in the spring, and continue until the commencement of December, when they revisit the sea; and, upon their return to the fresh waters after their last emigration, they attain the size, appearance, and flavour of genuine salmon. It appears, that these fish are forced from their salt-water residence by an insect, which adheres closely to their body (called, by fishermen, the sea-louse), and which gradually drops off on their return to the rivers. It is, also, exceedingly remarkable, that they rarely or never forsake their parent streams.

From this period, salmon are subject to a gradual decline of their strength, health, and appearance. Their heads grow very large; their skin acquires a dirty colour, widely different from the silvery appearance which pervaded them on their first entrance into the rivers; their flesh is loose and insipid; their scales look as if they had been almost rubbed off; and their gills are dreadfully infested by the lichen salmon. In this state they are called shotten salmon. On their departure for the sea, their debility is so excessive, that they make frequent stops, in still waters, during their passage, and are a long time in reaching the object of their destination. The male shoots out a gristly excrescence from the lower jaw, which sometimes penetrates through the upper, and resembles the beak of a bird.

Salmon are greatly delighted with rivers which take their rise in mountainous districts, and a deep gravelly bottom, which is totally clear of any kind of slime or silt, that may impregnate the water, and sully its crystal clearness. They also, uniformly avoid streams which flow upon ore, or amongst calcareous formations of any kind. In summer, when the warmth is most intense, they occasionally seek the shelter of trees and other shrubs, but rarely continue long under their protection. They appear remarkably sensible of the vicissitudes of the weather; and are frequently observed to leap about, as if rejoicing in the prospect of an approaching shower. To thunder-storms, how-

ever, they have a great antipathy; every peal appears to affect them, and induces them to seek a closer shelter at the bottom of the rivers. During their residence in fresh water, it is a well-authenticated circumstance, that they always lie with their heads pointing up the river; and never swim down the stream, unless during the period of their emigration to the sea, or when their position is molested.

This "dainty and wholesome fish," says old Fuller, "is a double riddle in nature: first, for its invisible feeding, no man alive having ever found any meat in the maw thereof; secondly, for its strange leaping, or flying rather, so that some will have them termed salmon, & sailendo. Being both low and arrow, it will shoot itself out of the water an incredible height and length." Some few instances, however, have been related, of sprats, and other small fish, having been discovered in their stomachs during their residence in the sea, or when they have been caught on friths or headlands.

The salmon leap is, indeed, an extraordinary exertion. Ereting themselves on their fins, as if to survey the obstacle before them fully, these fish will crowd to the bottom of a fall of 10 or 12 feet perpendicular, and, taking advantage of the first flood or flush of water that will assist them, they spring up the precipice with the greatest confidence; and, though frequently unsuccessful in a first attempt, renew it with ardour, until they have reached the summit. There is a cataraet in Scotland, on the river Erich, called the Keith, of 13 feet fall, where the whole stream enters through a cleft of a few feet broad, which the salmon uniformly leap. Drayton, in his Sixth Song of the Polyolbion, thus describes another, on the Tivy, Pembrokeshire:—

When as the salmon seeks a fresher stream to find
(Which hither, from the sea, comes yearly by his kind,
As he in season grows), and stems the wadery tract,
Where Tivy falling down doth make a cataraet,
For'd by the rising rocks that there her course oppose,
As though within their bounds they meant her to inclose;
Here when the labouring fish doth at the foot arrive,
And finds that by his strength too vainly he doth strive,
His tail takes in his teeth; and, bending like a bow
'Tis to the compass drawn, aloft himself doth throw,
Then springing at his height, as doth a little wand,
That, leaped out to end, and fluried from the head,
Far off itself doth cast; so doth the salmon vault,
And if at first he fail, his second consentment
He instantly essays; and, from his simple ring
Still yerting, never levers until himself he fling
Above the streamful top of the surrounded heap.

Having thus briefly previewed the general character, Artificial size, haunts, &c. of the salmon, we must proceed to the artifices best adapted for his capture; and the primary and most important articles with which the angler for salmon should be provided are rods, reels, and artificial flies, a bait to which the salmon is much attached.

The length of the rod should be from about 17 to 30 feet, which, however, can be regulated according to the breadth and general size of the river in which the angler pursues his operations. The reel, which, on these occasions, forms the most material appendage to the rod, is made of brass; it should be constructed with the utmost nicety, and capable of the swiftest circumvolutions. The line, which is fastened to the reel, may be composed either of strong silk or twisted horse-hair, gradually diminishing at the top, and having a loop at the end of the wheel, and another at the cast line, to fasten them to each other. Let this last line

ANGLING.

Salmon leaps.

Artificial fly fishing for salmon.

AN-
GLING.

be very carefully twisted with the fingers, and shorter than the rod, so that none of the knots may come within the top ring; sixteen to twenty horse-hairs may be used in the upper links, but they must be diminished toward the hook, where they are best made of three small round twisted silk-worm guts, or a few strong horse-hairs. Of flies, the natural ones recommended in the tables have been used with great success. The artificial ones should be generally of large dimensions, and of a gaudy and glittering colour. The materials that compose them are hairs, furs, and wools, of every variety that can be collected, mingled with the tail-feathers of cocks and game, and secured together by plated wire, or gold and silver thread, marking silk, shoemakers' wax, bees' wax, &c. Their wings may be made of the feathers of domestic fowls, or any others of a showy colour. Imitate principally the natural flies recommended; but you may safely indulge your fancy, rather than depart without a bite; for many anglers succeed with the most monstrous and capricious baits of this kind.

A raw cockle, or muscle, taken out of the shell, prawns, and minnows, have also been recommended as salmon baits. The mode of angling with these is to drop the line, which must be totally unincumbered with shot, into some shallow which approximates to the edge of a hole of considerable depth, and in this situation to suffer it to be carried in by the current.

The novice in angling will, at first, experience considerable difficulty in throwing his line to any great extent. For this we can give no recipe, but a most inflexible determination to proceed, and the most consummate patience in disappointment. It should always be thrown across the river, and on the off side from the spot where you expect the fish to rise. When you imagine that the salmon has been struck, be cautious in giving him time sufficient to enable him to punch his bait, that is, to swallow it fairly and securely. After this, fix the hook firmly in him, by a gentle twitch. On the first sensation of this pain, the salmon will plunge and spring with great violence, and use every endeavour of strength and cunning to effect his escape. He will then, perhaps, run away with a considerable length of line, which is to be kept to a gently relaxed situation, so that it may always yield with facility to his obstinate resistance: nor can you give him too much line, if you do but clear it of weeds and encumbrances.

If he now become sullen and quiet in the water, rouse him gently, by flinging in a few stones; and when he once more commences resistance, do not be too eager in checking his career, but let him gradually exhaust himself of his strength; follow him down the stream, or allow him to cross it; while, at every opportunity, you keep winding up your line until you approach him in this wearied state, and take him softly by the gills out of the water. The salmon pail may be caught in the same manner; he is smaller than the salmon, and seldom exceeds 14 or 15 inches in length.

Before we conclude this account of the salmon, we may remark, that a fresh wind after a flood, and when the sun shines watery, is the best weather for catching them; or when the water is slightly urged by the tide, but it must not be thick or muddy.

Smelt.

SMELTS are more properly a sea fish, and not often caught with a rod and line in rivers; but, when this is attempted, they rise to any piece of smaller fish on a

pateroster line, or one that is armed with many hooks, at a small distance from each other. A remarkable abundance of smelts occurred in the Thames, in the year 1730, according to the editor of *Walton* (Baxter's edit. 1815), at which time women and children lined the banks to ogle for them, between London and Greenwich.

THE STICKLEBACK is a small prickly fish, that serves Stickle-well as baits when the prickles are cut off. It spawns in back. May, on aquatic plants, and is found in rivers, ponds, and ditches. Trout and pike will rise eagerly at them, and this is the only purpose for which they are caught.

TEXO, like the carp, are generally considered pond fish, although they have been frequently caught in the river Stour. They shed their spawn about the commencement of July, and are in season from September to the latter end of May. They will bite very freely during the sultry months. Their haunts are similar to those of the carp; except that they frequent the foulest and muddiest bottoms, where they may shelter themselves among an infinite quantity of reeds; hence you must angle for them very near the bottom, and allow them sufficient time to gorge the bait. Use strong tackle, and a goose quill float without a cork. The general length of the tench is from 12 to 14 inches; though some have been occasionally caught which weighed upwards of 10 pounds; such occurrences, however, are very rare.

TROUT are considered as one of the finest river fish Trout. that this country can produce. Its colours are beautifully varied at different seasons of the year, and according to the rivers it frequents. They abound in the generality of our streams, rivers, and lakes, and are usually angled for with an artificial fly. Their weight also differs from half a pound to three; some few have been caught which weighed upwards of four pounds. Trout are extremely voracious; and, by their activity and eagerness, afford finous diversion to the angler. They are remarkable for coming to their size quicker than any other fish, though they fatten slow; as also for being very short lived. They die when taken out of water sooner than any other with which we are acquainted. Previous to their spawning, they are observed to force a passage through weirs and flood-gates against the stream; and how they are enabled to overcome some of these impediments, is a subject of much conjecture. Their general time of shedding their spawn is about October or November; in some rivers, however, it is much sooner, in others later. They are also met with in eddies, where they remain concealed from observation behind a stone, or log, or a bank that projects into the stream; during the latter part of the summer, they are frequently caught in a mill-tail, and sometimes under the bellow of a bank, or the roots of a tree.

In some of the lakes of Ireland trout, of a large size have been occasionally caught. Galiasford, in "The glory of England," 1695, as quoted in the notes of Wulston, mentions one of marvellous size. "These lakes" (the Irish ones) "nature hath appointed instead of rivers, and stowed with fish, especially trout and pike, of such strange proportion, that if I should tell you of a trout taken up at Tyrone, 46 inches long, and presented to the Lord Mountjoy, then deputy, you would demand whether I was *oculus testis*, and I answer, I eat my part of it, and as I take it, both my

AN-
GLING.Difficulty in
throwing
the line.Mode of
trailing.Salmon
pail.

Weather.

Smelt.

Sadden
growth.

ANGLING.

Modes of angling for trout.

Lord Danvers and Sir William Godolphin, were at the table; and worthy Sir Josias Bodley, hath the portraiture depicted in plate.

In angling for trout, there are many things worthy of particular observation: 1st. That the day on which the sport is undertaken, be a little windy, or partially avercast, and the south wind is superior to all others if it do not too much disturb your tackle. 2d. The sportsman should remain as far as possible from the stream, fish it downwards, the line never touching the water, as the agitation proceeding from the fall might disturb the fish, and preclude all possibility of capturing them. 3d. Clear streams are famous for sport, and in fishing in them, a small fly with slender wings must be pitched to the hook. When the water is thick, and the sight more imperfect from this disadvantage, a larger species of bait must of necessity be used. 4th. The line should, on an average, be about twice as long as the rod, unless in cases of emergency, when the number and variety of trees exclude the probability of a successful throw if at any distance. 5th. Let the fly be made to suit the season. After a shower, when the water becomes of a brown appearance, the most killing bait is the orange fly; in a clear day, the light coloured fly; and on a gloomy day, in overshadowed streams, a dark fly. It is hardly necessary to add, that the angler, particularly in fly-fishing for trout, cannot be too quick in perception, or too active in striking as the first rise of the fish.

At the top of the water.

The trout may be caught at the top, the middle, or the bottom of the water. In angling for him at the top with a natural fly, use the green drake and the stone fly; but these two only during the months of May and June. The mode of fishing in this way is called dipping, and is thus performed. If there be little or no wind to disturb your tackle, and agitate the surface of the stream, make use of a line half the length of the rod. If there be a wind, increase the length of the line by one half. Let the line fly up or down the river, according to the direction of the wind, and when you are aware of the rise of a fish, guide the fly over him, as in case of striking him. You have no length of line with which to weary him; the capture must be effected by main force; and if the tackle is sufficiently strong to resist the struggles of the fish, the angler, after a short contest, may insure himself a triumph. The precautions necessary in artificial fly-fishing, have been sufficiently stated above.

At mid-water.

Trout-angling, at mid-water, is effected by means of a small minnow, or with a caddis, grub, or any other species of worm. In angling with a minnow, the moderately sized, and whitest ones, will be found to be the most killing bait. It should be placed upon a large hook, to enable it to turn about when drawn against the stream; consequently the hook should be inserted in the mouth, and drawn out at the gills, or perhaps three or four inches beyond it would be necessary. It should be again drawn through the mouth with the point to the tail of the minnow; this finished, the hook and tail should be tied neatly together, by which means the evolutions of the bait will be more effectually, and at the same time more naturally performed. The slack of the line should then be pulled back, so that the body shall be nearly straight on the hook. If the minnow do not turn nimbly enough for your purpose, let the

tail be moved a little to the right or the left, as occasion shall direct; which process, by infusing the orifice made in the body of the minnow, will greatly facilitate its movements. Some have preferred the loach as a bait, to the minnow; by those who are nice in these matters, the same precautions in attaching it should be scrupulously observed. In angling with a worm or caddis, a cork float and the finest kind of tackle must necessarily be made use of, as the success of the young practitioner in this enchanting amusement, will greatly depend on his choice of articles. In muddy waters the loach-worm is considered the best bait; in clear streams, the handling: the first is generally used for large trout; the second, where smaller ones are expected.

ANGLING.

Angling at mid-water with a worm or caddis.

There are two methods of angling at bottom, either with a cork, or any other kind of float, or with the hand. The best way of angling with the hand, is by means of a ground bait, and a lag line, which should have no more than an hair next the hook, and just above it one small spot for a plum; the hook should be small, and the handling well secured, and only be fastened on at a time; this worm must always be kept in motion, and drawn towards the person who is fishing.

The With a caddis, which may be put upon the hook two or three at the same time; the caddis is sometimes advantageously joined to the worm, and occasionally even to an artificial fly, which should be placed upon the hook, so as merely to cover its point; the finest kind of tackle must be used in this experiment, and it is generally reputed a very killing bait, for either trout or grayling, at all seasons of the year. It is moreover a very common method to angle with a caddis at the top of the water. The caddis may be easily imitated by forming the head of the insect of black silk, and the body of yellow chamois leather. It must be remarked, however, that the trout will seldom or never rise at a caddis, when the stream is impregnated with mud.

Our object in these miscellaneous observations on the habits and history of the several fish usually caught in angling, has been to consult the practical convenience of the sportsman, by embodying the most useful information an every topic connected with his pursuits. For more detailed and scientific accounts of these fish, we refer our reader to Ichthyology, as a branch of Zoology, Div. ii.

We find Angling protected by statute, as early as by an act of the third year of the reign of Edward I. in which imprisonment, and treble damages were awarded, against all trespassers on the rights of the naturalised fisher. Of the numerous statutes in subsequent reigns, which relate to these rights, the following may be found a useful abridgment.

By the 31st Henry VIII. c. ii. s. 2. If any evil-disposed persons shall fish in the day-time, from six in the morning till six in the evening, in any ponds, stews, or moats, with nets, hooks, or bait, against the will of the owners, they shall on conviction thereof, at the suit of the king, or the party aggrieved, suffer imprisonment for the space of three months, and find security for their good behaviour.

By the 5th Elizabeth, c. xxi. s. 2. It is enacted, If any person shall unlawfully break or destroy any head or dam of a fish-pond, or shall wrongfully fish therein, with intent to take or kill fish, he shall, on conviction at the assizes or sessions, at the suit of the king, or the

AN-
GLING.

party injured, be imprisoned three months, and pay treble damages; and after the expiration of the said three months, shall find sureties for good behaviour for seven years to come.

By the 22d and 24d Charles II. c. xxv. s. 7, it is enacted, That if any person shall, at any time, use any casting-net, drag-net, shove-net, or other net whatever; or any angle, hair, noose, troll, or spear; or shall by any weirs, pots, nets, fish-hooks, or other engines; or shall take any fish by any means whatsoever, in any river, stew, moat, pond, or other water, or shall be aiding thereto, without the consent of the owner of the water, and be convicted thereof, within one month after the offence committed, such offender shall give to the party injured such satisfaction as a justice shall appoint, not exceeding treble damages; and pay the overseers of the poor such sum, not exceeding 10s., as the justice shall think fit: in default of payment, the said penalties to be levied by distress; or the offender to be committed to the house of correction, for a term not exceeding one month, unless he enter into a bond, with surety, in a sum not exceeding 10l. never to offend in like manner. Justices are also authorised to destroy all such articles as before recited and adapted to the taking of fish, as may be found in the possession of offenders when taken. Persons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter sessions, whose judgment shall be final.

And by the 4th and 5th William and Mary, it is enacted, That no person (except makers and sellers of nets, owners of a river or fishery, authorised fishermen and their apprentices) shall keep any net, angle, leap, pike, or other engine for taking of fish. The proprietor of any river or fishery, or persons by them authorised, may seize, and keep to his own use, any engine which shall be found in the custody of any person fishing in any river or fishery, without the consent of the owner or occupier. And such owner, occupier, or person authorised by either, sanctioned by the consent of any justice, in the day-time, may search the houses or other places of any unqualified person, who shall be suspected of having such nets, or other engines, in his possession, and the same to seize and keep to their own use, or cut in pieces and destroy.

Stealing fish in disguise is made felony by the 9th George I. c. xxii. If any person armed and disguised, shall unlawfully steal, or take away, any fish, out of any river or pond (whether named or not), shall unlawfully and maliciously break down the head or

mound of any fish-pond, whereby the fish shall be lost and destroyed, or shall rescue any person in custody for any such offence, or procure any other to join him therein, he shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. This (commonly called the Black Act) is made perpetual by 31st Geo. II. c. xlii.

By the 5th Geo. III. c. xiv. s. 1, it is enacted, That if any person shall enter into any park or paddock enclosed, or into any garden, orchard, or yard, belonging to, or adjoining to, any dwelling-house, wherein shall be any river, pond, moat, or other water, and, by any means whatsoever (without the consent of the owner) steal, kill, or destroy, any fish, bred, kept, or preserved therein, or shall be assisting therein, or shall receive or buy any such fish, knowing them to be such, shall, upon conviction, be transported for seven years. Persons making confession of such offence, and giving evidence against an accomplice, who, in pursuance thereof, shall be convicted, will be entitled to a free pardon.

And by the same act, s. 3, it is provided, That if any person shall take, kill, or destroy, or attempt to take, kill, or destroy, any fish in any river or stream, pool, pond, or other water (not being in any park or paddock enclosed, or in any garden, orchard, or yard, belonging or adjoining to a dwelling-house, but in any other enclosed ground, being private property), such person, being thereof convicted by confession, or the oath of one witness before a justice, shall forfeit five pounds to the owner of the fishery of such river or other water; and in default thereof, shall be committed to the house of correction for a time not exceeding six months.

By the 1st Eliz. c. xvii. all fishermen are forbidden to destroy the fry of fish, small salmon, and trout, under a penalty of 20s., and by the 4th and 5th Anne, for the protection of salmon in the counties of Southampton and Wilts, no salmon shall be taken between the 1st of August and 12th of November. Statutes of George I. and II. forbid the same fish to be taken in the rivers Severn, Wyre, Ware, Ouse, &c. under 18 inches long. It is held, that where the Lord of the Manor has the soil on both sides of a river, as in the case of the Severn, the right of fishing goes with it; and he, who intrudes thereon, must prove his claim of a free fishery; but when the tide ebbs and flows, and the river is an arm of the sea, as in the case of the Thames, the right is presumed to be common, and he who claims a privilege must prove it.

AN-
GLING.

ROACH	bs, gentles, flag worms, rubs, cow dung bobs, brms, brandlings.	Stone fly, green drake, palmer fly, ant fly, black fly.	Grasshopper.
RUD,	to.	Ditto.	
SALM	ms, earth bobs, cow bs, &c.	All large and gaudy flies, particularly the genus <i>phryganea</i> , the common May fly, dragon fly, and adder bolt.	Minnow, par, or saunlet.
SMEL	ols, gentles, cadis brandlings.	All small flies.	Bits of smelts, ditto of shrimps, small and raw.
STICK	g, or any small worm.		
TENCH	bs, gentles, wasp grubs, igs, cadis worms.		
TROUT	bs, flag worms, cow-bbs, cadis worms, loh sh worms, brandlings.	All flies.	Minnow, grasshopper, beetle.

* * be angles, by beating about the bushes and hedges of the neighbourhood; caught, and observing what food is contained in the intestines.

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ANGLE. Albert Girard, in his *Inventiones Nouvelles en l'Algebræ*; but it seems wholly to have escaped the notice of mathematicians; and the incomparability of solid angles with each other has been obstinately maintained by many celebrated geometricians.

ANGLE-SEA.

Nothing is, however, more obvious than that with respect to their absolute magnitude; these angles are as simply measured as plane angles, and that they may be divided, multiplied, &c. after the same manner, whether they form on the sphere itself a triangle, polygon, or circle: all that can be objected is, that they may be equal, and not similar; but this is no more than happens to every quantity which has reference to three dimensions.

If we assume the whole surface of any sphere described about the vertex of a solid angle as a centre, as 1000, or that of the hemisphere 1000, or any other number at pleasure, and then compute the area of the spherical base of that angle on the sphere, we shall have the specific value of the solid angle in question; and as the surface thus cut off by the planes, containing certain solid angles, is readily computed, it may not be amiss to state a few of the principal results, as they are given in the work above referred to.

Thus, with respect to the right prism, with an equilateral triangular base, each solid angle is formed by planes which make, respectively, angles of 90° , 90° , and 60° ; consequently $90^\circ + 90^\circ + 60^\circ = 180^\circ = 60^\circ$ is the measure of such an angle, compared with 360° , is the maximum, and is therefore one-sixth of the maximum angle; or, which is the same, it will cut off

1/6th of the hemispherical surface. In like manner, a right prism with a square base will cut off one-fourth of the hemispherical surface; and in the same way may the measures of the solid angles of the following figures be determined:

ANGLE-SEA.

Right-angled prism, with

triangular base	=	$\frac{1}{6}$ 1000,
square base	=	$\frac{1}{4}$ 1000,
pentagonal base	=	$\frac{1}{5}$ 1000,
hexagonal base	=	$\frac{1}{6}$ 1000,
heptagonal	=	$\frac{1}{7}$ 1000,
octagonal	=	$\frac{1}{8}$ 1000,
nonagonal	=	$\frac{1}{9}$ 1000,
decagonal	=	$\frac{1}{10}$ 1000,
undecagonal	=	$\frac{1}{11}$ 1000,
duodecagonal	=	$\frac{1}{12}$ 1000,
m-gonal	=	$\frac{m-2}{2m}$ 1000.

Hence, it may be deduced, that each angle of a regular prism, with a triangular base, is half each solid angle of a prism, with a regular hexagonal base. Each with a regular

square base	=	$\frac{1}{4}$ of each, with regular octagonal base,
pentagonal	=	$\frac{1}{5}$ of each, with decagonal
hexagonal	=	$\frac{1}{6}$ of each, with duodecagonal
m-gonal	=	$\frac{m-4}{m-2}$ of each, with m-gonal

For other measures and properties of these angles, we refer to the volume of Dr. Hutton's *Course of Mathematics* before quoted.

ANGLES, a town of France, in the department of the Tarn, Lower Languedoc, arrondissement of Castres. It is the head of a canton, 19 leagues W. of Montpellier, and contains 2,500 inhabitants.

ANGLES, or ANGLI, in Ancient History, a tribe of the Suevi, mentioned by Cæsar, as the most daring and noble spirited of all the Germans. Their final settle-

ments were toward the north of the Elbe, and the district of Anglen, in the duchy of Sleswick, seems still to retain their name. This is the tribe which, according to Rapin and many other writers, gave the name of England to the subjects of our Egbert, early in the ninth century.

A N G L E S E A

ANGLESEA, an island of the Irish sea, now forming one of the six counties of North Wales, from which it is separated by the narrow strait of Menai. Its Roman name was Mona, from the ancient British, Môn, which is conjectured by Rowland, in his *Mona Antiqua Restaurata*, to allude to its forming the terminating point of the British territories in this direction. It was also called, by the ancient Britons, Ynys Dwyall, or the Shady Island, and Ynys y Cedeirn, from its powerful chiefs; and seems to have received its present name, Anglesea, on its conquest by Egbert. Bode calls this island and that of Man, the Manavian isles. The channel of Menai, both at the time of the Roman and English conquests of this island, appears to have been much narrower than at present, and there are traces of an isthmus near Portlath-hwy, which would induce the supposition of its having once joined the main land of Caernarvonshire.

Anglesea is of an irregular triangular form, indented throughout with bays and creeks. Its greatest length, from north-west to south-east, is about 20 miles, and its breadth, from north-east to south-west, 16 miles, containing upwards of 200,000 acres of land. It is divided into six hundreds, Llyfion, Maltreath, Menai, Tulyhalion, Twicelyn, and Tyndethwy, which comprise twenty-four parishes, and four market-towns, Beaumaris, Holyhead, Lamerchymedd, and Newburgh. By the latest population returns, it appears to contain 33,806 inhabitants, 9,766 of whom are employed in agriculture, and 2,614 in trade or manufactures.

This island has no streams of any importance, or that are navigable for vessels of burden; but its harbours are both numerous and convenient. That of Beaumaris, with its two creeks, Holyhead and Alnwick, is taken as a member of the port of Chester. Red-wharf bay, to the north of Beaumaris, is said to

ANGLE-SEA. be capable of being made very safe and commodious at a small expense, and Dulas bay is a considerable outlet for the lead-mines in its vicinity. Aberfraw was anciently a port of consequence, and the chief sent of the princes of North Wales. The other harbours are Perth-llangy, Cemlyn, or Crooked Pond bay, and Malmeth, or Malmeth, on the western side. The climate is considerably milder than in the adjacent counties of North Wales; but is rendered unhealthy, in the autumn, by the frequent fogs that hang over the island, and which subject the inhabitants to agues. The general aspect of the country, which was certainly once remarkable for its woods, is naked and uninviting, with the exception of a small portion of it, bordering on the Menai straits. There are no considerable mountains, hills, or valleys, to diversify the scenery; and the greater part of the lands are unenclosed. Even on the shores of the strait, the trees are considerably stunted in their growth, under the south-west winds. "May the inhabitants," says Fuller, "be like the land they live in, which appears worse than it is; seeming barren but really fruitful, and affording plenty of good wheat."

Soil. The soil is, upon the whole, remarkably productive, and amply watered by natural rivulets for the purposes of vegetation. "Mon Mm Cymry," Anglesea is the mother of Wales, was a proverb of former times, according to Fuller, "because when other counties fail, she plentifully feedeth them with provision; and is said to afford corn enough to sustain all Wales." But it appears to have been considerably neglected until a very recent period, and even now large marshes remain undrained, which would promise to afford rich grazing pastures. The soil is principally a fine loamy sand, and, though sometimes shallow, will yield very heavy crops; the marine sand of the mouth of the creeks forms an excellent manure. Wheat, barley, and oats are its principal productions, of which, in good seasons, 10,000 quarters are exported to the main land. The black cattle of Anglesea have also long been distinguished. In the middle of the sixteenth century, there are accounts of three thousand head being sent off the island in one year; and, by the latest returns, this number has been increased to twelve, thirteen, and fifteen thousand. To these exports are added annually, about five thousand hogs; sheep, large quantities of wax, honey, tallow, and hides. In turning up the soil, numerous trees are found, in a remarkable state of preservation, and generally so black and hard as to form very neat and serviceable articles of household use.

Minerals. The mineral productions of Anglesea are both valuable and curious. Quarries, yielding excellent breccia for mill-stones, and some few marble quarries, are worked with success; the latter principally of the gray and white marble. Pennant speaks of a green amethyst, or brittle asbestos, found in great plenty, in a marble of that colour, near Rhoscolin. Some good coal-mines have been opened in various parts of the island, and particularly on the western shores. Lead ore is also found here, in and around the Parys' mountain, the copper of which is the most important mineral of the island. "I visited Tryselwyn mountain," says Mr. Pennant, "on part of which, called Parys' mountain (probably from a Roh Parys' who was chamberlain of North Wales in the reign of Henry IV.), is the most considerable body of copper ore perhaps ever known. The external aspect of the hill is extremely

rudé, and rises into enormous rocks of coarse white quartz. The ore is lodged in a basin, or hollow; and has on one side a small lake, on whose waters, distasteful as those of Averna, no bird is ever known to alight. The whole aspect of this tract has, by the mineral operations, assumed a most savage appearance. Suffocating fumes of the burning heaps of copper rise in all parts, and extend their baleful influence for miles around. In the adjacent parts, vegetation is nearly destroyed: even the mosses and lichens of the rocks have perished; and nothing seems capable of resisting the fumes but the purple Melic grass (*Melicæ cærules*), which flourishes in abundance. I have little doubt but that the ore has been worked in a very distant period. Vestiges of the ancient operations appear in several parts, carried on by trenching, and by heating the rocks intensely, then suddenly pouring on water, so as to cause them to crack or scale, thus awkwardly supplying the place of gunpowder. Pieces of charcoal are also found, which prove that wood was made use of for that purpose." "It is certain that the Romans were the undertakers of these mines; and it is very probable, that they sent the ore to Caer Hen to be smelted, the place where the famous cake of copper was discovered." Further on, he says, "The body of copper ore is of unknown extent. The thickness has been ascertained in some places, by the driving of a level under it, several years ago, and it was found to be in some places twenty-four yards. The ore is mostly of the kind called by Cronstead, *Pyrites cupri flavo viridescens*; and contains vast quantities of sulphur. It varies in degrees of goodness; some of it is rich, but the greater part poor in quality. There are other species of copper ore found here. Of late, a vein of *Pyrites cupri griseus*, of Cronstead, about seven yards wide, has been discovered, near the west end of the mountain; some is of an iron gray, some quite black; the first contains 16 lbs. of copper for 100 lbs. the last 40. An ore has been lately found in form of loose earth, of a dark purplish colour, and the best of it has produced better than 8 in 20. Some years ago, above 30 lbs. of native copper was found in driving a level through a turbary; some was in form of mass, some in very thin leaves. It is quarried out of the bed in vast masses; is broken into small pieces, and the most pure part is sold raw, at the rate of about 3*l.* to 6*l.* per ton, or sent to the smelting-houses of the respective companies, to be melted into metal."

"Nature hath been profuse in bestowing her mineral favours on this spot; for above the copper ore, and not more than three-quarters of a yard beneath the common soil, is a bed of yellowish greasy clay, from one to four yards thick, containing lead ore; and yielding from 600 to 1,000 lbs. weight of lead from one ton; and one ton of the metal yields not less than 57 ounces of silver. Mixed with the earth are frequently certain parts of the colour of cinnabar; whether these are symptomatic of the sulphureous arsenical silver ores, or of quicksilver, I will not pretend to decide."

The history of the modern discovery of the value of this mountain is curious:—A Mr. Alexander Fraser, visiting Anglesea to explore the mines. In 1766, so confidently represented to Sir Nicholas Balfour, the then proprietor, his expectations of the metal that might be obtained there, as to induce him to sink several shafts. All of them, however, were quickly overflowed with water. In 1768, Sir Nicholas insisted upon the lease of this moun-

ANGLE-SEA.

History of the Parys' mines.

ANGLE-
SEA.

tain being taken with that of Penryn Dol mine, in Caernarvonshire, by Messrs. Roe and Co. of Mercelessfield. Their first trials upon this property were equally unsuccessful, and the little profit on what was discovered, was greatly overbalanced by the loss of working it. Their agent, at last, was upon the point of abandoning the shafts, when imagining that a spring of water, near a place now called the Golden Venture, must come from a body of mineral, he fortunately penetrated to the solid mass of copper ore, which has since been so productive; and which he found, on the 6th of March, 1798, at the depth of seven feet from the surface. The anniversary of this discovery is regularly kept among the miners, who have greatly increased the population of the island. From 1,500 to 3,000 men were constantly employed here some few years ago, who, with other dependent workmen and their families, made up from 8 to 10,000 persons, obtaining their living from this remarkable mountain. The prosperity of the port of Amthwyl wholly originated in its connection with these mines. Of late years, however, they have not been so productive; the number of miners being reduced, in 1809, to less than one half of the number in Mr. Pennant's time.

Mode of
working
them.

The mode of working the ore in this mountain is peculiar, perhaps, to itself. As it lies not in veins, but in a solid mass, it is extracted by direct labour on the body of the metal, which is laid open in considerable pits. The sides of these excavations are generally perpendicular; but, for convenience, or to follow a richer body of copper, passages of every shape are cut into the mountain, and supported by arches and columns of metal. This manner of working in quarries open to the day, is said to be very favourable to the health of the miners. The sides of the chasms are bordered by a sort of wooden platform, to which windlasses are fixed, and workmen are suspended from them, who procure the greatest part of the ore by means of pickaxes, directed against the perpendicular face of the hollow. In other parts of the mountain, they resort to blasting by gunpowder, of which several tons are used annually for this purpose in the neighbourhood.

The ore, thus obtained in small pieces, is further broken by hammers, and then submitted to the operation of fire-kilns. These are brick-vaulted passages, of about the height of a man, and from eight to ten feet wide. Attached to one end is an apartment connected with the kiln by three flues, which are designed to collect the sulphur; or, according to a recent improvement, this apartment is on a level with the top of the ore, and the whole is of the shape of our lime-kilns. When the ore has been properly heated by coal, the oxidation of the metal itself, and the formation of portions of the sulphur into sulphuric acid, maintain the combustion; while the rest of the sulphur, collected into vapour at top, falls down in the finest flowers of brimstone. These, being melted in adjacent apartments, are formed into the stone-brimstone of the shops. Sometimes, one or two thousand tons of ore are burnt together in these chambers.

After this operation, which reduces it to a fourth of the quantity, the metal is dressed and washed, when the superior ore is dried and transferred to the reverberatory furnaces of the neighbouring shores. The inferior ores are committed to furnaces on the spot, which produce at the rate of about half a hundred weight of copper from 12 cwt. of ore.

The water which exudes from the crevices of the mountains, or is drawn up by pumps into pits on the surface, is a still more profitable source of pure copper. These pits are about 30 feet in length, two in depth, and four broad, connected by pools, which serve as a reservoir for the water in different stages of the process. Into them is carefully emptied the water with which the ore has been washed, which is strongly impregnated with sulphate of copper in common with the waters of the mountain; and old iron, or plates prepared for the purpose, being immersed therein, the copper is precipitated in the form of a dull red powder. If pure, this precipitate will yield 88 per cent. of pure copper; but from mixture with the clay, seldom averages more than 53 per cent. The water that has been drawn off into the reservoirs, affords an oxy-sulphate, which deposits a yellow ochre that forms a considerable article of commerce with the port of Liverpool. Green vitriol and alum are yielded by a similar process from these pits.

A few linen and woollen cloths are the only manufactures of Anglesea; the herring fishery has been cultivated with considerable success on the shores; and abundance of shell fish are found in the bays and inlets. The Penmon oysters are much esteemed.

From the port of Holyhead, the London mails and packets sail regularly for Ireland; this port has received, in consequence, considerable attention from government, within the last ten years; and a project is still entertained of throwing a chain bridge across the strait of Menai, to connect Anglesea with the main land. In the most convenient part it would require only one areb of the span of 500 feet.

Holyhead.

Anglesea, according to many a chronicle, was the chief seat of Druidical superstition. One of its ancient names, before mentioned, *Ynys Dwyall*, the Shady Island, evidently alludes to the groves of its remarkable priesthood; but the annals of Tacitus supply us with the only historical data upon this subject, on which we can safely rely. When the Roman general Suetonius Paulinus had subdued the neighbouring provinces of the Britons, A. D. 59, he is said to have effected a passage for his infantry over the Menai, in flat-bottomed boats, while the cavalry readily swam across the strait, in pursuit of the last remnant of the ancient race. Before they had well effected a landing, the Druids called their votaries of both sexes round the spot (*miliebre et fanaticum agmen*); the women with dishevelled locks, running amongst their countrymen carrying torches, and echoing the imprecations of the priests, whose followers made a manly but vain resistance. So incensed was the Roman general at this opposition, and at the rites of their horrid superstition, which taught them, it is said, to sacrifice their enemies to the gods; that he did not hesitate to throw the few that escaped from the battle into the fire which they had prepared for their captives. Their groves were now burnt or cut down, and their altars and temples overturned; but before the extirpation of the Druids could be completed, the Roman army was recalled to Britain by a general insurrection of the provinces in their rear. This circumstance afforded the chiefs an opportunity to regain their independence, and re-establish their religion, which was not finally eradicated until about fifteen years from this date, when, after an incalculable loss, according to Tacitus, both of blood and treasure, on the part of the Romans, Julius Agricola finally subdued the island.

On the abandonment of Britain by the Romans, the

ANGLE-
SEA.

Value of the
water.

Ancient
history of
Anglesea.

ANGLE-
SEA.
—
ANGOLA.

princes of Cambria, were recited to their ancient sovereignty, and Cadwallan, of the eldest branch of the Cynethian line of Druids, made Aberfraw the metropolis of the northern principality. At this place his successors held their seat, until the conquest of the island by Egbert, at the period of his uniting the Saxon heptarchy into one government. The English monarch met, at first, with a valiant and successful resistance; but finally overwhelmed its brave inhabitants by numbers, and the ancient line of their princes ultimately ceased in the person of Llewellyn, A. D. 1282. The army of Egbert is said to have passed over by a bridge of boats, at the same point of the Welsh coast from which the Romans invaded the island. This is now called Moel y Don, one of the five ferries between Anglesen and the Welsh shore.

Edward I. according to Hollingshead, built the castle of Beaumaris, to secure the quiet possession of this island, and to overawe the Welsh. It was long governed by a constable and captain of the town, an office of considerable authority in these parts. In the reign of Henry VIII. the island was first regularly incorporated with the kingdom of England; and constituted a county of the

principality, sending two members to parliament. In 1648, it made a noble stand in favour of Charles I. against the forces of the parliament, and all the male inhabitants from 16 years of age to 60, devoted themselves to assist the royal cause. Several plans were partially netted upon at this time, for the purpose of setting the king at liberty when he was a prisoner in Carisbrooke castle, Isle of Wight; but the garrison was finally obliged to surrender to the parliamentary forces, and the inhabitants to submit to a mulct of nearly 20,000*l.* to be relieved from the sequestration of their estates.

The cromlechs, or supposed altars of the Druids, are still found in Anglesen, more than in any other part of Great Britain. The larger ones are formed by one immense flat stone; at the end of which is a smaller one, both being in an inclined position, and surrounded by others at a short distance, to the number of eight or nine. Some have conjectured them to be sepulchral monuments; twenty-eight of them are said to be found here. Anglesen lies at an average distance of 250 miles N. W. from London; Beaumaris 241 miles, Holyhead 278.

ANGLE-
SEA.
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ANGOLA.

ANGLIA, EAST, in Ancient Geography, one of the kingdoms of the Heptarchy, founded on the eastern coast of Britain, under twelve chiefs of the Angles, the survivor of whom, Uffa, assumed the title of king of the East-Angles, in 571. This kingdom, whose breadth was 55, and length 80 miles, was bounded on the W. by Mercia, on the S. by the kingdom of Essex, on the N. and the E. by the Humber, and the German ocean. It comprised the present counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, and part of Cambridgeshire, containing the principal towns of Norwich, Thetford, Ely, and Cambridge. The last monarch of this kingdom, Ethelbert, succeeded Ethelred in 790, and two years after was murdered by Uffa, king of Mercia, who united this district to his own dominions.

ANGLICISE, *n.* } To English; to make English.
ANGLOICISM.

That which casts our proficiency therein so much behind, is our time lost partly in too oft idle vacancies given both to schools and universities, partly in a preposterous caecity, forcing the empty wits of children to compose theses, verses, and orations, which are the acts of ripost judgement. * * * besides the ill habit which they get of wretched barbarising against the Latin and Greek idiom, with their untutor'd anglicisms, custom to be read.

Milton, on Education.

It was apparently his principal endeavour to avoid all harshness

and severity of diction; he is therefore sometimes verbose in his transitions and connections, and sometimes deviates too much to the language of conversation; yet if his language had been less idiomatical, it might have lost somewhat of its genuine anglicism.

Johann's Life of Addison.

The same place and powers, which γ had in the Greek language, he [the letter U] stood fully entitled to in the English; and that therefore of right he ought to be possessed of the place of γ even in all Greek words *Anglicised.*

Edward's Case, Cril.

ANGLICUS, or ANGLICANUS SEDOA, in Medicine, the sweating sickness, once an English endemic of great prevalence, but now no longer known.

ANGLO-CALVINISTS, in Ecclesiastical History, a term which has been sometimes applied to the members of the church of England, by those who allege the doctrines of the church to be a modification of Calvinism.

ANGLO-SAXON, the language spoken by the Saxons, who originally settled in England, in distinction from pure Saxon, as well as from modern English, of which it contains the root and substance. Also the name of the people who conquered England after the Romans had abandoned it, and who spoke the Anglo-Saxon language. These subjects, intimately connected with each other, will be found to receive our particular attention in the proper period of our Historical Division.

ANGOLA.

ANGOLA, a district of the coast of W. Africa, whose limits are variously described by geographers. Angola Proper was formerly a province of Congo, bounded by the Danda river Northwards, the Congo on the South, and extending to unknown limits of the interior eastward. The sovereigns of this district, however, becoming independent, conquered the kingdom of Benguela, on the South, as far as Cape Negro, in lat. 16°, 21'; and the whole of this line of coast, being nearly 500 miles in length, has been generally

included in the name of Angola. A recent traveller, indeed, asserts (M. Degrandpre) that the coast, as high up as to the 1st degree of S. lat. is mercatorially known as that of Angola; while the whole of the interior bears the name of Congo; and, according to every modern account (including that of the late expedition under Captain Tuckey), the inhabitants of this line of coast are all of similar manners and character, and speak the same language; which differs materially from that of the nations of Northern Africa.

ANGOLA. The Portuguese writers describe this country as being originally divided into seventeen provinces, eleven of which became subject to the king of Portugal in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

The Danda and Coanza are the principal rivers, as Angola has generally been considered. At their entrance into the Atlantic they are not more than 70 or 80 miles from each other; but diverge to a much greater distance in the interior, as far as their courses have been traced. The former has been supposed to be navigable for about 30 leagues, and receives the Leucale, and several minor streams in its progress to the coast. The Coanza is a much larger stream, and has been navigated 150 miles inward to Cambambo, a Portuguese fortress. It is more than a league wide at its mouth, where, as well as for several leagues upward, it is adorned by various islands.

St. Paulo de Loanda, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in this direction, is a considerable and well-built town. It is situated on the shores of the Atlantic, in S. lat. 8°, 35'. The houses, which are full 3,000 in number, and inhabited solely by the European settlers, are built of stone; and the streets are wide and regular. The natives, who are still more numerous than the Portuguese, inhabit the meanest huts in the vicinity. As the commerce of the whole coast, and indeed all that is correctly known of it, has arisen from the abominable traffic in slaves, immense numbers of them are employed in the agriculture of the Portuguese provinces, from whence they are continually transferred to the Brazils. The Jesuits, who are the priests of the district, are said to have at least 1,300 under their control. The ecclesiastical and charitable edifices of Loanda are numerous and well-endowed. It is a bishop's see, and remarkable for the magnificence with which the festivals of the Catholic church are celebrated. Here is also a commodious port, with a sheltered roadstead of half a mile in breadth, opposite to which is the island of Loanda, which supplies the city with water, and is well inhabited. This island is five leagues in length, and one in breadth, and presents, with its fine churches and convent, an engaging prospect from the sea. See LOANDA.

From the southern limits of Angola, near Cape Negro, commences a remarkable range of mountains, which extend into the interior in a N. E. direction, and many of which are covered with perpetual snow. Of their exact height we have no dimensions; but the Portuguese call them Monti Freddi and Monti Nivosi, from their height and snow-clad appearance; and the highest summit Cambambo. The melted snow is said to rush from them in torrents during the summer season, and to form immense sheets of water at their base. On the Cambambo is a silver mine, all approach to which is guarded with great jealousy by the Portuguese. The plains of this region feed large herds of wild cattle and mules. The elephant, and the rhinoceros, the lion, and the tiger, rush from the mountains in great numbers, and find abundant prey.

Most of the tropical fruits and grains, particularly maize, or Turkey wheat, are found between the 8° and 12° of latitude, together with the manihoc, imported from the West Indies, and which is made into a coarse kind of bread. The Portuguese assume the merit of having introduced most of the fruit-trees which flourish here, but their accounts of the country are generally

so fabulous, and of such remote date, that we can hardly either credit or convert them. The palm, the banana, and cocoa-trees, everywhere abound; and appear to attain to unusual height and beauty. Of the former, the most common is, a tree which yields a fruit, containing many kernels of the size of a filbert, which are of an exquisite taste, when ripe, and yield an agreeable eating oil. The leaves of this tree are large and strong, and used as a sort of thatch for houses; around its stem grows a beautiful downy moss. It also yields a pleasant liquor on incision. Another plant, resembling our apple-tree, affords a medicinal sort of resin, or thin wax, much used by the natives. In the province of Chipama, are some fine salt-pits, from which oblong cakes of salt are made by the inhabitants, and sent throughout Africa as an article of interior merchandize.

In addition to the silver mine, which we have already noticed, lead, and even gold, are said to have been found here, though never in considerable quantities. Some valuable iron mines are worked by the Portuguese at Cahazzo, and large quantities of ore are said to be washed down by the mountain torrents, which the natives intercept by laying straw and other substances across the stream.

We have also observed, that our principal knowledge of this coast arises from the extent to which that scourge of Africa, the slave trade, has been carried on here. The Portuguese tell us, that they found the natives a most wretched and cannibal race; preferring the flesh of man for food to that of animals, and always sacrificing numbers of human victims at their funerals. Some of the southern tribes are still said to addict themselves to these practices. But, though from the years 1580 to 1590, no less than 20,000 of the natives are stated to have been converted by the Portuguese missionaries, Christianity has made little abiding impression upon them; and of Christian example, what could have been expected to overbalance the iniquity on which their masters live, for centuries, fattened and flourished?

Availing themselves of the disputes at that time ripening between the kings of Congo and Angola, the Portuguese readily established themselves, in the first instance, and afterwards fanned the flame of war to procure the captives for their South American possessions. At this period, (1584), it is stated, that an army of 120,000 Angolans was routed by 500 Portuguese soldiers, assisted by about 1,000 of the Congolese, and a similar rabble, in the following year, 10,000 in number, by 200 Portuguese. These were a sort of regular militia of the country, of which the king of Angola compelled every petty chief to furnish his quota for the public service. To this day, the native troops are stated to be very little superior, as such, to their forefathers. Their implements of warfare the bow, sword, target, and dagger; with the drums, and European music, introduced by their conquerors. They attack with the usual savage shouts and momentary fury; but a slight, steady resistance defeats them beyond the possibility of recovery. Parties are frequently formed by the natives as well as their conquerors to roam for captives in the interior, that they may sell them to the European settlers and slave-ships. Sometimes they will take with them considerable herds of cattle, which they drive towards the quarter where a booty of this kind is expected, and concealing themselves in the

ANGOLA. long grass of the pastures, rush out upon the natives that come to seize the cattle with irresistible impetuosity.

**ANGOU-
LEME.**

Great Britain, during her long connection with this accursed trade, had never any considerable intercourse with this part of the coast, but one establishment in the neighbourhood, i. e. at the mouth of the Congo. After the Portuguese, the Dutch were tempted hither; and the French, previous to the Revolution, largely shared in the slave-adventures to Loanda and its vicinity; carrying off, it is supposed, from 15,000 to 18,000 slaves annually. Since the abolition of this traffic, by the British parliament, the trade has been concentrated, on this coast, in the hands of Spanish and Portuguese merchants; it is, perhaps, at present, nowhere so extensive; involving, on an average, the transportation of full 40,000 human beings per annum, of which the "finest species" are said to be procured from Malamba.

The voyage to Angola, after having passed Cape

Verde, is generally performed by one of two routes. The first, which is called the long route, after a south-west course from the cape, crosses the line at the 23d degree of W. lon. and this direction is continued, until between the 90th and 25th degrees of lat. the vessels generally fall in with a propitious wind and tide, for the coast of Africa. This course, though always longer, on the average, of the two, than the one we are about to mention, is remarkably uniform in its winds, and may be calculated upon to a few days.

The other is known by the name of the short route, in which ships steer directly E. until they reach Cape Lopez Gonsalvo. In this course, they commonly have in the morning, a land-breeze; in the afternoon, a S. W. wind; and, during the night, a dead calm. The success of the voyage is dependant on the currents: if favourable, they soon wait the vessels to their destined haven; if adverse, the short route may prove by far the longer one, and be protracted to eight or ten months.

ANGOLA.
ANGRA.

ANGORA, a large and populous city of Natolia, 21½ miles from Constantinople; and one of the neatest and most polished towns of Asia Minor. The inhabitants, whose numbers cannot be exactly ascertained, are composed of Turks and Christians. It formerly was much more extensive, and its population perhaps double that of recent times, having been reckoned at 80,000 souls. The town stands on an eminence, and is surrounded by mountains, covered with rich gardens of fruit and flowers. It is a fortified place, having a strong castle, walls, and gates. The castle itself resembles a town; but the walls of the city are suffered to go to decay. The streets are causewayed by blocks of granite; but they have no foot-paths. There are seven churches here belonging to Greek and Armenian Christians, besides several mosques for the Mahometans. Angora was, at one time, a place of great trade; and the inhabitants still maintain a considerable manufacture of yarn, Angora stuffs, and shawls. It is supposed that not less than 15,000 pieces of these latter articles are yearly made in the city. The shawls are peculiarly fine, rivalling even those of Cashmere, and fabricated from the hair of the Angora goat. The surrounding country is chiefly occupied in the rearing of wheat. Opium, however, is cultivated in the district, and large quantities of honey and wax are obtained from the extensive bee-hives in and near the city. Angora stands on the site of the ancient *ANCVRA*, which see, in E. lon. 35°, 14'. N. lat. 40°, 4'.

ANGOSTURA, a town of South America, in the kingdom of Granada, 140 miles from Santa Fe de Bogota, situated on the banks of the Magdalena.

ANGOT, a province of Abyssinia, now suffered to go to decay. See *ABYSSINIA*.

ANGOU, a province of Congo, on the northern bank of the river Zaire. The chief town is Bouamangor; but the principal part of the commerce is carried on at Calenda.

ANGOULEME, a town of France, situated on the right bank of the river Charente, of the department of which it is now the capital; 20 leagues from Bourdeaux, and 161 from Rochefort. It is an ancient and very important town, and at present contains a population of about 14,745, inhabitants, who carry on a

considerable trade in wine, brandy, salt, saffron, cherries, and other fruits; besides some manufactures of paper, linen, and woollen cloth. There were formerly here ten convents, two abbeys, a college of Jesuits, and an extensive hospital; but at present, with the exception of its trade and commerce, Angoulême is remarkable only for the rank it holds in the annals of French History, and for conferring the title of duke on the nephew of the king of France.

ANGOUMAIS, a province of France, of which Angoulême was the capital; but the changes which have of late years taken place with respect to the civil divisions of that country, have, in a manner, destroyed the appellation formerly given to this district. It is a rich and important portion of the kingdom, yielding grain of all sorts, besides several valuable productions of the mineral kingdom, particularly iron. Red and white wines are made in various parts of this district; and the famous Cogniac brandy comes from Charente, one of the towns within its precincts.

In the Chronicles of Froissart, and other French historians, the province of Angoumois occupies a very important station. It was at one time dignified with the title of a county; and has very often changed masters. In the wars and tumults occasioned by the disputes between the Catholics and Protestants, the Angoumois were very actively engaged. The capital was twice in the hands of the Protestants. By the treaty of Bretigny, in the year 1360, it was ceded to the English; but the inhabitants shortly afterwards transferred their allegiance to Charles V. of France. In the year 1515, Francis I. erected it into a duchy in favour of his mother, but after her death it reverted to the crown. The entire length of this district, which is now divided into the departments of the Charente, the Charente Inferieure, the Dordogne, and the Deux Sevres, is 24 French leagues, and its breadth 10, comprising an area of 240 square leagues.

ANGOXA, a river of Africa, on the eastern coast of that continent, in the country of Mosambique. There are several small islands near its mouth, and a bay which bears the same name, in S. lat. 16°, 30'.

ANGRA, a town of Terceira, one of the Azore Islands. It contains five parish churches, a cathedral, four monasteries, and four convents of nuns; and is the seat of the

ANGRA.
—
ANGUL-
NUM
OVUM.

Portuguese local government. Its harbour is very fine, but the fortifications of the town have been suffered to go to decay. The English, French, and Dutch have consuls resident here.

ANGRE, a town of France, in Anjou, department of the Maine and Loire, arrondissement of Segre, five leagues from Angers.

ANGRIVARI, in Ancient Geography, a people of Germany mentioned by Tacitus, as occupying a country between the Weser and Elbe. *Annal.* ii. c. 8.

ANGROINE, a commune of Lucerne, in Piedmont, watered by a river of the same name. It is a rich and fertile country abounding in chestnuts and other fruits, with much valuable pasture land. It lies in a valley, many parts of which are inaccessible, and on this account, during the persecution of the Albigenses, and the Waldenses, it formed their last and most secure retreat.

ANGRUS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Illyricum, which flowing in a northern direction through the plain of Trihalli, fell into the Brongus.

ANGUEM, a district of Abyssinia, watered by a river of the same name, which falls into the Tacuzze, about 50 miles from Axum.

ANGUILLA, or SNAKE ISLAND, an island in the West Indies, in which the English formed a settlement in the year 1650. It is the most northerly of the Caribbee islands, lying in W. lon. 63°, 10', and in N. lat. 18°, 19'. It is 10 leagues in length, and three in breadth, and of a serpentine figure. Tobacco, maize, sugar, and cattle are among its principal productions; but there is only one sea-port of consequence. Anguilla is also the name of one of the Bahama islands, being 90 miles long, and five broad. To the north-west of the island are a great number of rocks and islets, collectively called Anguilla bank.

ANGUILLARA, a town of Italy, in the vicariate of Padua, six miles from Rovigo, situated on a lake of the same name. It contains 2,860 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in fish, which are caught in great plenty in the Aguiara lake. There is also a village of this name in Italy, where the river Arone issues, from the lake of Bracciano, 19 miles from Rome. Pope Benedict XIV. in the year 1758, erected this place into a duchy.

ANGUILLE, a bay on the N. N. E. side of the island of St. John's, in the gulf of St. Lawrence, opposite the Magdalen Isles. It has St. Peter's harbour on the S. E. and Port Chumenc on the N. W. There is also a cove of this name in Newfoundland, on the W. side; also in the gulf of St. Lawrence, six leagues N. from Cape Ray.

ANGUINAL HYPERBOLA, the name given by Sir Isaac Newton to his curves of the species xxxiii. xxxiv. xxxv. xxxvi. of the second order; being hyperbolas of a serpentine figure, thus expressed; $xy^2 + ey = a - x^2 + bx^2 + cx + d$.

ANGUINUM OVUM, or SERPENT'S EGG, in the customs of the Druids, was a ball or egg encased in gold, and worn, according to Pliny, as a badge of their office. He describes it, *Hist. Nat.* xxxix. c. 3. as "about the bigness of a moderate apple; its shell is a cartilaginous incrustation, full of little cavities, such as are on the legs of the polypus." The manner of its production was reported, according to the historian, to have been most extraordinary. It was said to be composed

ANGUI-
NUM
OVUM.
—
AN-
GUOUR.

of the joint saliva of a bed or cluster of snakes intertwined together; and never to be discovered, but by its being lifted up in the air by the hissing of the snakes; when it was caught in a clean white cloth before it fell to the ground. But this interference with their progeny was violently resented by the serpents, from whom, the person seizing the egg, was obliged to escape on horseback, at full speed. The test of its being a genuine egg of this kind, was equally marvellous. When encased in gold, it was thrown into a river, and, if genuine, would swim against the stream. Mason, in his *Corcoratus*, thus perpetuates the description of Pliny.

When in undulating twine,
The foaming snakes prolific join;
When they hies, and when they bear
Their wondrous egg aloof in air,
Thence, before to earth it falls,
The Druid in his halloo'd call
Receives the prize,
And instant flies,
Follow'd by the cavern'd brood,
Till he cross the crystal flood.

It need hardly be added, that this was a most potent engine of superstition and empiricism, as no amulet; in particular, says Pliny, it made the wearer successful in all disputes and controversies, and in procuring the favour of the great. After all, it would seem to be nothing but a large bead of glass, more or less streaked, and traces of a popular reverence for this kind of amulet are found in the West of England, Wales, and the Highlands, to this day.

ANGUIS, in Zoology, a tribe of serpents, none of which are venomous. See ZOOLOGY Div. ii.

ANGUOUR, s. } Fr. Angoise. It. Angoscia. Sp.
ANGUIN, } Angustia. Ger. and Dutch, Angst.
ANGUISHER, } All from the same source as *Anger*.
ANGUISHERS, } See ANGUS. A. S. Ang-jumias,
vexare, contristare, angere; to vex, to make sorry.
Applied generally to any great distress, or excessive pain of body.

To excessive vexation, trouble, distress of mind, for affliction already befallen; and may thus be distinguished from *Anxiety*.

Some with grette procenyon in gret angwre and fore
Weppe by wote þe kynge, & her relykes myd hem bere,
And oþer holy chyrche þinges bare vore rehon.

R. Gloucester, p. 177.

Who thanne schel departe us fro the charite of crist? tribuloun or angwisch, or hangir or schidoun or persecucion or peril or sword? *Wiclif, Remexia, c. viii.*
Who schal separate us from ye love of God? schal tribuloun? or angwische? or persecucion? or other hangir? other schidoun? or other perill? other sword?
Dike, 1539.

But when I me awake, and find it but a dreame
The angwisch of my former wo begimeth most extreme,
And me tormenteth so, that unweeth may I find,
Some hidden paine, wherein to shake the gnawing of my mind.

Servay.

þo fader kyng Henry [the second] in herte had be þajur,
& angwisch growlyd; þat Thomas was so slayn.

R. Brant, p. 132.

A phe carynthis, she len not angwischid in us, but she len angwischid in phore ywardness. *Wiclif, Cerynth. ch. vi.*
Kyng Artur was angwisch in þis companie,
þat he þeþer traytor side of scaped hym so tye.

R. Gloucester, p. 222.

And further-over contrition shold be wonder secretful and angwischous; and therefore yeveth him God plainly his excise; and therefore when my soul was angwischous, and sorrowful within me, than had I remembrance of God, that my prayer might come to him.

Chaucer, The Pervance, Tale, v. li. p. 362.

AN-
GUOR.
ANHALT.

Rien. Great Lord of Warwicks, if we should recount
Our lawful wars, and at our words deliberate
Shall pierce in our flesh, till all were told,
The words would add more anguish than the wounds.
Shakespeare's 3d pt. Henry VI.

Have I not poured out many heavy sighs and tears for mine
offences? Do I not ever look lock upon them, with a vehement
longing and detestation? Have I not, with much anguish of soul,
confessed them before the face of that God whom I have grieved?

Rip. Hall's Dotan's fiery darts quenched.

To be plain, argues honesty; but to be pleasing, argues discretion.
Sore are not to be engrained with a rustic pressure; but
gently stroked with a ladies' hand. *Frederick's Memoirs, cont. i.*

The death of Woobey would make a fine moral picture; if the
hand of any master could give the pallid features of the dying
statesman that chagrin, that remorse, those pangs of anguish,
which, in these last bitter moments of his life, possessed him.
Gilpin's Tour in the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

ANGURIA, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging
to the class Monocotyledon, and order Diandria.

ANGUS, a county of Scotland, but now more gene-
rally known by the name of Forfar, which see.

ANGUST, adj. Lat. *angustus*. NARROW. See ANGEL.
Narrow, constricted, straitened.

As Peter Noliis will have the air be no august, what proportion
is there betwixt the other three elements and it? To what use
serves it? Is it full of spirits which inhabit it, as the Pyracles and
Platonists hold, the higher the more noble, full of birds, or a
mere vacuum to no purpose? *Burton's Anal. of Mel.*

ANGUSTURA, in Medicine, a species of bark, of a
yellowish brown colour, and covered with a whitish
uneven epidermis. It grows in South America, from
whence it was brought by the Spaniards to Trinidad.
In powder it has a similar appearance to rhubarb, and
has a bitter unpleasant taste. It has been of great
utility in cases of diarrhoea, scrophula, and a debili-
tated system.

ANHANGU, v. To hang. See HANG.

And right soon, the ministers of the town
Hear beat the carters, and so soon him pinel,
And eke the hostler so soon engirded,
That they began his wickedness anon,
And were *anhangu'd* by the necke bone.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, vol. ii. p. 161.

"Do, way!" said Guy, "therof speak nought!
"By him that all this world hath wrought,
"I had liefer thou were *an-hang*!
"Ac thou hast sworn great plenty;
"I wot thou must lead me
"One of thise axes strong."

Ellis. Romances, vol. ii. p. 84.

ANHALT, or ANHOLT, an ancient principality of
Germany, raised in the year 1806, to the dignity of a
duchy. It is bounded on the N. by the mark of Bran-
denburgh; on the E. and S. by the kingdom of
Saxony; on the S. W. by Mansfeld county; and on the
N. W. by Brunswick, Halberstadt, and Magde-
burg. It is 60 miles in length, and from 13 to
16 in breadth; containing 20 considerable towns,
numerous villages, and a population of about 110,000
inhabitants. Corn, tobacco, fruits of various kinds,
cattle, and wood, are among its principal productions.
It yields an annual revenue of about 600,000 dollars,
and is divided principally among the houses of
Bernburg (now dukes of Anhalt), Dessau, and Ko-
then. These princes, though nearly allied, are in-
dependent of each other; and to each of their respec-
tive portions of territories there are attached an ex-
chequer, and a consistory. The possessions of the
prince of Dessau, in Prussia, Silesia, and other parts of

Germany, are included in the above estimate of the ANHOLT.
annual revenue of their states. There are two colonies
of this name, called *Old Anhalt* and *New Anhalt*, in
Silesia, in the lordship of Plesse, belonging to the
prince of Anhalt-Kothen. These settlements were
originally formed by a number of emigrant Poles; but
they left it at the time of the last confederation, in the
year 1098. The inhabitants, both in these colonies,
and in the principality of Anhalt, are mostly Calvinists,
and Lutherans. During the year 1818, these two
churches in Germany united on the principles of a
broad and liberal policy.

ANHOLT, a Danish island in the Cattegat, between
Lessoë and Zealand, in E. lon. 11°, 35', and N. lat.
56°, 35'. A ridge of sand-banks, extending several
miles, in a southerly direction, renders the approach to
the coast extremely dangerous. There is, however, a
light-house, erected in a conspicuous part of the
island. This island, in the year 1811, was in the pos-
session of the English; when, on the 27th of March in
that year, it was attacked by a Danish flotilla, con-
sisting of 18 heavy gun-boats, carrying nearly 4,000
men. They failed, however, in their repeated efforts
against the fort and batteries; and were themselves
nearly all captured by the British. *Anholt* is also the
name of a town and castle in Germany, between Mun-
ster, Cleves, and Zutphen, on the banks of the Old
Yssel. In the year 1800, the Dutch obtained this
town from the French; but it was afterwards restored
to its present owners, of the house of Salms; and is
the residence of the head of that family. Distant 90
miles from Nimwegen.

ANILOTE, in Law, a single tax or tribute. In the
laws of William the Conqueror, the terms *anilote* and
anlot occur; and mean that every one should pay his
share agreeably to the custom of the country.

ANIAN STRAITS, a name frequently given to the
narrow interval between Tchutski Noss, the N. E.
point of Asia, and the N. W. point of America.

ANIANE, sometimes called St. Benoit, a town of
France, in Lower Languedoc, department of Hérault,
arrondissement of Montpellier, from which it is distant
five and a half leagues. It contains about 1,800 in-
habitants, many of whom are employed in an extensive
manufacture of crystallized tartar for exportation.
There is a Benedictine abbey here.

ANIENT, v. } Fr. *Anéantir*, to annihilate, from
ANIENT'ISE. } *Néant*, nothing. *Néant*, Ital. *Niente*,
is illustrated by Menage, in his *Diction. Etymologique*.
Nihil, *nilulare*, *ubilare*, *nihilant*, *nibilant*, *nibant*,
niente. In his *Origini della Lingua Italiana*, he offers
other conjectures. To the *Meil. Latin*, *Nilulare*, and
various derivatives, were in common use. See them in
Du Cange.

That wikkliche and wilfulliche, wolde mercy asprete.

The Vision of Peire Plousman, p. 335.

And eke ye han erred, for ye han brought with you to youre
counsel ire, corcelise, and handfoules, the which three thingen ben
contrary to every counsil honest and profitable: the which three
thingen ye se kan not *anienet* or destroyed, neither in yourself
ne in youre counsellours, as you ought.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. li. p. 94.

ANIGHT. On night. In the night.

As Edmond sat unyde ja oot *anight* in such solace,
As fell nyrge, for he were wounded & sore & every vice,
And speke of jys badely, how yett *anight* he god!
An olde kyng for now ry, & byoure jys folle stode.

R. Glouceter, p. 335.

ANIGHT.
—
ANIMAD-
VERT.

This Diódo hath suspicion of this
And thought well that it was all amiss
For in his bed he lyeth a night and skith
She asketh him soon, what him misliketh
My dear hart, which that I have miste.

Chaucer. *Of Dido Queen of Carthage*, l. 203. c. 4.

He met one of two thynges here,
Where he wold have his such on night
Or els vpon daies light.
For he shall not have both two.

Geoff. Con. A. book 1.

For then I dare well vndertake,
That when his list as nightes wake
to chabre as to carole and daunce,
Me thinke I maie me more auance
If I may gone vpon his hande,

Ed. II. book iv.

C. 28. Let me haue men about me, that are fit,
Sleeke-headed men, and such as sleepe a-nights.

Shakespeare's *Julius Cesar*, act 1.

How doth Janiver thy lumbard, my little periwinkle: is he
troubled with the cough of the lungs still? Does he hawk a-nights
still?

Merritt's *Melconarty*, act ii. sc. 5.

ANIGOZANTHOS, in Botany, a genus of plants be-
longing to the class Hexandria, and order Monogynia.

ANIGRUS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Thes-
saly, the waters of which were rendered unwholesome
from the circumstance of the Centaurs having washed
their wounds in them after their battle with Hercules.
The nymphs of this river were denominated Anigrides,
and there was a legend, that if any person who had an
eruption of the skin, offered a sacrifice to them, and
afterwards swam over the river, he would be cured.

ANILITY, s. Lat. Anus, an old person. Dicta ab
annorum multitudine. Festus.

Since the day in which this refinement was begun, by how many
strange and critical turns has it been perfected and handed down, if
not "entirely without spot or wrinkle,"—at least, without great
blemishes or marks of *senility*!

Stern's *Sermons*.

ANIMA MUNDI, in Philosophy, the soul of the
world or universe, a certain ethereal substance or spirit,
which, according to some ancient speculations in phi-
losophy, was said to be diffused throughout all nature,
and to operate in the uniting, organizing, and sustain-
ing its various parts, in the same manner as the human
soul was supposed to actuate the bodies of men.

This ingenious but important speculation certainly
constituted the soul of the Platonic philosophy; but
whether Plato derived it originally from the Egyptians,
or more directly (according to the opinion of Gale)
from higher and purer sources, is very doubtful. It
also preceded the systems of the earlier Indian sages,
of Pythagoras, the Peripatetics, and the Stoics. Of
this soul or fountain of spiritual existence, the souls of
men, in particular, were held to be an emanation, sub-
ject to various transmigrations and purifications; after
which, it should return to its original fountain or
spring-head. See THEOLOGY, Div. i.; and the article
PLATO, in our Historical Division.

ANIMA SATIENS, in the Arts, the soul of lead, a
powder produced by a preparation of lead, or the pour-
ing of distilled vinegar on finely-powdered litharge,
which is of considerable use in enamelling. See EN-
AMELLING, in the USEFUL ARTS, Div. ii.

ANIMADVERT, s.

ANIMADVERT'NAL,

ANIMADVERT'NION,

ANIMADVERT'NIVE,

ANIMADVERT'NOR.

censure.

Animadverto (animus, ad-
vert), to turn the mind to.
To turn the mind, thoughts,
or attention to; to perceive,
to consider, to judge, to

Sir Moth, has brought his politic bias with him,
A man of a most animadverting humour;
Who, to ensnare himselfe under his lord,
Will tell him, you and I, or any of us,
That here are met, are all pernicious spirits,
And men of pestilence posture, meely affected
Unto the state we live in.

Bon. Jonson's *Mag. Lady*, act ii.

There may be a simple internal energy or vital autokinesis, which is
without that duplication, that is included in the nature of *consciousness*,
consciousness, and consciousness, which make a being to be present
with itself, attentive to its own actions, or animadvertence of them,
to perceive itself to do or suffer, and to have a fruition or enjoy-
ment of itself.

Coburn's *Intellectual System*.

In the animadversions, saith he [the confuter], I find the mention
of old cloaks, false beards, night-walkers, and salt lotion; there-
fore the animadvertiser hazards playhouses and bordellos; for if he
did not, how could he speak of such gear?

Milton's *Apology for Smectymna*.

If the stage becomes a nursery for folly and impertinence, I shall
not be afraid to animadvert upon it. Spectator, No. 34.

They have another reason for barking incessantly at this paper:
they have to their grins openly taxed a most ingenuous person as
author of it; one who is in great, and very deserved reputation with
the world, both on account of his poetical works, and his talents
for public business. They were wise enough to consider that a
sanction it would give their performances, to fall under the im-
putation of such a pen.

Examiner, No. 25.

Hence proceeds that extreme weakness which some discover in
censuring others, for the very same fault they are guilty of them-
selves, and perhaps in a much higher degree; on which the apostle
Paul animadvertit, Rom. ii. 1.

Mason, on *Self-Knowledge*.

If the two houses of parliament, or either of them, had avowedly
a right to animadvert on the king, or each other, or if the king had
a right to animadvert on either of the houses, that branch of the legi-
slature, so subject to animadvertment, would instantly cease to be part
of the supreme power.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

That lively inward animadversion: it is the soul itself.

Morse's *Soul of the Soul*.

ANIMAL, in Natural History, one of the great
classes of the works of nature, now usually comprized
under the term ZOOLOGY, which see, Div. ii.

ANIMAL FLOWER. See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

ANIMAL MAGNETISM. See MAGNETISM, Div. ii.

ANIMAL/CULA. See ZOOLOGY, Div. ii.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

ANIMATE, s.

ANIMATE, adj.

And as Job setteth the resurrection against the sorrows and
pains of death, so doth Daniel here for our consolation sette it
against our persecution which did so animate the faithless in times
past, that they refused the deliverance from death of body for
that life and resurrection to come.

The *Exposition* of Daniel, by Jeger, p. 237.

Kynde Edwards being nothing ashamed of this small chaunce,
seete good wordes to the Earle of Feberke, animatinge and by-
dyng him to bee of a good courage. Hall, *Edward six*, fo. 291.

He was never sorri'd, smas'd, nor encombred with greates
difficulties or dangers, which rather w'd to animate his spirits
than distract his spirits.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

With their attendant moans, then wilt decay,
Communicating male and female light;
Which two great sexes animate the world,
Stored in each orb perhaps with souls that live.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book viii.

ANIMAD-
VERT.
—
ANI-
MATE.

ANI.
MATE.ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

Man hath his daily work of body or mind
Appointed, which declares his dignity;
And the regard of heaven on all his ways;
While other animals inactive range,
And of their doings God takes no account.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

As many conformities as there are among inanimate bodies, so many sources there might be in animals, provided there were organs, or perforations in the animal body, for the animal spirit to act upon the parts rightly disposed.

Bacon's New Organon.

No man can perish for being an animal; but this, far from having any supernatural revelations, but far from consenting to them when he hath, that is, for being carnal as well as animal; and that he is carnal is wholly his own choice. In the state of animality he cannot go to heaven; but neither will that alone bear him to hell.

Taylor's Diet and Power of Repentance.

The pagans really accounted that only for a God, by the worshipping and invoking whereof, they might reasonably expect benefit to themselves, and therefore nothing was truly and properly a God to them, but what was both substantial, and also animant and intellectual.

Cudworth's Intel. System.

Reason and understanding, properly so called, are peculiar appendices to human shape; ratio nunquam esse potest nisi in hominis figura. From whence it is concluded that there is no life, soul, nor understanding acting the whole world, because the world hath no blood nor brain, nor any animal or human form.

Id.

The body is one, not only by the continuity of all the parts held together with the same natural ligaments, and covered with one and the same skin; but much more by the animation of the same soul quickening the whole frame.

Ep. Hall's Christ Mystical.

For these effluences penetrate all bodies, and like the species of visible objects are ever ready in the medium, and lay hold on all bodies proportionate or capable of their action: these bodies likewise being of a congeous nature, do readily receive the impressions of their motor; and if not fettered by their gravity, conform themselves to situations, wherein they best will note their animation.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Here fabled chick in darker ages born,
Or worthless old, whom arms or arts adorn,
Who cities maid, or tam'd a monstrous race,
The walls in venerable order grace:
Heroes in animated marble frown,
And legislators seem to think in stone.

Pope's Temple of Fame.

Inanimate bodies are either such as are endowed with a vegetative soul, no plants; or a sensitive soul, as the bodies of animals, birds, beasts, fishes, and insects; or a rational soul, as the body of man, and the vehicles of angels, if any such there be.

Ray's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

How near of kin sever they may seem to be, and how certain never it is, that man is an animal, or rational, or white, yet every one at first hearing perceives the falshood of three propositions; humanity is animality, or rationality, or whiteness.

Locke's Essay on Human Understanding.

Wherever we are formed by nature in any active purpose, the passion which excites us to it, is attended with delight, or a pleasure of some kind.

Burke, on the Sublime and Beautiful.

The love of God ought continually to predominate in the mind, and give to every act of duty grace and animation.

Bentley's El. of Moral Science.

ANIMAL STRENGTH.

ANIMAL STRENGTH. In our treatises on Mechanics, Hydrodynamics, and Pneumatics, we have examined the effects of weights, water, and air, as first movers of machinery. The strength of animals, particularly of men and horses, is also frequently employed for the same purpose; and hence the subject of animal power, and the effects producible from it, become a collateral branch of Mechanics, which must not be passed over in a work of this description.

When a weight is employed for the production of motion, there is no doubt as to the efficacy and amount of the moving power; and if theory and practice are sometimes at variance, it must be attributed to the impediments to motion arising from friction, rigidity, and other preventing causes, the entire effect of which it is difficult to estimate with precision. Again, when water or any other fluid performs the office of a mover of machinery, although its effects may not be so accurately determinable as in the case of weights, still, by the assistance of experiments, we are enabled to form rules and theorems which apply with considerable accuracy to many practical cases.

Animal strength being far less uniform in its operation than either of the two movers to which we have above alluded, is necessarily more difficult to estimate, and to submit to determinate laws; yet even here a careful examination of the principal modes in which animals are employed, with the assistance of certain experiments that have been made under various circumstances by different authors, will enable us to lay down some rules and principles, highly important to be understood by engineers and others concerned in the conduct of considerable works.

Strength of men.

1. A man may employ his strength either while in VOL. XVII.

motion, viz. walking, running, &c. or at rest, that is, a man may employ his force in different ways.

2. When a man walks, carrying a load, we may consider the different efforts resulting from his organization, as so many powers which act on the mass of the man and his load, and of which the resultant passes through the centre of gravity of the total mass, where we must suppose them all to unite; and this resultant, combined with the force of gravity, is what we must consider as producing the different phenomena of the progressive motion which follows.

Let us denote the weight of the man by P, and that of the load which he is carrying by q; then, when the man remains in his place, the resultant of which we have spoken above, must be equal to P + q, and directly opposed to it; and in the case where the common centre of gravity is made to ascend vertically, this resultant ought to surpass the weight P + q by a quantity which depends as to its intensity upon the ascensional velocity.

Let us call P + k the weight equivalent to this resultant, or to the effort which is exerted from below upwards, upon the centre of gravity of the mass P + q, in order to raise this centre; then in the case where the man remains in his place, we shall have

$$P + k = P + q.$$

And when the whole mass ascends, we must have

$$(P + k) > (P + q).$$

In the last case

$$(P + k) - (P + q) = k - q$$

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

will represent the impulsion given every instant to the centre of gravity, or the quantity of motion which will be generated in the mass, supposing the impulsion to act uniformly for one second, or for any other unit of time. If, therefore, $2g$ be taken to represent the accelerative force due to gravity,

$$Q = \frac{k - q}{\frac{1}{2}g(P + q)}, \text{ or } \frac{2g(k - q)}{P + q}$$

will be (according to the principles explained in our treatise on Dynamics) the accelerating force in the case under consideration.

Representing, therefore, the velocity at any instant by v , and the space described by x , we shall have

$$v \dot{=} \frac{2g}{P + q} x. \quad (1)$$

Let h represent the height due to the velocity v , then we shall have

$$v^2 = 4gh, \text{ or } v \dot{=} 2g\sqrt{h},$$

which, substituted in equation (1), gives

$$\dot{h} = \frac{k - q}{P + q} x.$$

Formula
now ap-
plied.

3. In order to a due conception of the application of this formula, we must observe, that when a man endeavours to throw himself forward, he first bends his knees; in which position, the ground or platform on which he stands is employed by the feet as a fulcrum, or point of support, and he raises the common centre of gravity of himself and his load, by pressing against the ground, with an effort equal to $k - q$, which is greater or less according to his capability, or the length of the step he proposes to take, and during the short interval of time that the effort continues, the centre of gravity ascends with an accelerated velocity, the force of acceleration being, during every instant of this time,

proportional to $\frac{k - q}{P + q}$; the height due to the velocity in the same instant being h , and the space described from the first instant of the effort, x . Afterwards, when the centre of gravity of the load is so far raised that the feet no longer press upon the ground, then the centre of gravity is no longer solicited by a force acting from below upwards, and it will thence rise with the velocity acquired in consequence of the acceleration which has had place during the time of the effort, and will, therefore, rise to the height due to this velocity.

The equation $\dot{h} = \frac{k - q}{P + q} x$, is, therefore, that which obtains during the effort, and when this effort ceases, the mass $P + q$ is submitted entirely to the action of gravity, exactly in the same manner as any other projectile.

If we suppose the quantity $\frac{k - q}{P + q}$ constant, or if we suppose it to be variable, and k to be the mean value between the greatest and least intensities, during the effort, the fluent will be readily obtained; that is to say, we shall have

$$h = \frac{k - q}{P + q} x,$$

which will require no correction, because when $h = 0$ $x = 0$, as the state of the equation requires. This equation applies to any indivisible instant of the motion; in order, therefore, to obtain the whole fluent, we have only to suppose x to become equal to A , this latter

being taken to denote the whole space passed over by the centre of gravity, and we shall thus have

$$h = \frac{k - q}{P + q} A.$$

We may reasonably suppose, that in order to impress on the centre of gravity a velocity due to any given height h , we must employ a mean accelerating force so much greater, as the total height A of the spring, or step is less; that is to say, that when x becomes a ,

$$\frac{k - q}{P + q} \text{ will become } \frac{(k - q)a}{P + q},$$

where $a = A$, we have, therefore, generally

$$h = \frac{(k - q)a}{P + q}, \text{ or } h = a \times \frac{k - q}{P + q}. \quad (2)$$

by making $a = e$; where e is a given and constant co-efficient, which must be determined from experiment.

4. Let us now endeavour to ascertain the circumstance of the motion, when the centre of gravity of the man and the load is launched forward in a direction inclined to the horizon. It is obvious, that we may always refer to this consideration the case of a man ascending on an inclined plane, for at each step he is obliged to give an impulsion to his centre of gravity, in order to move obliquely from the point which the centre quits, to the point in which it is found immediately preceding the next effort. The centre of gravity, therefore, as in the case of any other projectile, describes an arc of a parabola during the step.

Let ADM (fig. 1), Plate V, Miscellaneous, an arc of a parabola, represent that described by the centre of gravity of the man and his load, and AM the road, or inclined plane on which the man walks. We may observe, in the first place, that the tangent to the point M ought to be horizontal, or that M ought to be the vertex of the parabola. When this condition obtains, the direction of the centre of gravity is necessarily horizontal at the end of the step ADM, and it is thus not supported by the feet, which we must suppose now on the plane, in order to make the next effort. If it were otherwise, and the centre of gravity were supposed to fall when the foot is on the plane, in order to make the second step, this centre would be supported by the foot planted on the plane, and it would require an augmented effort to produce the spring necessary for making the next step. The fatigue is less when the tangent at M is horizontal than when it is inclined; and as a man has always a tendency to adopt the easiest mode of operation, he will dispose his steps in such a manner that this horizontality of the tangent may obtain.

5. Let AN represent the tangent at the point A, or Equations of the direction in which the centre of gravity is thrown forward at the commencement of the step; v the velocity of projection; and let t denote the whole time during which the centre of gravity has been carried from the point A to the point M with the velocity v , that is, the time between two consecutive efforts. We may conceive this time t to be divided into two parts, the one employed in describing the arc ADM, and the other in preparing for the following step; but this division is in some degree arbitrary in the present instance, and we shall suppose the two parts equal, that is, that each of them is equal to $\frac{1}{2}t$.

Draw the horizontal line AB, the vertical BMN, and make the angle MAB = λ , angle NAB = ω ;

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.Motion of a
man when
launched.

ANIMAL then we shall have
HYPOTHESIS. and

$$AN = \frac{1}{2} v t, \\ AM = \frac{1}{2} v t \frac{\cos \omega}{\cos \lambda} = x.$$

The mean velocity, which is equal to the length of a step, divided by the whole time t employed in producing it, being represented by v , we shall thus have

$$v' = \frac{1}{2} t \cdot AM = \frac{t}{2} = \frac{v \cos \omega}{2 \cos \lambda};$$

and this is the velocity with which a moving body would describe vertically the right line AM during the time t .

The property of the parabola gives

$$\tan \omega = 2 \tan \lambda, \text{ or } \frac{\sin \omega}{\cos \omega} = \frac{2 \sin \lambda}{2 \cos \lambda};$$

whence $\frac{\sin \omega}{2 \sin \lambda} = \frac{\cos \omega}{2 \cos \lambda}$;

and the mean velocity

$$v' = \frac{v \cos \omega}{2 \cos \lambda}, \text{ becomes } v' = \frac{v \sin \lambda}{4 \sin \lambda}.$$

But $\sin \omega = \frac{\tan \omega}{\sec \omega} = \frac{\tan \omega}{(1 + \tan^2 \omega)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$;

or, substituting for $\tan \omega$, its value $2 \tan \lambda$, we shall find

$$\sin \omega = \frac{2 \tan \lambda}{(1 + 3 \tan^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{\frac{2 \sin \lambda}{\cos \lambda}}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \\ = \frac{2 \sin \lambda}{(\cos^2 \lambda + 4 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{2 \sin \lambda}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

The last reduction being obtained by observing that $\cos^2 \lambda + \sin^2 \lambda = 1$.

Now, substituting the value of $\sin \omega$, as found above, in our equation

$$v' = \frac{v \sin \omega}{4 \sin \lambda},$$

we shall have for the mean velocity

$$v' = \frac{v}{2(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

6. In order to introduce into the preceding expression the value of the weight $P + q$, and that of the effort $P + k$, we may observe that the portion of the weight $P + q$ which acts according to the direction NA , and which the man must surmount, is equal to $(P + q) \sin \omega$, and that the effort $P + k$ may be considered, according to the observation made by M. Lambert, Prony, and others, as being the same in all the directions, therefore the impulsion given to the centre of gravity ought to be represented by

$$(P + k) - (P + q) \sin \omega;$$

and k , representing the height due to the velocity v of projection which the centre of gravity has acquired from this impulsion, in the direction AN , we have, for a reason similar to that stated in the commencement of this section,

$$h = n \frac{(P + k) - (P + q) \sin \omega}{P + q}, \quad (2)$$

Or, substituting the value of $\sin \omega$, as determined above, viz.

$$\sin \omega = \frac{2 \sin \lambda}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}},$$

we shall have

$$h = \frac{n \{ (P + k)(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 2(P + q) \sin \lambda \}}{(P + q)(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

Now h being the height due to the velocity v , and $2g$ the accelerating force of gravity, we shall have, from the principles illustrated in our treatise on Dynamics, $v = 2 \sqrt{h g}$, and thus the equation above found, viz.

$$v' = \frac{v}{2(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

will, by substituting in it the value of v , become

$$v' = \frac{2 \sqrt{h g}}{2(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

Again, substituting in this equation for k , we shall have

$$v' = \sqrt{g h} \left\{ \frac{(P + k)(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 2(P + q) \sin \lambda}{(P + q)(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right\},$$

which reduces readily to the following form, viz.

$$v' = \left\{ \frac{P + k}{P + q} \times \frac{2 g n}{2(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{2 g n \sin \lambda}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right\}.$$

Let us make

$$\frac{2 g n}{2(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = A,$$

$$\frac{2 g n \sin \lambda}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = B,$$

and the equation may be more simply given as follows:

$$v' = \sqrt{A \left\{ \frac{P + k}{P + q} - B \right\}}. \quad (6)$$

7. M. Prony has computed the values of A and B answering to every 5th degree from 0 to 90°; in which computation the force of gravity, or $2g$, is estimated at 30.196 French feet.

TABLE I. Of the values of A and B in the equation

$$v' = \sqrt{A \left\{ \frac{P + k}{P + q} - B \right\}},$$

Tabular values of the co-efficients A and B .

where v' is the mean velocity, P being the weight of the man, q the weight of his load, $(k - q)$ the motive force, and n , a co-efficient to be determined from experiment.

Angle λ , or the inclination of the plane.	Value of A , or of $\frac{2 g n}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$	Value of B , or of $\frac{2 g n \sin \lambda}{(1 + 3 \sin^2 \lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$
0 degrees.	15.098	0.0000
5	14.761	2.5443
10	13.846	4.6045
15	12.571	5.9380
20	11.176	6.5776
25	9.8306	6.7052
30	8.6274	6.5217
35	7.5984	6.1838
40	6.7417	5.7916
45	6.0362	5.4016
50	5.4695	5.0437
55	5.0110	4.7294
60	4.6456	4.4633
65	4.3683	4.2475
70	4.1372	4.0704
75	3.9742	3.9390
80	3.8619	3.8470
85	3.7962	3.7926
90	3.7745	3.7745

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.
Effect of
centrifugal
force.

8. We might now proceed immediately to the application of the preceding formulae, but it may not be amiss, in the first place, to say a few words relative to the centrifugal force which takes place in the motion. In order to conceive this effect, it must be observed, that the centre of gravity describes a curve, which has for its radius of curvature the leg on which we advance in walking. Let us denote this radius of curvature by r , the velocity of the centre of gravity by v , and the centrifugal force by f . We have, therefore, by Dynamics,

$$f = \frac{v^2}{r} (P + q);$$

and, if we suppose the centrifugal force equal to gravity, we shall have

$$f = 2g (P + q);$$

consequently,

$$\frac{v^2}{r} = 2g, \text{ or } v = \sqrt{2gr}.$$

The radius of the curvature is equal to about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a man of the most common size, therefore

$$v = \sqrt{(30 \cdot 196 \times 2 \cdot 5)} = 8 \cdot 6884 \text{ feet.}$$

Whence we may draw the following conclusion, viz. that a man who runs 9 feet per second, ceases entirely to gravitate on his feet, which is conformable to what Mr. Lambert has observed; that is to say, that a person running with the above velocity, remains so long in the air, that the feet act only as they push, as it were, the earth behind them, and have little or no effect in supporting the body.*

9. Let us now consider the case of the formula

$$v' = \left\{ n \left(\frac{P+k}{P+q} A - B \right) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

when the fatigue is the least; that is, when the effort which a man employs in walking is sensibly the same as that which he is able to continue without walking. This condition will give $k = q$, and the above equation becomes

$$v' = \{ n (A - B) \}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

We may calculate, by means of the table (art. 7), the values of $(A - B)$ for different inclinations of the plane, agreeably to the above hypothesis, and thus form another table, which shall exhibit the value of n ; for when $A - B$ is known, we shall have immediately

$$n = \frac{v'^2}{A - B}.$$

It is to be observed, however, that the expression $A - B$ has only been considered, at present, as it applies to the case of a man ascending; when he descends, $\sin \lambda$ becomes negative, and B changes sign. Such a table, therefore, ought to exhibit two values of n , one for each of the above cases.

TABLE II.

10. For calculating the velocities, corresponding to different inclinations of a road, when the effort of a man upon it differs not sensibly from that necessary for him to continue to the end without working.

* Virgil was not ignorant of this fact; he says, when speaking of a certain warrior,

"Hic vel isocretis ageris per summa volaret
Gramina, nec traversa cursum lenisset aristas
Vel mare per medium, flucta superas tumentis
Ferret iter, celeres nec tingere iugum plantas."

Angle of inclination of the plane to the horizon.	Numerical values of $\sqrt{A - B}$ in the equation $v' = \sqrt{n \times \sqrt{A - B}}$	
	When ascending.	When descending.
0	3.8856	3.8856
5	3.4953	4.1539
10	3.0404	4.2909
15	2.5754	4.3022
20	2.1444	4.2136
25	1.7679	4.0664
30	1.4511	3.8921
35	1.1894	3.7124
40	0.9747	3.5401
45	0.7985	3.3824
50	0.6527	3.2423
55	0.5306	3.1210
60	0.4269	3.0181
65	0.3329	2.9337
70	0.2545	2.8649
75	0.1776	2.8130
80	0.1221	2.7764
85	0.0960	2.7547
90	0.0000	2.7475

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

11. It is now only necessary to determine, from a Experimental course of experiments, the numerical value of n .

M. Prony states, that he has frequently observed that a man without a load can walk on a plane nearly horizontal, without fatigue, 6,000 feet in 20 minutes, viz. about 5 feet per second; we have, therefore, in this case, $\lambda = 0$, $v' = 5$; and the equation

$$v' = \sqrt{n \times (A - B)}$$

$$\text{becomes } 5 = \sqrt{n \times 3.8856};$$

$$\text{whence } n = \frac{25}{15.498} = 1.6659.$$

And $\sqrt{n} = 1.2868$, a number by which we must multiply those in the table, in order to have the velocity corresponding to any proposed angle of inclination.

Lambert has observed, that he employed, without making any uncommon effort, 13 seconds in ascending a ladder of 24 steps, to the height of $13\frac{1}{2}$ Rhinish feet, and the angle of its slope $37\frac{1}{2}^\circ$. This gives us an hypotenuse = $21\frac{1}{2}$ French feet, which, divided by 13, gives $v' = 1.64$ feet.

12. Now supposing it had been proposed to determine this velocity from the preceding table, we should have assumed $37\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ as an arithmetical mean between 36° and 40° : our tabular number would therefore have been 1.3183, which, multiplied by the above constant value of $\sqrt{n} = 1.2868$, we should have found

$$v' = 1.3183 \times 1.2868 = 1.696 \text{ feet;}$$

which differs as little from the preceding experimental deduction as can be expected in cases of this kind.

13. It appears, therefore, that the value $n = 1.7$ is very nearly conformable to experiment, and that $n = 2$, as assumed by Lambert, is a little in excess. He derives this value of n by supposing that a man, jumping vertically, with all the force he is capable of, without a load, can raise himself 2 feet; which is perhaps rather too much for the medium strength of men.

Table of velocities corresponding to different inclinations.

Application of the table.

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

M. Lambert has computed a table analogous to the preceding, assuming $n = 2$; we, however, prefer leaving this quantity indeterminate, till it shall be ascertained from a mean of various experiments.

Determination
of the
maximum
velocity.

14. By inspecting the descending velocities in Table II. it appears that the greatest velocity is that corresponding to 15° of inclination. But, in order to find the precise angle which gives the maximum velocity, we must put our equation

$$v' = \left\{ \frac{2ng}{2(1+3\sin^2\lambda)} + \frac{2ng\sin\lambda}{(1+3\sin^2\lambda)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

into fluxions, and equate it to zero, which will give

$$\sin^2\lambda = \frac{7-\sqrt{45}}{6} = \sin^2 12^\circ 44';$$

whence the angle answering to the greatest velocity is $12^\circ 44'$, and the corresponding value of v' is found to be 6 feet per second.

15. The second column of Table II. which appertains to the velocity of ascent, presents neither a maximum nor a minimum; we may, however, still arrive at either by having regard to the time. Suppose we go from one point to another in a right line, the second being higher than the first by a given quantity H ; and if λ denote the angle of the inclination of the road, the length of it will be $\frac{H}{\sin\lambda}$.

Let t denote the time, and v' the velocity; then we shall have to find

$$t = \frac{H}{v' \sin\lambda} = a \text{ minimum,}$$

or since H is constant,

$$v' \sin\lambda = a \text{ maximum.}$$

Substituting for v' its general value given in (art. 16), equation (3), we shall have

$$\sqrt{\left\{ \frac{P+k}{P+q} \cdot \frac{2ng\sin^2\lambda}{2(1+3\sin^2\lambda)} \cdot \frac{2ng\sin^2\lambda}{(1+3\sin^2\lambda)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \right\}} = a$$

mar. Which being put into fluxions, and reduced, gives

$$\sin^2\lambda = \frac{(P+k)^2}{9(P+q)^2 - 3(P+k)^2}.$$

This result shows that the inclination which corresponds to the minimum of time necessary to ascend a given quantity, varies with the relation between the force that we employ and the load we have to carry. Again, since $\sin^2\lambda$ is necessarily less than 1, we shall have

$$\begin{aligned} (P+k)^2 &< 9(P+q)^2 - 3(P+k)^2, \text{ or} \\ 4(P+k)^2 &< 9(P+q)^2, \text{ or} \\ 2(P+k) &< 3(P+q). \end{aligned}$$

If we suppose $k = q$, the above equation gives

$$\sin^2\lambda = \frac{1}{2}, \text{ or } \lambda = 24^\circ 6';$$

wherefore, when a man employs in ascending, an effort necessary only to preserve himself erect, the most advantageous inclination, or that by means of which he will soonest arrive at the given height, is $24^\circ 6'$; and the corresponding velocity to this inclination will be found 24 feet per second.

16. A man employed in a walking-wheel, as in some old cranes, &c. is in similar circumstances as if he were

ascending a plane, of which the inclination was equal to the angle formed by a tangent at that point of the circumference where he is placed. It follows, therefore, from what is stated above, that the most advantageous position of that tangent will be, when it forms an angle of $24^\circ 6'$ with the horizon, in which case, the effective weight employed in turning the wheel, will be

$$P \sin 24^\circ 6' = 0.40833 P,$$

P denoting, as before, the weight of the man.

Let $P+Q$ be the greatest effort of which a man is capable; the effort Q may be augmented by habit and exercise, and it is liable to diminution by inaction; it will also undergo some modification when either great loads are to be lifted, or great swiftness is required; but in all cases the application of the effort $P+Q$ can be only instantaneous; that is, being the greatest the man is capable of, it can be exerted only for a moment, whether it be employed in lifting a great weight, or in running with a great velocity.

17. A man who is not loaded with any weight, whether he merely stand upright on his feet, or walk without using any effort, employs, at first, only the power P , and in the first instants the force Q will remain to him entire; but in either of the above cases this power Q will, after a time, be weakened, and will ultimately be extinguished; let the time from the beginning to the latter event taking place be called T . Let us suppose, now, that instead of the power P , the man from the first instant employed an effort $P+K$; there will then, in this case, remain to him a quantity of force $= Q-K$, which will also be extinguished after a certain time t , and it is an important question to decide the ratio of the times T and t , when the powers Q and K are given. Lambert conceives that it is not far from the truth to assume that these times are proportional to the residual forces, viz. by assuming that

$$T : t :: Q : Q-K,$$

$$\text{which gives } t = \frac{Q-K}{Q} T.$$

This time t , being that which has passed from the moment the man began to walk till he can, from fatigue, walk no longer, it is evident, that at this instant, he has passed over the greatest possible space, and consequently that the product $s = v't$ will be a maximum.

Now we have

$$v' = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{P+K}{P+q} (A-B) \right\}};$$

and multiplying this value of v' by the above expression for t , and equating the fluxion of the result to zero, we obtain the following values, viz.

$$K = \frac{1}{2}(Q-2P) + \frac{2B}{3A}(P+q), \quad (a)$$

$$P+K = \frac{1}{2}(Q+P) + \frac{2B}{3A}(P+q), \quad (b)$$

$$v' = \sqrt{\left\{ \frac{1}{2} A \frac{P+Q}{P+q} - \frac{1}{2} B \right\}}, \quad (c)$$

$$t = \frac{1}{2} T \frac{(P+Q)A - (P+q)B}{AQ}. \quad (d)$$

By means of these equations, the load q and the inclination of the road being given, we shall know the effort $P+K$ necessary, in order to render $v't$, or the

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.Effect of a
man in a
walking-
wheel.

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

space s , passed over before the forces are all spent, a maximum. We may hence also determine the mean resulting velocity of this effort, and the time which passes, before fatigue prevents the man from walking any longer.

Particular
value of Q .

18. It will be observed, that the quantity n does not enter into the formulae of the preceding article, but, in order to apply them, it is necessary that we determine either by hypothesis, or experiment, the quantity Q , or the greatest effort that a man can make beyond that necessary for supporting his own weight. M. Lambert supposes $P = Q$, which changes the above formulae into the following:

$$P + k = \frac{2B}{3A} (P + q), \quad (a)$$

$$v = \left\{ \frac{\frac{2}{3} AP}{P + q} - \frac{1}{3} B \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (b)$$

$$t = \frac{3}{2} T \frac{2PA - (P + q)B}{AQ}. \quad (c)$$

By this means, there is now remaining only the quantity T to be determined experimentally, and it is, of course, subject to certain variations according to the age and activity of a man, his natural strength, and the habit acquired by practice. We may, however, without any remarkable violation of probability, assume that, a man without a load can continue walking for twelve or fourteen hours in a day; from which assumption, the value of T becomes determined.

19. Every particular load q requires a particular velocity, in order that the man may pass over the greatest space possible before his strength is exhausted; for this we must have

$$vq = q \left\{ \frac{1}{3} A \frac{P + Q}{P + q} - \frac{1}{3} B \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ a maximum.}$$

$$v^2 q^2 = q^2 \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{3} A \frac{P + Q}{P + q} - \frac{1}{3} B \right) \right\} \text{ a maximum.}$$

Putting the second side of this equation into fluxions, regarding q as variable, and equating it to zero, the value of q will be determined; but those values of q which exceed Q , it is obvious must be rejected.

20. Let us examine now the case where a man pushes, or draws; and suppose, at first, that the path he has to go over is horizontal, as also the direction in which his exertion is made. (Fig. 3, Plate V, Miscellaneous) may represent the attitude of this man for the moment that he supports himself on the leg CDB. In this attitude there is no support, the one at A, the other at K: the arm KE being supposed extended horizontally. The efforts made by a man in this case, are those necessary to keep his arm straight, his body erect, and that due to his motion: but the actual force which enters into our consideration, is gravity, and particularly the weight of his body.

Let the vertical Cg represent the weight of the man, and draw the horizontal lines Cf, dg , and complete the parallelogram $Cf dg$; then the weight Cg may be represented by the components Cd, Cf . Now the effort which exercised horizontally in the direction EK, and which we shall represent by Ei , and as we may suppose it applied at the point E of the lever EA, of which the axis of rotation is in A, we have the proportion

$$Ei : Cf :: AC : AE;$$

or,

$$Ei = \frac{Cf \times AC}{AE}.$$

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

Let us assume $Ei = f$: we have then f to represent the effort necessary for holding the arm straight. Call the angle $ACg = \phi$, and the weight Cg of the man $= P$; and we shall have

$$dg = Cf = P \times \tan \phi,$$

which, substituted in the preceding equation, gives

$$f = \frac{AC}{AE} P \times \tan \phi.$$

The medium proportions of the body of men, in general,

$$\text{give } \frac{AC}{AE} = \frac{3}{4}; \text{ whence}$$

$$f = \frac{3}{4} P \times \tan \phi.$$

21. If we call F the greatest effort of which the arms are susceptible, T the time necessary of consuming this effort, and t the time necessary for annihilating the effort $F - f$, we shall have, for similar reasons to those given above, the equation

$$t = \frac{F - f}{F} T.$$

The component Cd representing the action on the point A, which is subject to no diminution, ought to be estimated by its constant value $\frac{P}{\cos \phi}$, which is the effort made by the man to hold himself erect on his feet; we have, therefore,

$$\frac{P}{\cos \phi} = P + q;$$

that is to say, it will be the same here as would be excited by a man carrying a load q .

We might now proceed to reduce these equations to the best practicable form for solution, as we have done in the preceding part of this article, and to consider the effort of men employed in drawing loads, &c. but we are fearful it would carry us beyond the limits that can be assigned to this article; we must, therefore, refer the reader who is desirous of pursuing the subject to a greater length to Prony's *Architecture Hydraulique*, where he will find many important analytical results.

Experimental researches respecting animal strength.

22. We have already had occasion to remark, that purely analytical investigations are of little use in such cases as those we have just been examining, independent of experimental results; we propose, therefore, before we conclude this article, to give a detail of a few of the best conducted experiments that have been made with reference to this subject.

Desaguliers asserts, that a man can raise water, or any other weight, about 550 lbs. (or one hoghead, the weight of the vessel included), ten feet high in a minute; but this statement, although he says it will hold good for six hours, appears, from his own facts, to be too high, and is certainly such as could not be continued one day after another. Mr. Smeaton considers this work as the effort of haste or distress; and reports, that six good English labourers will be required to raise 21141 solid feet of sea water to the height of four feet in four hours; in which case, the men would

Velocity
into the
mass m .

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.
Emerson's
experiments.

raise very little more than six cubic feet of fresh water each to the height of ten feet in a minute. Now, the hoghead containing about 84 cubic feet, Smeaton's allowance of work proves less than Desaguliers' in about the ratio of 6 to 34. And his good English labourers, who can work at this rate, are estimated by him to be equal to a double set of common workmen; it appears, therefore, that with the probabilities of voluntary interruptions, and other incidents, a man's work, for several successive days, ought not to be valued at more than half a hoghead raised ten feet high in a minute. Smeaton likewise states that two ordinary horses will do the above work in 34 hours, which is at the rate of little more than two and a half hogheads ten feet high in a minute; so that, if these statements can be depended upon, one horse will do the work of five men.

According to Emerson's statement, a man of ordinary strength, turning a roller by the handle, can act for a whole day against a resistance equal to 30 lbs. weight; and if he works ten hours per day, he will raise a weight of 30 lbs. through 34 feet in a second of time; or, if the weight be greater, he will raise it to a proportional less height; so that, under all circumstances, $30 \times 34 = 1020$, the momentum of his effort. If two men work at a windlass, or roller, they can more easily raise up 70 lbs. than one man can 30 lbs., provided the elbow of one of the handles be at right angles to that of the other. Men accustomed to bear loads, such as porters, will carry from 150 lbs. to 200 lbs. or 250 lbs., according to their strength. A man cannot well draw more than 70 lbs. or 80 lbs. horizontally; and he cannot thrust with a greater force acting horizontally at the height of his shoulders than 27 lbs. or 30 lbs. But one of the most advantageous ways in which a man can exert his force is to set and pull towards him, as in rowing.

Coulumb, so well known as an accurate experimental philosopher, in a memoir communicated to the French Institute, states that the quantity of action which a man can produce, when during a day he is employed in mounting a flight of steps without a burden, is double that which the same man could produce if loaded with a weight of 223 lbs., continuing his exertions, in both cases, through the day. Hence it appears how much, with equal fatigue and time, the total or absolute effect may obtain different values, by varying the combination of effort and velocity. This fact is immediately applicable to the formulæ investigated in the preceding part of this article.

It will of course be observed by the reader that the term effect here denotes the total quantity of labour necessary to raise not only the burden but the man himself: the useful effect is very different, and it is this, as M. Coulumb observes, which it is most important to determine. For instance, we have seen that the total effect is the greatest when without a burden, but the useful effect is then nothing; it is also nothing when the man is so loaded as not to be able to move; and it is between these limits that the useful effect is a maximum: thus we have already determined analytically in the foregoing part of this article, but the above results of Coulumb will be found to change somewhat the ultimate value; the principle, however, remains, and other experiments are perhaps still necessary to arrive at a satisfactory conclusion.

23. From an examination of the work of men walk-

ing on a horizontal path, with or without a load, the same author concludes that the greatest quantity of action takes place when the men are unloaded; and it is to that of men loaded with 190 lbs. nearly as seven to four. The weight which a man ought to carry to produce the greatest useful effect, or that effect in which the quantity of action relative to the carrying his own weight is deducted from the total effect, is 165 lbs.

There is a particular case, which obtains with respect to burdens carried in towns, where the men, after having carried their load, return home unloaded; the weight they ought to carry in this case, according to M. Coulumb, is about 200 lbs. Here the quantity of useful action, compared with that of a man who walks freely, and without a load, is nearly as one to five, or, in other words, he employs to pure loss four-fifths of his power. By causing a man to mount a flight of steps freely and without a burden, his quantity of action is at least double of what he affords in any other way of employing his strength.

This seems to be understood by our coal merchants, who thus employ manual labour in emptying the coal vessels of their loads in the river Thames, where we frequently see four or five men perpetually ascending a step-ladder and jumping down, so as by their weight to bring up the coals from the hold by means of a rope passing over a pulley. Here the useless action is in ascending, and the useful in descending.

When labour is applied to cultivating the ground, the whole quantity afforded by one man, during a day, amounts to about the same as 328 lbs. raised 1094 yards; and M. Coulumb comparing this work with that of men employed to carry burdens up an ascent of steps, or at a pile-engine, finds a loss of about $\frac{1}{10}$ part only of the quantity of action, which may be neglected in researches of this kind.

It may not be improper to observe, that in estimating mean results, we should not determine from experiments of short duration, nor should we make any deductions from the exertions of men of more than ordinary strength. The mean results have also a relation to climate. M. Coulumb observes, that he has directed extensive works at Martinico, where Fahrenheit's thermometer is seldom less than 71° , and similar works in France; and he affirms that not more than half the work can be done in similar cases in the one climate to what can be effected in the other.

Feats of strength, either natural or artificial.

24. We have already observed, that muscular strength is not to be considered in forming any mechanical deductions relative to the employment of animal exertion as a first mover of machinery, but still any extraordinary power, whether natural or artificial, cannot but be considered as an interesting subject for philosophical reflection, and we must not, therefore, pass over certain surprising facts of this kind; but we shall confine our remarks principally to those recorded by Desaguliers, of Thomas Topham, a man, at the time he exhibited before the author, thirty-one years of age, but who had practised the same feats for five or six years preceding that time. The exploits of this man, which Desaguliers witnessed, were as follow:

"1. By the strength of the fingers (only rubbed in

Coulumb's
experiments.

ANIMAL
STRENGTH.

ANIMAL cold ashes to keep them from slipping) he rolled up n
STRENGTH very large pewter dish.

"2. He broke seven or eight short and strong pieces of tobacco-pipe with the force of his middle finger, having laid them on the first and third finger.

"3. Having thrust in under his garter the bowl of a strong tobacco-pipe, his legs being bent, he broke it to pieces by the tendons of his ham without altering the bending of his legs.

"4. He broke such another bowl between his first and second finger, by pressing his fingers together sideways.

"5. He lifted a table six feet long, which had half a hundred weight hanging at the end of it, with his teeth, and held it in a horizontal position for a considerable time. It is true, the feet of the table rested against his knees; but, as the length of the table was much greater than its height, that performance required a great strength to be exerted by the muscles of his loins, those of his neck, the *masseter*, and *temporal* (muscles of the jaws), besides a good set of teeth.

"6. He took an iron kitchen poker, about a yard long, and three inches in circumference, and, holding it in his right hand, he struck upon his bare left arm, between the elbow and the wrist, till he bent the poker nearly to a right angle.

"7. He took such another poker, and holding the ends of it in his hands, and the middle against the back of his neck, he brought the two ends of it together before him, and, what was yet more difficult, he pulled it almost straight again: because the muscles which separate the arms horizontally from each other are not so strong as those that bring them together.

"8. He broke a rope of about two inches in circumference, which was, in part, wound about a cylinder of five inches in diameter, having fastened the other end of it to straps that went over his shoulders. But he exerted more force to do this than any other of his feats, from his awkwardness in going about it: for the rope yielded and stretched as he stood upon the cylinder, so that when the extensors of the legs and thighs had done their office in bringing his legs and thighs straight, he was forced to raise his heels from their bearing, and use other muscles that were weaker. But, if the rope had been so fixed that the part of it to be broken had been short, it would have been broken with four times less difficulty.

"9. I have seen him lift a rolling-stone of about 800 lbs. with his hands only, standing in a frame above it, and taking hold of a chain that was fastened to it. By this I reckon, he may be almost as strong again as those who are commonly considered as very strong men."—DESAULIER'S *Experimental Philosophy*.

Of the strength of horses.

Strength of horses.

25. Amongst quadrupeds, the most useful, as a first mover of machinery, is the horse. The strength of this animal is, perhaps, about six times that of a man. Desaguliers states the proportion as 5 to 1, coinciding with our preceding deductions from Smeaton's results. French authors commonly reckon seven men as equivalent to one horse, and probably, upon the whole, 1 to 6 may be stated as a fair proportion; the strength of a man, at a dead pull, being therefore estimated at 70 lbs.; that of a horse, under like circumstances, will be 420 lbs. The fact is, however, that it is very diffi-

cult to make a comparison between two animals whose ANIMAL powers are so differently exerted. The worst way of STRENGTH applying the strength of a horse is to make him carry a weight up a steep hill, while the organization of man fits him very well for this kind of labour. Hence, three men climbing up such a hill, with the weight of 100 lbs. each, will proceed faster than a horse with a load of 300 lbs., as was first stated, we believe, by La Hire.

We are not acquainted with any series of experiments which have been made with a view of determining the weights horses can carry, when moving up sloping roads, making given angles with the horizon; but, fortunately, this deficiency is not of much consequence, because, as we have stated, the carrying of weights is far from the best manner of employing the strength of these animals. It is known, however, in general, that a horse, loaded with a man and his equipage, weighing, at a medium, about 224 lbs., may, without being much forced, travel, in seven or eight hours, the distance of 43,000 yards, or about 25 miles, on a good road. When a horse travels day after day, without cessation, either the weight he carries, or the distance passed over, must undergo some diminution, as well as the time actually employed in travelling: but we cannot undertake to assign a mean value of his capabilities.

M. Amontons, in the *Memoirs of the French Academy* Amontons's estimate of the power of a horse, for 1703, has given some comparative observations on the velocity of men and horses: in which he states the velocity of a horse loaded with a man, and walking, to be rather more than 5½ feet per second, or 3½ miles per hour; and when going a moderate trot with the same weight, to be about 8½ feet per second, or 6 miles per hour. These velocities are, however, we think, rather less than might have been safely assumed in these cases.

26. In the same way as we have seen that the most advantageous manner of applying the strength of man is most unfavourable for a horse, so it is found that the most disadvantageous to the former will be the most favourable for the latter; that is, when they are employed in drawing loads in carriages. A horse put into harness, and making an effort to draw, bends himself forwards, inclines his legs, and brings his breast nearer to the earth, and this so much the more, as his effort is more considerable: so that when he is employed in drawing, his effort will depend, in some measure, both on his own weight and that which he carries on his back. Indeed, it is highly useful to load the back of a draught horse to a certain degree, though this, on a slight consideration, might be thought unnecessarily to augment the fatigue of the animal: but it must be considered, that the mass with which the effort is charged vertically, is in part added to the horse which he makes in the direction of traction, and thus dispenses with the necessity of his inclining so much forward, as he must otherwise do, and may, therefore, in this point of view, relieve the draught more than to compensate for the additional fatigue occasioned by the vertical pressure. Carmen and waggons in general are aware of this, and are commonly very careful to dispose of the load in such a manner that the shafts shall throw a due proportion of the weight on the back of the shaft horse.

27. The best disposition of the traces during the time Position of a horse is drawing, is when they are perpendicular to the traces. the position of the collar upon his breast and shoulders.

ANIMAL STRENGTH. When the horse stands at his ease, this position of the traces is rather inclined upwards, from the direction of the road; but when he leans forward to draw the load, the traces should then become nearly parallel to the plane over which the carriage is to be drawn; or, if he be employed in drawing a sledge, or any thing without wheels, the inclination of the traces with the road, supposing it to be horizontal, should be about $18\frac{1}{2}^\circ$, see (art. 159) DYNAMICS; and even when wheels are employed, as we cannot conceive friction to be wholly destroyed, it is obvious, that a slight inclination from the parallel position of the traces upwards would be rather advantageous than the contrary; although it is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the degree of that inclination.

What we have said above is with reference only to one horse; when several are harnessed together in a line so as all to draw at the same load, and the slope on which they are drawing changes, we must resolve the line of direction of each horse into two others, the one parallel and the other perpendicular to the plane of the carriage, and thus estimate the ultimate result; but this consideration leading to little or no practical deductions, we shall not insist upon in this place, but refer the reader who is desirous of following the investigation, to the work of Prony, before referred to, or to Gregory's *Mechanics*, vol. ii.

Horse in a circular path.

28. We shall here only further observe, that when a horse is made to move in a circular path, as is often practised in mills and other machines, it is requisite to give to the circle which the animal has to walk round, the greatest diameter that is consistent with the local and other conditions to which the motion must be subjected. It is obvious, indeed, that since a rectilinear motion is the most easy for the horse, the less the line in which he moves is curved the greater will be the ease with which he will effect his purpose. Experiment has shown, that in the cases to which we have above alluded, although a horse may draw in a circle of 18 feet diameter, it will be much better if the diameter be extended to 25 or 30 feet, and even

40 feet diameter would be preferable to either of the former.

29. Desaguliers states, in the 1st volume of his *Experimental Philosophy*, that a horse employed daily in drawing nearly horizontal, can move, during eight hours in the day, about 200 lbs., at the rate of about $\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour, or $\frac{1}{2}$ feet per second. If the weight be augmented to about 240 lbs., or 250 lbs., the horse cannot move more than six hours in the day, and that with less velocity. And, in both cases, if he carry some weight, he will draw better than if he carried none. Sauveur estimates the mean effort of a horse at 175 lbs. French, or 189 lbs. English *avoirdupoise*, with a velocity of rather more than two feet per second. But these are all probably too high to be continued for eight hours.

In another place Desaguliers states the mean work of a horse as equivalent to raising a hog's head of water 50 feet high in a minute. But Sineaton, who examined every circumstance connected with his profession with great accuracy, reduces this effect to a height of 40 feet. And by certain experiments, made before the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, it was concluded that, a horse moving with a velocity of three miles per hour, can continue to exert a force of 80 lbs. But we do not find these experiments detailed in sufficient length to give us much satisfactory information on the subject. Indeed, it is an investigation so extremely difficult to carry on with mathematical accuracy, that we are not surprised to find so great a variety of opinions; much necessarily depends upon the size, strength, and condition of the horse, the opinion of the person making the experiment, and the time that he may be employed; so that little correct information is, perhaps, to be expected on this point; but with regard to the mechanical advantage or disadvantage of the direction in which his power is applied, this is a subject which comes fairly within the province of Mechanics, and may be determined with all the precision appertaining to that branch of science, and on the principles illustrated in our treatise of Dynamics.

ANIMAL STRENGTH.

ANISUM.

Power of a horse estimated by Desaguliers and others.

ANIMALLY, or ANIMALITY (Elephant-hill), a town in the district of Coimbatore, Hindostan, on the westside of the river Alima, 18 miles from Coimbatore, and 35 from Darapour. Great numbers of elephants are found in the neighbourhood. It consists of about 400 houses.

ANIME, a resinous substance which is procured from the *Hymenae Courbaril* of Linnæus, a tree found in New Spain, the Brazil, &c. A superior kind is sometimes imported from the east. **ANIME** is also an Heraldic term for the blazoning of the eyes of ferocious animals, otherwise called incensed.

ANIMOSITY, Lat. *Animosus*, from *Anima*, met. Spirit.

Fulness, warmth of spirit; vehemence of passion. Applied where the passion is unvoluntary.

How apt nature is, even in those who profess an eminence in holiness, to raise and maintain animosities against those, whose calling or person they pretend to find cause to dislike.

Ep. Hall's Letter of Apology.

You shall hear them pretending to bewail the animosities kept up between the Church of England and Dissenters, where the differences in opinion are so few and inconsiderable; yet, these very sons of VOL. XVII.

moderation were pleased to excommunicate every man, who disagreed with them in the smallest article of their political creed.

Examiner, No. 19.

What can be imagined more trivial than the difference between one colour of livery and another in horse-races? Yet this difference bred two most inveterate factions in the Greek empire, the *PRÆTORI* and *VENERI*, who never suspended their animosities till they ruined that unhappy government.

Hume's Essays.

ANINGA, in Commerce, a root, the produce of the Caribbee islands, which is a valuable substitute for the arsenic formerly used in the refinement of sugar.

ANIO, or **ANEN**, in Ancient Geography, a river of Italy, now the Tevere, supposed to have received its name from *Anius*, king of Etruria, being drowned in its waters; and which falls into the Tiber, five miles north of Rome. *PLIN.* iii. 12. *VAR.* vii. 683, &c.

ANISUM, or **ANISE-SEED**, in Botany, a genus of plants belonging to the class Pentandria, and order Digynia. A distilled water, and essential oil are procured from the seeds of this plant; which are also used without preparation as a stomachic.

ANI-
TORGIS.

ANKLE.

ANITORGIS, in Ancient Geography, a city of Hispania Bætica, in the vicinity of which a battle was fought between Asdrubal and Scipio. LIV. xlv. 33.

ANJENGO, a town and fortress of Hindostan, in Travancore, from which place it is distant 40 miles, and 70 from Cape Comorin. The fort was built by the English, in the year 1695; and this place commands the pepper market of the country. The native inhabitants of the town are described as extremely rude and unpolished, and the place abounds with noxious reptiles. Towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, a most cruel and barbarous massacre of the English settlers, by the Noplays, took place here, during a visit of ceremony which they paid to the queen of the Autigan.

ANJOU, an ancient province of France, now divided into the departments of the Maine and Loire, the Loire Inferieure, the Vendée, the Indre and Loire, the Sarthe, the Ille and Vilaine, the Mayenne, and the Deux Sevres. The entire district contains about 256 French square miles, and is watered by upwards of forty rivers. When it formed a distinct province, it was divided into two parts, the Upper and Lower Anjou. The lands of this district are very fruitful in all sorts of grain, fruits, hemp, and flax; there are also excellent pastures and rich vineyards. A considerable portion of the wine produced from the latter is distilled into brandy, which finds its principal market at Nantes and Paris. Anjou contains likewise mines of coal (which are not, however, very productive from the awkward situation of the strata), lead, and tin; and several marble quarries. The manufactures are camlets, serges, wax, glass, saltpetre, refined sugar, leather, light stuffs of various kinds, and paper. The chief town is Angers, and the population was taken, prior to the revolution, at upwards of 90,000 families.

ANKER, or ANCHON, in Commerce, a liquid measure used in Holland, principally at Amsterdam. It is the fourth part of an urn, containing two stekans, or thirty-two mingles, the mingle being equivalent to two pints, Paris measure.

ANKLAM, an important town of Sweden, in Pomerania, 36 miles from Stralsund. It is the chief town of the circle of the same name. Here are two churches, three hospitals, and an endowed grammar-school. The minister of the church of St. Nicholas, is superintendent of the Anklam synod. The harbor of Anklam is well adapted for commerce; there are several yearly fairs or markets here, which are much frequented, and some flourishing woollen and stuff manufactories. In the year 1790, it was ceded to Prussia by the Swedes; and in 1769, its fortifications were entirely destroyed during the seven years war of Frederic the Great. It belongs at present to Sweden. Population 4,000.

AN'KLE, s. } A.S. *Æncleop*, Ger. *Enckel*, which
AN'KLED, s. } Wachter thinks is the diminutive
AN'KLE-NONE. } of *Anke*; the bone at the bottom of
the leg, by which it rests upon the foot.

As *Housch* is the part by which the lower limbs are *hinked* or *hanged* (from *Hanzan*, A. S.) upon the body or trunk, so *Ankle-bone* may be the bone by which the foot is *hinked* or *hanged* to the leg.

In the name of *Jesus Christ* of Nazareth, *ryse* up and walk.

And he took hym by the ryght hande, & lyfte hym vp. And immediately his fete and *ankle-bones* recovered strength.
Bible, 1539, Actes III.

These manacles upon my arm
I, as my mistress' favours, wear;
And for to keep my *ankles* warm,
I have some iron shackles there.

Loyalty confided. Percy's *Reliques*, v. ii. p. 338.

NICE. ————— a tolerable man,
Now I distinctly read him.

Ben Gr. Hum, hum, hum.

NICE. Say he be black, he's of a very good pitch,
We'll *ankle*, two good confident calves.

Beaucaut and Fletcher. Wit at several Wags.

The next circumstance which I shall mention, under this head of muscular arrangement, is no decision a mark of intention, that it always appeared to me, to supersede, in some measure, the necessity of seeking for any other observation upon the subject: and that circumstance is, the tendons, which pass from the leg to the foot, being bound down by a ligament at the *ankle*.

Paley's Natural Theology, 156.

ANKOBER, the capital town of the province of Efat, in Abyssinia. It is the residence of a prince, who has rendered himself entirely independent.

ANN, ST. a river of North America, in Lower Canada, which rises in the mountains of Quebec. Thence flowing in a southerly direction for some miles, it strikes off to the S. E. and after a course of 70 miles, falls into the St. Lawrence. It is 400 yards broad at its mouth; but the navigation is much impeded by rapid falls. On the eastern bank, near its mouth, there is a village of this name, and at its entrance into the St. Lawrence, are the fertile islands St. Margaret, St. Ignace, Dutarge, and Durable. There is also another river of this name, flowing from the north, and falling into the St. Lawrence, opposite the island of Orleans. Also a lake in Upper Canada, N. of Lake Superior, which empties itself into the James's bay, through the waters of Albany river.

ANN, ST. a town of Parana, in South America, in the eastern division of Paraguay. It is the chief town of the province.

ANN, CAPE, a small town of North America, in the state of Massachusetts, 20 miles from Boston.

ANN, FORT, a fort of North America, in the state of New York, at the head of the Batteaux navigation, on Wood creek; 10 miles from Fort George, and 12 from Fort Edward, on the Hudson, or North river.

ANN ARUNDEL, a county of Maryland, United States, lying between the rivers Patuxent and Patuxco, N. W. of the Chesapeake. Annapolis is the capital.

ANN, ANNAT, or ANNATES, an ecclesiastical tax of the value of every spiritual benefice for one year, which the pope formerly levied throughout Christendom, on issuing bulls to the new incumbent. Its origin is very obscure; some writers have traced it to Anthoine, bishop of Ephesus, in the fifth century, who imposed a tax of this kind on all the prelates he consecrated. According to Hume, it was first levied in England, by Clement V., in the reign of Edward I.; but Blackstone ascribes the introduction of this impost to the usurpation of Pandolph, the pope's legate, in the reigns of King John and Henry III. In the exchequer is still preserved a valuation of them, by commission, from Nicholas III., A. D. 1292. At this period, however, they would appear to have been but partially levied, principally in the see of Norwich. Blackstone

ANKLE.
—
ANN, ST.

ANN.
—
AN-
NALIS.

agrees with Mr. Hume, that it was only in the time of Clement V. that they were first attempted to be made universal in England. Though, strictly, the annates was only to amount to a year's income of the new incumbent, it frequently was increased by the efforts of the papal agents, and their accessibility to the intrigues of the clergy, to much more than the actual value; while, in other cases, it was comprised for much less. In the reign of Henry VIII. it was transferred by statute to the king, and regularly received by the crown, under the name of first fruits, until the time of Queen Anne, when the entire amount of this tax was appropriated to the augmentation of poor livings, under the name of Queen Anne's Bounty. See FIRST FRUITS. In Scotland, the ann, or annas, is a half year's income of the benefice enjoyed by the widow, children, or representatives of a deceased clergyman. If he die without children, the widow receives one half of the annat, and the nearest relatives of the deceased the other; if there are children, she receives one-third, and they two-thirds; if children only are left, they obtain the entire amount.

ANNA, or ANA, in Arabia Deserta. See ANA.

ANNA, in Ancient Geography, the name of a town in the Holy Land, N. of Jericho, called by Josephus, AIN. Also a town at Lydin, sometimes written Annia.

ANNA LIFFEY, or LIFFEY, a river of Ireland, which runs in the county of Wicklow; and passing through Kildare, runs through the Leinster aqueduct, under the grand canal, and falls in a cascade down the rock of Leixlip. Thence pursuing its course, it passes through the county and city of Dublin bay, and finally empties its waters into the Dublin bay.

ANNABERG, ST. a town of Saxony, in the circle of the Erzgebirge, in Misnia, 91 miles from Freyberg, and 56 from Dresden, with a population of about 4,500 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in the mines, which have long been famous in the neighbourhood; but they are said to be now nearly exhausted. The manufacture of lace also employs a great number of women in this town. Here are a mint-office, a public academy, an orphan-house, and a very large machine for the twisting of red silk. Not far from the town there is an immense basaltic rock, called the Pilberg; the Schreckenberg, another hill in the vicinity, at one time contained a mine of silver, now disused. A great part of the town was burnt down in the year 1731.

ANNAHOE. See ANNAHOE.

ANNAI, a well-built town of Turkey, in Asia, in the government of Bagdad, situated on the E. bank of the river Euphrates, about 150 miles from Bagdad.

ANNALE, in some authors of the middle age, has the same meaning with anniversary; that is, a day held yearly in commemoration of the dead. But it is more peculiarly applicable to the masses for the dead celebrated for a year.

ANNALES, in old writers, is a term used to denote yearlings, or young cattle of a year old.

ANNALES LIBRI, in the Civil Law, are books containing the whole proceedings and acts of a year, in which it stands in opposition to semestres libri, which contain the constitution and acts of six months.

ANNALIS BACULI, a kind of almanack made of wood, used by our forefathers, who denominated them logs, or ruinstocks.

ANNALIS CLAVUS, in Antiquity, the nail which the

dictator, consul, or prætor drove annually into the temple of Jupiter, upon the Ides of September, to mark the number of years.

ANNALIS LEX, in Antiquity, a Roman law, appointing the age at which a citizen should be eligible to exercise any office of state. This law was brought from Athens by the tribune L. Villius, on which account himself and posterity were distinguished by the surname of Annalists. Liv. xl. c. 43. QUINTIL. vi. 80.

AN'NALIZE, v. } Lat. Annalis, from Annus, a
AN'NALIST, } year.
AN'NAL. } To rectify events chronologically, in the years in which they happened.

For among so many writers there hath yet none to my knowledge published any full, plain and mere English history. For some of them of purpose missing to write short notes in manner of *Annales* commonly called Abridgements, rather touch the *tyones* when things were done, then declare the manner of the doings.
Greafon. Epistle to Sir Wm. Cecil.

The miracle is deserving a Baroness to annalize it.
Sheldon, on Antichrist.

He that can prevail with himself to believe this, I do not see why he may not as well admit, that if there were made innumerable figures of the one and twenty letters, in gold, suppose, or any other metal, and these well shaken and mixed together, and thrown down from some high place to the ground, they when they lighted upon the earth, would be so disposed and ranked, that a man might see and read in them *Emilia's Annals*.

Bay's Wisdom of God in the Creation.

The rapid progress of conquest, which we so much admire in ancient history, was here reversed in modern times.
Hume's History of England.

He [Ethelwolf] gave to Ethelstan his brother, or son, as some write, the kingdom of Kent and Essex. But the Saxon annalist, whose authority is elder, saith plainly, that both these countries and Sussex, were bequeathed to Ethelstan by Ethelbert his father.
Milton's Hist. of England.

Godless, should I from their original
Our sufferings tell, should you give care to all
The *Annals* of our toyles; approaching Night
First in Olympus would incense the light.
Sandoz. Virgile's *Æneis*, book I.

Could you with Pænece peace, or I relate,
O Nymph! the tedious *Annals* of our Fate!
Tiro's such a train of Woes if I should run,
The day would sooner than the tale be done!

Dryden.

ANNAHOE, a town of Africa, on the gold coast, formerly the great market of the slave trade. It is a strongly fortified place, having a port, which, in 1608, with only a British garrison of 30 men, withstood the attacks of 80,000 Ashantees, who were compelled to raise the siege and retire.

ANNAHOOKA, or ROTTERHAM, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, being one of those called the Friendly Islands, in W. lon. 174°, 38', and S. lat. 20°. It was discovered in the year 1643 by the celebrated Dutch navigator, Tasman, and has been frequently visited by Europeans since. Captain Cook was here in 1774, and again in 1777; Captain Bligh, in the *Bounty*, in 1789, and Captain Edwards twice in the year 1791. It is of a triangular form, from 10 to 12 miles round, and of similar character and productions with the whole group of the FRIENDLY ISLANDS, which see. In the centre is a large salt water lake. The shores of this island are often dangerous to reach for the sand-banks and islets which surround them; but the ships, in passing, generally call for wood, of which,

ANNA-
MOOKA.
—
ANNA-
POLIS.

and of yams and various useful vegetables, this island contains a great abundance. There is one tree here, however, called by the natives Paitanoo, of which the navigator should be warned. It is a species of pepper, and so inflammatory to the eyes and any of the part of the body with which it comes in contact, that the most violent effects have frequently been produced by the attempting to cut it down. The inhabitants of this island are extremely rapacious, and of a more licentious disposition than those of the rest of the group.

ANNAN, a sea-port town of Scotland, in the county of Dumfries, situated on a river of the same name, and the capital of Annandale. It is 14 miles from Dumfries, and 56 from Edinburgh; the borough contains a population of about 2,500, but the entire parish upwards of 3,300 inhabitants. This is a royal burgh, and sends a member to parliament in conjunction with Dumfries, Kirkcudbright, Lochmaben, and Sanquhar. The harbour is good, and the port has 16 vessels belonging to it, many of which are employed in the country trade, and in the salmon fishery, at the mouth of the river, across which there is a bridge of five arches, near the town. There is a cotton manufactory at Annan, driven by water, and many weavers in the adjoining new village of Bricklekirk. Annan was, as is supposed, a Roman station, several coins and other antiquities having been dug up on both sides the river. In later times, the town was a considerable resort of the border warriors and robbers; and there are still to be seen the ruins of a castle, built by the ancestors of the celebrated King Robert Bruce, who acquired it, together with the neighbouring territory, as a fief. The river Annan, which contains abundance of salmon and trout, rises in the county of Peebles, and flowing through Dumfriesshire, falls into the Solway Frith, after a course of about 30 miles.

ANNANDALE, a district or stewardry, on the banks of the above river, about 30 miles in length, and from 15 to 18 in breadth. It is but partially cultivated, but contains abundant evidence of its former importance. During the Roman domination, it was comprehended in the province of Valentia. Numerous fortresses were also erected upon it by the borderers, both English and Scotch.

ANAPOLIS, a town of North America, on the river Severn, in the state of Maryland, of which it is the capital. It is at present a small but thriving city, advantageously situated on the borders of the Chesapeake bay; and the inhabitants are, for the most part, reckoned wealthy. The state-house is in the centre of the town, from which well-built streets branch off in all directions. Distant 30 miles S. of Baltimore, and 32 E. by N. of Washington.

ANAPOLIS ROYAL, originally called Port Royal, by the French, is a handsome town of Nova Scotia, standing at the mouth of a small river of the same name, and having one of the finest natural ports in the world. The basin is large enough to contain several hundred ships, being two miles in length by about one broad; nor has it anywhere less than four or five fathoms of water; in most places six or seven; and on one side as much as 18 fathoms. In the centre is Goat island, which, with the mouth of the harbour, is frequently enveloped in fogs. There is a fort here, manned by about 100 men. The city has some excellent houses, but is at present rather small in extent. It was origi-

nally founded under the name of Severn, by the remains of an army settled here in the reign of Queen Anne. The French occupied it for a short time about the year 1605; but they were driven out of it by the English. The county of this name, which lies on the banks of the river Annapolis, contains five townships.

ANNE, ST. of Sleswick Holstein, a Russian order, instituted in the year 1738 by the czar Charles VI. The motto of the order is "Amantibus justitiam pietatem fidem;" and its badge, four large rubies set in gold, the angles between the cross set with diamonds, and on the centre a medallion with the figure of St. Anne.

ANNE, ST. the name of a port on the eastern coast of Cape Breton island. Also the name of one of the principal towns in the province of New Brunswick.

ANNEAL, v. i. A. *An-nelan, anlan*, to heat, to anneal, *ino.* } burn.

Annel, he saith, is thilke same,
The whiche in sondre place is founde,
When it is fall downe to grounde
So as the fire it hath enred,
Like unto slime, whiche is coagled.

Guerre. Cen. A. book vii.

It is much suspected *anyting* of glass, especially of yellow, is lost in one age, as to the perfection thereof.

Puter's Worthies. Arist.

So faultless was the frame, as if the whole
Had been an emanation of the soul;
Which her own inward symmetry reveal'd,
And like a picture shone, in glass *anneal'd*.

Depict's Epitaph. xi.

ANNEALING, or NEALING. See *USEFUL ARTS*, Div. II.

ANNECY, or ANNECI, a town of the duchy of Geneva, the largest of all the Savoy part of the duchy, of which it is the capital. It is 30 miles from Chambery, in a delightful country, at the extremity of a lake of the same name, on the road between Chambery and Geneva, and contains a population of about 3,440 inhabitants. The canal of Thioux runs through the town, in its passage from the lake to the river Sier. The lake of Annecy is about 19 miles in length, and above two in breadth. It is principally formed of the snows of the Alps, which rush into it in copious streams, and is very deep and cold.

ANNERY, one of the Asiatic tribes of the desert W. of Palmyra, who rear some of the noblest horses of those regions, and perhaps of the world.

ANNET, one of the Scilly isles, about a mile from St. Agnes. It is at present entirely uninhabited; but the foundations of buildings are sometimes to be seen at low water, besides several stone basins; these are conjectured, but without any certain authority, to be Druidical remains.

ANNEX', v.

ANNEX', n.

ANNEX'ARY,

ANNEX'ATION,

ANNEX'ION,

ANNEX'MENT.

Annecto, annexum; from *ad*, necto, to knit, or bind to.

To bind, fasten, or unite to; in addition to.

If love be searched well and sought
It is a sickness of the thought
Annered and knitted betwixt twine
With male and female with a chaine.

Chaucer. The Romance of the Rose, fo. 138. c. 4.

Perchance there bee manye that are desirous of dignitie, but for al that they weigh not with disalectes, what carke and care dignitie hath *annered* unto it.

Udall. 1 Timothy, cap. iii.

ANNA-
FOLIS.
—
ANNEX.

ANNEX.
ANNIHILATE.

I made these wars for Egypt—and the quora,
Whose heart I thought I had, for she had mine,
Which whilst it was mine, had *no soul* unto!
A million more now lost. She, even, has
Pack'd cards with Caesar, and false play'd my glory
Unto an enemy's triumph.

Shakespeare's Jael, and Cleo. act iv. sc. 12.

He [Satana] hath endeavored to make the world believe, that he was God himself; and falling of his first attempt to be but like the highest in heaven, he hath obtained with men, to be the same on earth. And hath accordingly assumed the *annexes* of divinity.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

My worthy kinsman, Mr. Samuel Burton, archdeacon of Gloucester, knowing in how good terms I stood at court, and pitying the miserable condition of his native church of Wolverhampton, was very desirous to engage me in so difficult and noble a service, as the redemption of that captivated church. For which cause he importuned me to move some of my friends, to assist the dean of Windsor, who by an ancient *annexation* is patron thereof, for the grant of a particular prebend, when it should fall vacant in that church.

Bp. Hall's Account of Himself.

And lo! behold these talents of their hair,
With twisted metal solemnly implech'd,
I have received from many a several fall,
With the *annexions* of fair gems enrich'd.

Shakespeare's Lover's Complaint.

— It is a maze wheel
Fixt on the summit of the highest mount,
To whose huge spokes, ten thousand lesser things
Are mortis'd; and allors'd; which when it falls,
Each small *annexment*, petty consequence
Attends the boystrous ruine.

Id. Hamlet, act ii.

Industry hath *annexed* thereto, by divine appointment and promise, the fairest fruits, and the richest rewards.

Brown's Sermons.

[The lay people of all sorts] enroll themselves into one or more of these societies, approaching so much nearer to the state of the clergy; unto which many of them are no other than *annexures*.

Dr. E. Sewall's State of Religion.

God hath *annexed* particular duties to particular talents. He hath given us the latter, that we may observe the former.

Calpurnia's Sermons.

Where it was wished to confer an English title upon a noble family of Scotland, the eldest son of the Scotch peer was created in his father's life-time an English peer, and this creation was not affected by the *annexation* by inheritance of the Scotch peerage.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ANNIHILATE, v. Ad: Nihilum, to nothing.
ANNIHILATE, adj. To bring to nothing; to
ANNIHILATION, take away the being or existence;
ANNIHILABLE, } to deprive of power
or efficacy.

Sucha laws made by him, as King Henry the sixth, had caused to be abrogated and *annihilated*; his [Edward the IV.] agency revised and renewed.

Hall. Ed. 4. fo. 276.

Drying the tyms of this civil and intestine war, his [Edward the fourth] caused all statutes and ordinances made by King Henry the sixth (which either touched his title or his profit) to be *annihilate* and frustrate.

Id. Ib. fo. 189.

— Spirits that live throughout
Vital in every part, not as frail mass,
In entrails, heart or head, liver or reins,
Cannot but by *annihilating* die.

Milton's P. Lost, book vi.

In vain, therefore, dost thou seek to delude me with these pretences of industry and *annihilation*; since it cannot but stand with the mercy and justice of the Almighty, to dispose of every soul according to what they have been, and what they have done.

Bp. Hall's Satire's Fiery Darts Quenched.

It must in reason be supposed, that this Jupiter or Universal Nomen of the world, was honoured by these stoves far above all their other particular gods; his being acknowledged by them to have been the maker or creator of them as well as the whole world; and the only eternal and immortal God; all those other gods, as hath been already declared, being all more corruptible, mortal, and *annihilable*; as they were generated or created.

Cadwallar's Intellectual System.

Though the military spirit had been long extinct in the eastern empire, and a despotism of the worst species had *annihilated* almost every public virtue, yet Constantine, having never felt the de-

structive rage of the barbarous nations, was the greatest, as well as the most beautiful city in Europe. *Robertson's State of Europe.*

If it be allowed then that space is a substance, it is either created or increased. Surely it cannot be a created substance, because we cannot conceive it possible to be created; since we cannot conceive it as non-existent and creatable, which may be conceived concerning every created being. Nor can we conceive it properly an *annihilated* or annihilable, which we may suppose of every creature.

Watt's Phil. Essay.

ANNIHILATION, in a theological sense, is, perhaps, as difficult to human comprehension as creation itself, its opposite. Hence, among the profoundest philosophers of the heathen world, neither idea seems to have been brought into discussion, for a real First Cause was no part of their system. The Brahminical faith teaches that a succession of annihilations has already taken place in the material system of the universe; and will continue, at intervals, eternally. The Siamers consider personal annihilation the greatest possible reward of virtue.

Among Christian writers, the subject of annihilation has been a fruitful source of controversy. Some writers have argued for its being abstractedly impossible even to Deity; while others have contended that it must be the easiest of all operations, or rather that it needs no exertion whatever, on the part of God, all things having a tendency to destruction, and infinite power being required to uphold them. Such speculations it would seem impossible, to finite minds, to set at rest. They arise out of that most unanswerable of all questions, What is possible or impossible to Omnipotence? Mr. Evans, in his popular *Sketch of the Denominations of the Christian World*, has introduced an account of a sect called Destructionists, who contended, with some learned men of former times, for the annihilation of the wicked as their final punishment; and so understand all the passages of Scripture, which speak of their being destroyed, &c.

ANNIVERSARY, a.

ANNIVERSARY, adj.

ANNIVERSARY, adj.

ANNIVERSARY.

Annus, a year; and

verto, to turn.

That which returns at

the end of the year; or

yearly.

And soon after dyed dame Blanche, sometime the wife of Henry duke of Lancaster, and was buried at Pooleys upon the north side of the hythe altar, by her husband; where she ordyned for hym and her—illi. chidres for ever, and an *anniversary* yearly to be kept.

Fulcan, p. 468.

We verily (as you know well enough) make feasts for the victory of Delphinius before the city Hysupolia; and not only we keep yearly holiday there, but also the whole country of Pontus (upon that *anniversary* day) is full of sacrifices and due honours.

Holland's Plutarch's Morals.

— Shall an anniversary

Be kept with ostentation to rehearse

A mortal prince's birth-day, or repeat

An eighty-eight, or powder-plot's defeat?

Miles, on Christmas Day, 1658.

I find, upon inquiry, that on the anniversary of the revolution in 1688, a club of dissenters, but of what denomination I know not, have long had the custom of hearing a sermon in one of their churches.

When Nizaron, the deadly enemy of the Jews, was discomfited and slain, a day was appointed by public authority, next before Mordecai's feast, to be kept *anniversary* sacred unto the memory of that deliverance and victory.

Bp. Hall's Political Works.

ANNOBON, an island of Africa, about 300 miles W. of Cape Lopez, on the coast of Congo, in E. lon. 5°, 30', and S. lat. 1°, 39'. It is inhabited by a mixed race of Portuguese and Negroes; and abounds with cattle and fruits of various kinds.

ANNIHILATE.
—
ANNOBON.

ANNO
DOMINI.
—
ANNO.
TATE.

ANNO DOMINI, the Year of our Lord, or the era of time from the birth of Jesus Christ. This is usually inserted in all public acts and writings of this country, with the addition of the year of the king's reign.

ANNOA CIVILIS, in Antiquity, coro, or provisions of any sort for a year. The tax called by this name, intended to supply the capital and army, was very oppressive in the time of Justinian.

ANNOA MILITARIS, was a name for necessities stored in the magazines, for the maintenance of an army during a campaign. We read also of annone prefectus, or curators, to inspect the sale of corn, annonæ structor, to attend to the provision for the army, annonarius, an officer who had the distribution of the rations to the soldiers, and annonarii, monopolists.

ANNOA, in Botany, a genus of plants, belonging to the class Polyandria, and order Polygynia.

ANNONAY, a town of Algiers, 33 miles from Constantinople. It is now only remarkable for some ancient ruins, on an elevated spot not far distant from the town.

ANNONDI, a town of France, in Lower Languedoc, 19 leagues from Privas. It is now the head of a canton, in the arrondissement of Tournon, and was formerly the capital of the Upper Vivarais, giving the title of a marquise to the house of Halm-Soubise. At present it is chiefly remarkable for its manufacture of paper of a very excellent quality, which was originally introduced by the celebrated aeronaut Montgolfier, who ascended from this place in his balloon, on the 5th of June, 1783.

ANNOT, a town of France, in the department of the Lower Alps, eight leagues from Digne. It is the head of a canton, and contains a population of upwards of 1,000 inhabitants.

ANNOTATE, v. Annoto, from ad, noto, which ANNOTATION, v. Cossius thinks is from the supine Notum: for we note or ANNOTATOR, mark a thing, that from the mark we may know it.

To make marks, or remarks or observations.

At length here (M. Tyndall) be thought him self of Colbert Tundall then Bishop of London, and especially for the great comendatary of Erasmus, who to his annotations to extolled him for his learning.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndall, &c. [HARVEY SAVILE] carefully collected the best copies of books, written by St. Chrysostom, from various parts of the world, and employed learned men to transcribe, and make annotations on them.

Wood's Athens Oronotus. If it [philology] be only criticism upon ancient authors and languages, it must be a conjurer that can make those moderns, with their commentaries, and glossaries, and annotations, more learned than the authors themselves in their own languages, as well as the subjects they treat.

Temple, an An. and Mo. Learning.

There are some admirable remarks in the annotations to the second chapter (of Dr. Lister's treatise *De Condemnatione & Opprobrio Petrus*), concerning the dialogue of Aeslius Sabinus, who introduced a combat between muskincubus, chata, or beeches, cyasters, and railways; a work that ought to be published: for the same annotator observes, that this island is not destitute of railways, though coming to us only in the hardest weather, and therefore seldom brought fat to our tables.

King's Letters. Let. ix. Of his (Thosbald's) notes I have generally retained those which he retained himself in his second edition, except when they were confuted by subsequent annotations, or were too minute to merit preservation.

Johnson's Pref. to Shakespeare. Give me leave to annotate on the words. *Illeg. Gratioso.* How fly the Sarcasms are remembered to locusts, or scorpion-tailed locusts, in the Apoc. Mr. Mede has with far more clearness shown, than the annotations of the new way.

Workington's Miscellanies.

ANNOTO, a river of Jamalen, forming a bay of the same name. It takes a northerly course, and enters the sea between the rivers Blowing and Palmito.

ANNOUNCE, v. Anuncio (ad, nuncio; to bring something new. ANNOUNCEMENT. } To make known; to publish, to declare, to proclaim.

Lo Sampson, which that was announced

By the angel, long or his outlive:

And was to God Almighty consecrated,

And made in noblesse will he might see.

Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, vol. ii. p. 139.

Of thy birth at length,

Announced by Gabriel, with the first I knew,

And of the angelic song in Bethlehem field,

On thy birth-night that sung the Saviour born.

Milton's Par. Reg. Book iv.

I will not curl with antiquity, or traduce the primitive church, but I think I may believe without danger, that those silyls might be select instruments to announce the dispensations of heaven to mankind.

Howell's Letters.

Surely, if the plain man would ply his almanack well, that alone would teach him gospel enough, to show him the history of his Saviour. If one day teach him another, all days would teach him. There should be see his Blessed Saviour's conception announced by the angel: March 25.

Bp. Hall's Sermons.

When the revolution of the anniversary calls on us to perform our duty of special meditation, and thankfulness to God for the glorious benefits of Christ's Incarnation, Nativity, Passion, Resurrection, and Ascension, here we have the offices of Christians, the Annunciation, Easter, and Ascension.

Anglican's Apo. for Aithio. & set Forms of Liturgies. Pref.

Those, mighty force, mean time, thy glorious care,

Who model nations, publish laws, announce

Th' life or death, and found or change the empire.

Prior. Hymn of Calibanus.

Her (Queen Elizabeth's) arrival was announced through the country by a peal of cannon from the ramparts; and a display of fireworks at night.

Glavin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

ANNUNCIATION DAY, in Ecclesiastical Affairs, a feast of the church, celebrated annually on the 25th of March, in honour of the salutation of the blessed Virgin, or as some authors hold, of our Saviour himself. Bingham assigns the institution of this festival to the seventh century, about which time the council of Toledo ordered it to be celebrated eight days before Christmas. Several Romish writers bring forward a spurious sermon of St. Athanasius, and another of Gregory Thaumaturgus, to prove its still greater antiquity. The eastern and western churches vary considerably in their season of observing this feast. The Syrian calendar notes it down for the 1st day of December, and distinguishes it by the appellation of Bascarnel, inquiry, or investigation. The Greeks, who are by no means scrupulous in its solemnization, celebrate it even in Lent; while the Armenian churches, in order to prevent it from occurring at that period, hold it on the 5th of January. The pope, at one time, was in the habit of having a certain number of young maidens presented to him on Annunciation Day, clothed in white serge from head to foot. To those who chose to be married by him, he gave 50 crowns as a portion, those who chose to be devoted as nuns, received 100 crowns. The term Annunciation is also applied to designate that part of the ceremony of the Jewish passover, in which the reason and origin of its celebration are explained, called by the Jews *zman Haggala*, or the Annunciation.

ANNOY.
ANNUA
PEN-
SIONE.

ANNOY, v.

ANNOY, s.

ANNOYANCE,

ANNOYFUL,

ANNOYING,

trouble or molest.

And ye Rannages by *snegd* her travail so sore,
Of perel on se, & the on land, but here and come her so more.

R. Gloucester, p. 100.

Salomon sayth, that right as moethen in the shapen fressen
to the clothes, and the male wurnen to the tree, right so *annoyeth*
sore to the herte of man.

Chaucer. *The Tale of Melibee*, vol. ii. p. 74.

But the cheer of the lord is on men that doo yurlo, and who is
it that schal assaye you if ye beo sarcis and honoris of goodnesse.

Wiclif. *Peter* i. c. li.

Hat telteth as your greif,

Paraveotens I may in your mischeif

Conscile or helpe; and therfore telteth me

All your assaye, for it shal be secree.

Chaucer. *The Shipman's Tale*, vol. ii. p. 35.

For he was neverre crucible in his wey; but that God made
him to stye up in with outen Dether, and with outen Assaye.

Sir John Mandeville, p. 162.

The flons which against other are of servence insidible, they
either vanquished, or pressed harnies, as though their mouthis
being stopped, or the their cleaves fast burnles, they had no
power to tute those whom god would have preserved withoute any
assuance.

Udell. *Paid to the Hebrews*, r. xi.

For al be it so, that al taryng be *assuful*, althet it is not to
repere in ryving of judgement, ut to vengeance taking, whas it is
suffisant and reasonable.

Chaucer. *The Tale of Melibee*, vol. ii. p. 77.

But certes ye han solelyely elped to your consail a grete multitude
of peple, ful charygeant and ful *assuful* for to here.

Id. ib. p. 94.

The city of Epidaurum had grete and populous; and having
for many years been *assuful* with sedition, and, by a writ,
as is reported, made upon them by the confining Barbarians,
brought low, and deprived of the greatest part of their power.

Hobbes' *Thyracides*.

And how he slew with gleaming dart amone

A gentle hynd, the which the lovely boy

Did love as life, above all worldly blisse;

For griefe whereof the lad n'could after joy;

But fynd assay he sought, and selfful assuful.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, Book i. r. vi.

K. H. My Lords, at once. The care you have of us

To now down thorn that would assay our fort.

Is worthy praise.

Shakespeare's *2d pt. H. VI.* act iii. sc. 1.

BARR. No. Know the pallant monarch is in arms;
And like an eagle o'er his airy lovers

To some *annoyance* that cometh near his nest.

Id. K. John, act v. sc. 2.

Indeed though STIFF-CLAY (commonly called Stukley) be the
name but of one or two villagers in the midst, yet their nature is ex-
tensive all over the country, consisting of a deep clay, giving much
annoyance to passengers.

Pulley's *Worthies*. *Hawlingdonshire*.

Say, what can more our tortured souls annoy,

Than to behold, admire, and lose our joy?

Prior's *Pastoral*.

The very exercise of industry immediately in itself is delightful,
and bath an innate satisfaction, which tempereth all *annoyances*,
and even ingratiate the pains going with it. *Berrow's Sermons*.

Preserving his secret unweaved, and his forces well united, let
a hero march and assay his enemy; for hot iron may form an
union with hot iron; so be by equal fierceness, at a time when his
foe is fierce, may conclude a firm peace.

Sir Wm. Jones's *Hilpades*.

ANNUA PENSIONE, in Ecclesiastical Affairs, an
ancient writ for providing the king's unpreferred chap-
lains with a pension. Where an annual pension was due
to the king, from an abbot or prior, by this writ he could
nominate any of his chaplains (who were not provided
with livings) to receive the same of such parties.

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Annus, from Annus, a year.
Yearly, occurring every year.

ANNUAL.

For he hadte every year of *annuall* Rente 300,000 Hors charged
with Curn of diverse Greynes and of Ryes: and so helete the a falle
noble Lile, and a delicate, sure the custom of the Countee.

Sir John Mandeville, p. 376.

He ordered ye *annuall* use or ceremony to este the Paschall
Lambe, with whose bloude they speyked the thrushoude and
haunce of the dore, with both the postes of the house: and trusting
vpon this signe, feared not themselves in the midells of the slaugh-
ter of the Egyphtins.

Udell. *Paid to the Hebrews*, cap. xi.

There must be Masses dynges, ther must be *annuall* head m.

Bede's *Image in both Churches*, p. 91.

Wherefore first the officers *annuall*, were put out of the Court,
and many old officers were put to live in their countryes, but the
king (Henry the eighth) of his beuetic embraced their flyngers,
for he had had three pound wages, had six pound *annuall*, without
attendance, and he that had—als had four pound, and so every
man after that rate, and young menne were put in their roomes.

Holt. *Henry VIII.* fo. 116.

In London was a preest, an *annuall* of the

That therin dwelled hadde many a yere,
Which was so pleasant and so servisable

Unto the wif, that he was at table,
That she would oute him no thing to pay

For herde no clothing, weat he never so gay.

Chaucer. *The Chanseye Yousaunt Tale*, vol. ii. p. 211.

Get all the town to help, that will be his'd,
Their painis I'll turn to *annuall* holiday.

If it shall chance, but one bring word of her.

Bede's *Image in both Churches*, p. 91.

Intelligent of season, and set forth
Their airy carcan, high over seas

Flying, and over land, with ritual wing,
Easing their flight; so steers the prudent crane

Her *annuall* voyage, borne on winds.

Milton's *Par. Lost*. Book vii.

My grandfather had seven scores, of which my father was the
youngest: to the eldest he gave his whole estate, and to the rest,
according to the custome of those times, slight *annuall*.

Milton's *Par. Lost*. Book vii.

Egypt, though there seldom falls any rain there, yet hath alim-
dant recompense made it by the *annuall* overflowing of the river.

Ray. *On the Creation*.

The outer and inner bark of trees serve to defend the trunk and
boughs from the excesses of heat and cold, and drought, and to
convey the sap for the *annuall* augmentation of the tree.

Id.

Ere the progressive course of restless age
Performs three thousand times its *annuall* stage,

May not our power and learning be augment,
And arts and empire learn to travel west?

In short, oaths are the children of fashion; they are in some sense
almost *annuall*, like what I observed before of cant-words; and I
myself can remember about forty different ones.

Prior's *Solomon*. Book i.

Trees receive *annuall* their peculiar liquors, and bear their
proper fruits.

Willston's *Religion of Nature*.

Supply new
With *annuall* shocks the wondrous Jew.

John Hall's *Poems*.

If the consent of the *annuall* be requisite for every taxation,
they will never be persuaded to contribute sufficiently even to
the support of government; as the dissipation of their revenue must
in that case be very annuall, would not be dissipated under the ap-
pearance of a branch of excise, or customs, and would not be
shared by any other order of the state, who are already supposed
to be taxed to the utmost.

Hume's *Essays*.

An *annuall* is a thing very distinct from a rent-charge, with
which it is frequently confounded: a rent-charge being a barthen
imposed upon and issuing out of lands, whereas an *annuall* is a
yearly sum chargeable only upon the person of the grantee.

Blackstone's *Commentaries*.

ANNUITIES.

ANNUITIES.

It is our intention, under this general head, to treat of all those subjects which have an obvious and necessary dependence on the same principles of investigations, viz. annuities, certain and contingent, survivorships and assurances; we shall thus have the advantage of saving numerous references to tables, formulæ, and theorems; unavoidable when these articles are treated of in the places assigned to them in the alphabet by their initial letters.

Different kinds of annuities.

1. The doctrine of annuities has always been considered a subject of considerable importance in all well-regulated states; but in no country is it of so much consequence as in our own; and at no time did it possess such interest, even in England, as at the present; when property, either real or nominal, has attained to a magnitude far beyond what could ever have been contemplated by the most sanguine financier, and the transfer of it from one hand to another is the business of every day, and the concern of almost every person in the higher and middling classes of society.

The term annuity is to be understood here to denote any periodical income arising from money lent, or from houses, lands, salaries, pensions, &c. payable from time to time, either annually, or at any other interval. These may be divided into such as are *certain*, and such as depend upon some *contingency*, as the continuance of one or more lives: these latter are called *life annuities*. Annuities certain may likewise be divided into such as are in possession, and such as are in reversion; the former signifying those that have already commenced, and the latter, those that will not commence till after some particular event, or till some given period of time has elapsed.

With respect to the contingencies on which an annuity may depend, they are to be computed separately, upon the principles of the doctrine of probabilities, which shows the value of any given expectations founded upon the tables of mortality which have been kept at different times and in different places. This subject is consequently attended with greater difficulty than the former, although they both depend ultimately upon the same fundamental principles; we shall, therefore, first solicit the reader's attention to the doctrine of annuities certain; and afterwards pass to those which are contingent.

§ 1. Annuities certain.

Annuities certain.

2. The principal questions relating to the doctrine of these kinds of annuities, may be divided into two parts; viz. those relating to the *amount*, and those relating to the *present value*; and these will again evidently differ according as *simple* or *compound* interest is used in the calculation. The value of annuities, however, at simple interest, can hardly be considered in the present day in any other light than as a mere matter of speculation; so many ways presenting themselves by which compound interest may be obtained; even the savings of the simple artisan, amounting, perhaps, to not more than a shilling a week, may, by

means of our recent laudable institutions of *savings-banks*, have all the advantages of compound interest, upon the same terms as the rich fund-holder who appropriates a part of each of his dividends in the purchase of new stock. We might, therefore, without much impropriety, pass over entirely the consideration of annuities at simple interest; but as this article might thus appear incomplete, we shall briefly allude to the subject, and then proceed to examine other cases of more practical utility.

ANNUITIES.

Amount of annuities at simple interest.

3. It may be proper to observe here, once for all, that we shall direct all our investigations, unless the contrary be specified, to those cases where the annuity is *1l.* and we may then, by a simple proportion, or multiplication, determine the same for any other annuity, as the amounts will evidently have the same ratio as the annuities themselves.

This being premised, let

s = the amount of the annuity,

a = the annuity,

n = the number of years,

r = the rate of interest per *l.* per annum.

Now, in the case of the annuity of *1l.* per annum, it is evident that the amount for 1 year is $1 + r$; for 2 years, $1 + 2r$; for 3 years, $1 + 3r$, &c.; and for n years, $1 + nr$. And therefore the total amount for n years, will be expressed by the series

$1 + (1+r) + (1+2r) + (1+3r) + \dots + (1+(n-1)r)$, because it is to be observed, that for the last payment no interest will be obtained; and that when the annuity is for n years, the first sum received will only be at interest for $(n-1)$ year.

This series is obviously an arithmetical progression, whose first term is 1, the common difference r , and the number of terms n ; moreover, the last term is $1 + (n-1)r$; the sum of it will therefore be found by the usual rule, to be

$$\frac{(2 + n-1.r)n}{2} = n + \frac{n(n-1).r}{2};$$

from which we deduce the following theorems, whence any one of the quantities may be determined when the others are given.

$$s = a \left\{ n + \frac{n(n-1).r}{2} \right\} = \text{the amount};$$

$$a = \frac{2s}{2n + n(n-1).r} = \text{the annuity};$$

$$n = \frac{\sqrt{\{(2-r)s^2 + 8r \cdot \frac{s}{a}\}} - (2+r)}{2r} = \text{N}^{\circ} \text{ of years};$$

$$r = \frac{2 \left(\frac{s}{a} - n \right)}{n(n-1)} = \text{rate of interest}.$$

AN-
NUITIES.

Consequently, any three of these four quantities being given, the fourth may be determined.

It may be proper to caution the reader that r does not here signify the rate per cent. per annum, but the interest of 1*l.* per annum.

Present
value.

The method of determining the present value of a similar annuity will readily follow, after what has been done above; for in this case we must find the present value of each year's annuity, as it becomes due. Now the present value of 1*l.* to be received at the end of a

year, is $\frac{1}{1+r}$; at the end of 2 years, $\frac{1}{1+2r}$; at the

end of 3 years, $\frac{1}{1+3r}$, &c.; and, generally, at the

end of n years, $\frac{1}{1+nr}$.

The principles upon which these computations are founded, are illustrated in our treatises on Arithmetic and Algebra.

Consequently, the total present value of an annuity of 1*l.* to continue for n years, is

$$\frac{1}{1+r} + \frac{1}{1+2r} + \frac{1}{1+3r}, \text{ \&c. } \frac{1}{1+nr};$$

which sum, being multiplied by any other annuity a , will be the present value of such an annuity. But as the summation of this series is very laborious, and as, after all, it belongs to a case which has little or no practical application, we shall not detain the reader upon this subject, but merely give him Simpson's approximation for the same, which may be safely applied in case such a question should ever occur. Its error is in excess.

Simpson's rule.—Divide a , or the amount of the annuity in the given time, by $1 + nr + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}r^2$ for the present value sought.*

Amount of annuities at compound interest.

Amount of
annuities
at com-
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terest.

4. The method of calculating the amount of annuities at the end of any given time, improved annually at compound interest, will readily follow from what has been stated above respecting those at simple interest; for we have only to find the amount of each payment put out at compound interest for the remainder of the term, after it becomes due, and to find the sum of all these several amounts.

If, therefore, a = the amount,
 a = the annuity,
 n = the number of years,
 r = the annual interest upon 1*l.*

then, for an annuity of 1*l.* the amount at the end of one year will be $1+r$; and

$1 : (1+r) :: (1+r) : (1+r)^2$
the amount for two years; and in the same manner $(1+r)^2$ will be the amount for three years, &c.; and, generally, for n years, the amount will be $(1+r)^n$.

Now, as in the case of simple interest, the last payment of the annuity will have no interest attached to it, and the first will only remain at interest for $(n-1)$ years; consequently, the whole amount of such an annuity will be expressed by the series

$$1 + (1+r) + (1+r)^2 + (1+r)^3, \text{ \&c. } (1+r)^{n-1};$$

VOL. XVII.

which being a geometrical progression, its sum is found by the known rules (see ALGEBRA, Div. i.) to be

$$\frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r};$$

and multiplying this by the given annuity a , we shall have the amount required, viz.

$$s = a \left(\frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r} \right).$$

Hence we readily deduce the following theorems:

$$s = a \cdot \frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r} = \text{the amount};$$

$$a = s \cdot \frac{r}{(1+r)^n - 1} = \text{the annuity};$$

$$\log. (1 + \frac{s}{a} \cdot r) = \frac{\log. (1+r)}{\log. (1+r)} = \text{the number of years};$$

$$r = \frac{\{12 + (n+1)q\}q}{12 + 2(n+1)q} = \text{the annual interest};$$

in which last formula we substitute, for the sake of

$$\text{abridging, } q = \left(\frac{s}{a} \right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}} - 1.$$

Note 1. In the above formula and investigation we have supposed the annuity to be payable yearly, and consequently a denotes the number of years, and r the interest on 1*l.* for one year. But if the annuity be payable half yearly, or quarterly, or every two or three years, we must then consider a to denote the number of payments, and r as the interest payable upon 1*l.* for the time of each payment; that is, for half yearly payments, n must be doubled, and r must be taken half the annual interest; for quarterly payments, the number of them will be $4n$, and the interest $\frac{1}{4}r$; so also for biennial or triennial payments, the number will be $\frac{1}{2}n$, or $\frac{1}{3}n$, and the rate $2r$, or $3r$; so that the same formulae will apply to any cases of this kind.

Note 2. We here suppose the annuity and the interest upon the annuity to be payable together. It is obvious, that although an annuity may only be payable annually, the purchaser may be able to place his several receipts so that they may improve by half yearly or quarterly payments; if this were taken into consideration, the above formulae would require certain modifications; but it would lead us too far to enter upon this investigation, which, after all, is not of very great importance. The reader, however, will find them treated of in a very luminous manner by Mr. Bailey, in his *Doctrine of Annuities*. To this work we therefore refer him for the requisite information; and we believe the subject has never been considered under this point of view but by that gentleman.

5. Let us illustrate the above formulae by one or two examples.

Required the amount of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum for 20 years, at 4 per cent. per annum, and show the difference in that amount, on the supposition of yearly, half yearly, and quarterly payments.

1. For yearly payments we have $n = 20$, $r = .04$, and $a = 100$. Whence

AN-
NUITIES.Annuities
payable half
yearly,
quarterly,
&c.Illustrated
by exam-
ples.

AN-
NUITIES.

$$s = 100 \cdot \frac{(1 + \cdot 04)^{50} - 1}{\cdot 04} = 2,977l. 16s. 11\frac{1}{2}d.$$

2. For half yearly payments, $n = 40$, $r = \cdot 02$, and $a = 50$. Whence

$$s = 50 \cdot \frac{(1 + \cdot 02)^{40} - 1}{\cdot 02} = 3,020 l. 1s. 11\frac{1}{2}d.$$

3. For quarterly payments, $n = 80$, $r = \cdot 01$, and $a = 25$. Whence

$$s = 25 \cdot \frac{(1 + \cdot 01)^{80} - 1}{\cdot 01} = 3,041l. 15s.$$

If the payments were only made every two years, then we should have $n = 10$, $r = \cdot 08$, and $a = 200$. In this case, therefore, the amount would be

$$s = 200 \cdot \frac{(1 + \cdot 08)^{10} - 1}{\cdot 08} = 2,897l. 6s. 3d.$$

Where it is obvious, that the oftener the payments are made, the greater will be the value of the whole annuity, as is indeed otherwise obvious.

As this formula for s , although simple in its form, is somewhat troublesome to put into numbers, tables of its several values have been computed, answering to the different values of n and r , for annuities of 1l. from which that for any other proposed annuity may be obtained by simple multiplication. Such is the following Table I. for any number of years under 50, and for all rates of interest from 2 to 7 per cent. per annum; or from 2 to 7 per cent. per payment.

Let us give an example, by way of illustrating the use of this table.

To what will an annuity of 500l. per annum amount in 40 years, at 4 per cent. per annum, yearly payments?

By the table, the amount of 1l. for 40 years,
at 4 per cent. is 95.0255
Mult. by 500

$$47512.7500 = 19,512l. 15s.$$

Again, to what will an annuity of 1,000l. per annum amount in 25 years, at 5 per cent.; the payments being made half yearly?

This is obviously the same as an annuity of 500l. for 50 payments, at 2½ per cent.

By the table, 50 years, at 2½ per cent. = 97.4843
Mult. by 500

$$48742.1500$$

Present value of annuities at compound interest.

6. The present value of an annuity is such a sum as, put out to interest, will enable us to provide for the several payments of the annuity as they become due. In order to ascertain this sum, we must find the present value of these several payments; and the sum of them will be the total present value sought. Hence, then, let

p = the present worth,
 a = the annuity,
 n = the number of years,
 r = the rate of interest per l. per payment.

Now, to find the present worth of 1 l. for one payment, we have

$$(1 + r) : 1 :: 1 : \frac{1}{1 + r} \text{ present worth of one payment.}$$

For 2 years, or payments, we have

$$1 + r : 1 :: \frac{1}{1 + r} : \frac{1}{(1 + r)^2} \text{ for two payments;}$$

$$1 + r : 1 :: \frac{1}{(1 + r)^2} : \frac{1}{(1 + r)^3} \text{ for three payments;}$$

&c.

&c.

$$1 + r : 1 :: \frac{1}{(1 + r)^{n-1}} : \frac{1}{(1 + r)^n} \text{ for } n \text{ payments.}$$

The present worth, therefore, of all the payments, will be

$$\frac{1}{(1 + r)} + \frac{1}{(1 + r)^2} + \frac{1}{(1 + r)^3} + \&c. \frac{1}{(1 + r)^n},$$

a geometrical progression, of which the ratio is $\frac{1}{1 + r}$ and the sum of it, according to the principles delivered in our treatise on Algebra, is

$$\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r(1 + r)^n} = \frac{(1 + r)^n - 1}{r(1 + r)^n},$$

which being multiplied by any annuity a , will express its present worth. We obtain thus the following theorems, whence any of the four quantities may be found when the others are given, viz.

$$p = a \cdot \frac{(1 + r)^n - 1}{r(1 + r)^n} = \text{present worth;}$$

$$a = p \cdot \frac{r(1 + r)^n}{(1 + r)^n - 1} = \text{annuity;}$$

$$\text{co. log. } (1 + \frac{p}{a} r)$$

$$= \frac{\log. (1 + r)}{\log. (1 + \frac{p}{a} r)} = \text{number of payments;}$$

$$r = \frac{\{12 - (n - 1)q\}q}{12 - 2(n - 1)q} = \text{rate of interest.}$$

Where co. log. signifies the logarithmic complement, and

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)^{\frac{r}{1+r}} = 1.$$

7. The following examples will illustrate these formulae.

1. What is the present value of an annuity of 20l. Examples, per ann. for 40 years, at the rate of 6 per cent. per ann. the payments being yearly?

Here $n = 40$, $r = \cdot 06$, and $a = 20$;

$$\text{whence } p = 20 \times \frac{1 - 06^{40} - 1}{\cdot 06 \times 1.06^{40}} = 300l. 18s. 6d.$$

2. What ought to be the annual rent or payment for 55½ years, for which a premium of 100l. is paid down, allowing interest at 5½ per cent. per ann.?

Here $n = 55\frac{1}{2}$, $p = 100$, and $r = \cdot 055$;

$$\text{whence } a = 100 \times \frac{\cdot 055 \times (1.055)^{55\frac{1}{2}}}{(1.055)^{55\frac{1}{2}} - 1} = 5l. 16s.$$

In this case, as in the former, the theorems for p and a involve much arithmetical computation, to avoid which, tables of their value are computed to various periods, and for different rates of interest; such are our Tables II. and III.; the other formulae, viz. those for n and r , being by no means so frequently required, it would only be a waste of time to reduce them to the tabular form.

Note. When the payments are not made annually, then n will denote the number of payments, and r the in-

AN-
NUITIES.Present
value at
compound
interest.

ANNUITIES.

terest of 1*l.* for one payment, as stated in the beginning of this article.

As an application of the tables, let us suppose that the present worth of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum is required, which is to continue for 20 years, allowing 5 per cent. interest.

By Table II. the present worth of 1*l.* for 20 years, at 5 per cent, is 12.4622
Mult. by 100

$$1246.22 = 1,246*l.* 4*s.* 5*d.*$$

What annuity may be purchased for 1,000*l.* to continue for 20 years, in half yearly payments, allowing interest at 5 per cent.?

This is, in fact, 40 payments, at an interest of 2½ per cent.

Now, by Table III. 1*l.* will purchase, under such conditions, an annuity of .039836
Mult. by 1000

$$39.836 = 39*l.* 16*s.* 8½*d.*$$

Of annuities in perpetuity.

Perpetuities.

8. A perpetuity is an annuity that is to continue for ever. Now, in the foregoing article, we have seen that *n* denotes the number of years, or the number of payments, and we have introduced no condition that ought to limit its value; therefore, the first two formulæ will still apply to this case, by making *n* infinite, that is, in the case where the annuity is to continue for ever; but to render this transformation the more perspicuous, it will be better to change them into the following form, viz.

$$p = a \cdot \frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r(1+r)^n} = a \left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r(1+r)^n} \right);$$

$$a = \frac{r(1+r)^n}{(1+r)^n - 1} = p \cdot \frac{r}{1 - \frac{1}{(1+r)^n}};$$

where, under the second form, it is obvious, that when *n* is infinite, the fraction $\frac{1}{r(1+r)^n}$, in the first case, and $\frac{1}{(1+r)^n}$, in the second, will be infinitely small, or zero; consequently, when the annuity is in perpetuity, we shall have

$$p = \frac{a}{r}, \quad a = rp, \quad \text{and} \quad r = \frac{a}{p}.$$

For example, if the present value of a freehold estate were of the yearly rent of 100*l.*, allowing interest at 5 per cent., we should have

$$p = \frac{100}{.05} = 2,000*l.*$$

Of annuities in reversion.

Reversionary annuities.

9. When an annuity is not to be entered upon immediately, but after a certain number of years, it is called a reversion; and its present value is such a sum as, put out to interest, will provide for the several payments of the annuity as it becomes due.

This case might be readily reduced to the former, viz. annuities which commence immediately, by computing the present worth of an annuity which is to

commence immediately, and that of another which is also to commence immediately, but to continue only while the other is deferred, or in reversion; and the difference would be the actual present worth sought. Or we may proceed as in the case referred to, by calling

ANNUITIES.

p = present worth;
a = the annuity;
n = the number of years it is payable;
n' = the number before it commences;
r = the rate of interest per *l.*

Now, assuming as before, an annuity of 1*l.*, the present value of the first payment after *n'* years, will be

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+1}}; \text{ the present value of the second payment}$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+2}}; \text{ the third payment, } \frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+3}}, \text{ \&c. ;}$$

$$\text{and of the } n\text{th payment, } \frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+n}}. \text{ Consequently,}$$

$$\text{the total present value will be}$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+1}} + \frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+2}} + \frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+3}} + \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'+n}}; \text{ the sum of which, by the rules for}$$

$$\text{summing geometrical series, is}$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^{n'}} \times \frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r(1+r)^n} = \frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r(1+r)^{n'+n}}.$$

Multiplying, therefore, by *a*, we have the following expression for *p*; whence all the others are readily deduced, viz.

$$p = a \cdot \frac{(1+r)^n - 1}{r(1+r)^{n'+n}};$$

$$a = p \cdot \frac{r(1+r)^{n'+n}}{(1+r)^n - 1};$$

$$\text{co. log. } \left\{ 1 - \frac{p}{a} r (1+r)^n \right\}$$

$$n = \frac{\text{log. } \{ 1 - (1+r)^{-n} \} - \text{log. } \left(\frac{p}{a} r \right)}{\text{log. } (1+r)};$$

$$n' = \frac{\{ 12m - (n^2 - 1)g \}}{12m - 2(n^2 - 1)g};$$

$$\text{where } m = 2n' + n + 1, \text{ and } g = \left(\frac{an}{p} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}.$$

The application of these formulæ involves no difficulty which a reader who has followed the preceding examples will not readily overcome; we shall, therefore, not stop to illustrate them by any particular questions, but pass on, after inserting the following tables, to the more important part of our subject, the doctrine of life annuities.

AN-
NUITIES.TABLE I. Showing the amount of an annuity of 1*l*. for any number of years, not exceeding fifty; and for the different rates of interest from 2 to 7 per Cent.AN-
NUITIES.

No. of Years.	2 per Cent.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	7 per Cent.
1	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000
2	2.02000	2.02500	2.03000	2.03500	2.04000	2.04500	2.05000	2.05000	2.07000
3	3.06040	3.07502	3.09090	3.10822	3.12660	3.13702	3.15250	3.18360	3.21490
4	4.12160	4.15251	4.18362	4.21494	4.24646	4.27819	4.31012	4.37461	4.43994
5	5.20404	5.25932	5.30913	5.36246	5.41632	5.47070	5.52563	5.63709	5.75073
6	6.30812	6.38773	6.46840	6.55015	6.63297	6.71689	6.80191	6.97531	7.15329
7	7.43248	7.54743	7.66246	7.77940	7.89829	8.01915	8.14200	8.30833	8.65402
8	8.58296	8.73611	8.89233	9.05168	9.21422	9.38001	9.54910	9.89746	10.25980
9	9.75492	9.95451	10.15910	10.36849	10.58279	10.80211	11.02656	11.49131	11.97798
10	10.94972	11.20388	11.46387	11.73159	12.00610	12.28820	12.57789	13.18079	13.81644
12	12.16871	12.48346	12.80779	13.14198	13.48635	13.84117	14.20678	14.97164	15.78359
14	13.41208	13.79565	14.19202	14.60196	15.02580	15.46403	15.91712	16.86994	17.88845
16	14.68033	15.14044	15.61779	16.11303	16.62683	17.15991	17.71298	18.88213	20.14064
18	15.97393	16.51895	17.08632	17.67698	18.29191	18.93210	19.59863	21.01506	22.55048
20	17.29341	17.93192	18.59891	19.29568	20.02358	20.78405	21.57856	23.27526	25.12902
22	18.63928	19.38022	20.15688	20.97102	21.82453	22.71933	23.65749	25.67252	27.88805
24	20.01207	20.86473	21.76158	22.70501	23.69751	24.74170	25.84036	28.21287	30.84021
26	21.41231	22.36634	23.41443	24.49968	25.64541	26.85508	28.13238	30.90595	33.99903
28	22.84055	23.94600	25.11686	26.35718	27.67122	29.06350	30.53900	33.75099	37.37866
30	24.29736	25.54465	26.87037	28.27968	29.77807	31.37142	33.06592	36.78559	40.99549
32	25.78331	27.18327	28.67648	30.26947	31.66920	33.78313	35.71925	39.99272	44.86517
34	27.29898	28.86285	30.53678	32.32890	34.24796	36.30337	38.50521	43.39229	49.00573
36	28.84496	30.58442	32.45288	34.46041	36.61788	38.93702	41.43047	46.99582	53.43614
38	30.42186	32.34903	34.42647	36.66652	39.08260	41.68919	44.50199	50.81557	58.17667
40	32.03029	34.15776	36.45926	38.94983	41.64590	44.56521	47.72769	54.86451	63.24903
42	33.67090	36.01170	38.55304	41.31310	44.31174	47.57065	51.11345	59.15638	68.67647
44	35.34432	37.91200	40.70963	43.75906	47.08421	50.71132	54.66912	63.70576	74.48382
46	37.05121	39.85980	42.93092	46.29062	49.96758	53.99333	58.40258	68.52811	80.69769
48	38.79223	41.85629	45.21885	48.91079	52.96628	57.42303	62.32271	73.63979	87.34652
50	40.56807	43.90270	47.57541	51.62267	56.08493	61.00706	66.43884	79.05818	94.46078
52	42.37944	46.00027	50.00267	54.42947	59.37833	64.75238	70.76078	84.80167	102.07304
54	44.22702	48.15027	52.50275	57.33450	62.70146	68.66624	75.29882	90.88977	110.21815
56	46.11157	50.35403	55.07784	60.34121	66.20652	72.75620	80.06377	97.34316	118.93342
58	48.03380	52.61288	57.73017	63.45315	69.85790	77.03025	85.06695	104.18375	128.25876
60	49.99447	54.92820	60.46201	66.67401	73.65222	81.49661	90.32030	111.43477	138.23687
62	51.99436	57.30141	63.27594	70.00760	77.59831	86.16396	95.83632	119.12086	148.91345
64	54.03425	59.73394	66.17422	73.45786	81.70224	91.04134	101.62813	127.26811	160.33740
66	56.11493	62.22729	69.15944	77.02889	85.97053	96.13820	107.70954	135.90420	172.56102
68	58.23723	64.78297	72.23423	80.72490	90.40914	101.46442	114.09502	145.05845	185.64029
70	60.40198	67.40255	75.40125	84.55027	95.02551	107.03032	120.79977	154.76106	199.63511
72	62.61002	70.08761	78.66329	88.50953	99.82653	112.84668	127.83976	165.04768	214.60956
74	64.86222	72.83980	82.02319	92.60737	104.81959	118.92478	135.23175	175.95054	230.63223
76	67.15946	75.66080	85.48389	96.84862	110.01238	125.27640	142.99337	187.50757	247.77649
78	69.50265	78.55282	89.04840	101.23833	115.41287	131.91384	151.14300	199.75803	266.12085
80	71.89271	81.51613	92.71986	105.78167	121.02939	138.84996	159.70015	212.74351	285.74931
82	74.33056	84.55403	96.50145	110.48403	126.87056	146.09821	168.68516	226.56042	306.75176
84	76.81717	87.66788	100.39650	115.35097	132.94539	153.67263	178.11942	241.09861	329.22438
86	79.35351	90.85958	104.40839	120.38825	139.26320	161.58790	188.02539	256.56452	353.27009
88	81.94058	94.13107	108.54064	125.60184	145.83373	169.85935	198.42666	272.95840	378.99899
90	84.57940	97.48434	112.79686	130.99791	152.60708	178.50302	209.34799	290.33590	406.52892

ANNUITIES.

621

AN.
NUITIES.

TABLE II. Showing the present value of an annuity of 1l. per annum, for any number of years, not exceeding fifty, and at different rates of interest, from 2 to 7 per Cent.

AN.
NUITIES.

N ^o of Years.	2 per Cent.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	7 per Cent.
1	·98039	·97560	·97887	·96618	·96153	·95093	·95238	·94339	·93457
2	1·94156	1·92742	1·91346	1·89908	1·88608	1·87266	1·85941	1·84339	1·80801
3	2·88388	2·85902	2·82861	2·80163	2·77509	2·74896	2·72324	2·62431	2·62431
4	3·80772	3·76197	3·71709	3·67307	3·62989	3·58752	3·54595	3·46510	3·38721
5	4·71345	4·64582	4·57790	4·51506	4·45182	4·38997	4·32947	4·21236	4·10019
6	5·60143	5·50812	5·41719	5·32855	5·24213	5·15787	5·07569	4·91732	4·76653
7	6·47199	6·34839	6·23028	6·11454	6·00205	5·89270	5·78637	5·58238	5·38928
8	7·32548	7·17013	7·01969	6·87395	6·73274	6·59588	6·46321	6·20979	5·97129
9	8·16223	7·97086	7·78610	7·60768	7·43533	7·26879	7·10782	6·80169	6·51523
10	8·98258	8·75206	8·53026	8·31660	8·11089	7·91271	7·72173	7·36008	7·02358
11	9·78684	9·51420	9·25262	9·00155	8·76047	8·52891	8·30641	7·88687	7·49867
12	10·57534	10·25776	9·95400	9·66333	9·38507	9·11858	8·86325	8·38384	7·94268
13	11·34837	10·98318	10·63495	10·30273	9·98564	9·68285	9·39357	8·85248	8·35765
14	12·10624	11·69091	11·29607	10·92052	10·56312	10·22382	9·89864	9·29498	8·74546
15	12·84936	12·38137	11·93793	11·51741	11·11838	10·73954	10·37965	9·71234	9·10791
16	13·57770	13·05500	12·56110	12·09416	11·65229	11·23401	10·83776	10·10589	9·44664
17	14·29187	13·71219	13·16611	12·65172	12·16586	11·70719	11·27406	10·47725	9·76322
18	14·99203	14·35336	13·75331	13·18068	12·63929	12·15099	11·68058	10·82760	10·02008
19	15·67846	14·97889	14·32379	13·70983	13·13393	12·60329	12·08532	11·15811	10·33559
20	16·35143	15·58916	14·87747	14·21240	13·58032	13·00793	12·46221	11·46992	10·69401
21	17·01120	16·18454	15·41502	14·69794	14·02915	13·40472	12·82115	11·76407	10·83552
22	17·65804	16·76541	15·93601	15·16712	14·45111	13·78442	13·16300	12·04158	11·06124
23	18·29220	17·33211	16·44360	15·62041	14·85684	14·14777	13·48857	12·30337	11·27218
24	18·91393	17·88498	16·93354	16·05836	15·24686	14·49547	13·79864	12·52035	11·46933
25	19·52345	18·42437	17·41314	16·48151	15·62207	14·82820	14·09394	12·78335	11·65358
26	20·12103	18·95061	17·87684	16·89035	15·98276	15·14661	14·37518	13·00316	11·82577
27	20·70689	19·46401	18·32703	17·28536	16·32958	15·45130	14·64303	13·21053	11·98670
28	21·28127	19·96488	18·76410	17·66701	16·66306	15·74387	14·89812	13·40616	12·13711
29	21·84438	20·45354	19·18845	18·03576	16·98371	16·02188	15·14107	13·59072	12·27767
30	22·39645	20·93029	19·60044	18·39204	17·29203	16·28888	15·37245	13·76483	12·40904
31	22·93770	21·39540	20·00042	18·73627	17·58849	16·54439	15·59281	13·92908	12·53181
32	23·46833	21·84917	20·38874	19·06886	17·87355	16·78889	15·80265	14·08404	12·64855
33	23·98856	22·29188	20·76579	19·39020	18·14764	17·02286	16·00254	14·23022	12·75379
34	24·49859	22·72378	21·13181	19·70068	18·41119	17·24675	16·19294	14·36814	12·85400
35	24·99861	23·14515	21·48722	20·00066	18·66461	17·46101	16·37419	14·49824	12·94767
36	25·48884	23·55623	21·83225	20·29049	18·90828	17·66604	16·54683	14·62098	13·03320
37	25·96945	23·95731	22·16722	20·57052	19·14257	17·86225	16·71128	14·73678	13·11701
38	26·44064	24·34860	22·49241	20·84108	19·36786	18·04959	16·86789	14·84601	13·19347
39	26·90258	24·73034	22·80821	21·10249	19·58448	18·22965	17·01704	14·94907	13·26492
40	27·35547	25·10277	23·11477	21·35507	19·79277	18·40158	17·15908	15·04629	13·33170
41	27·79948	25·46612	23·41239	21·59910	19·99305	18·56610	17·29436	15·13801	13·39412
42	28·23479	25·82060	23·70132	21·83488	20·18562	18·72354	17·42320	15·22454	13·45244
43	28·66156	26·16544	23·98194	22·06268	20·37079	18·87421	17·54591	15·30617	13·50696
44	29·07996	26·50384	24·25437	22·28279	20·54884	19·01838	17·66277	15·38318	13·55790
45	29·49015	26·83307	24·51871	22·49545	20·72003	19·15634	17·77406	15·45583	13·60552
46	29·89231	27·15416	24·77544	22·70091	20·88465	19·28837	17·88006	15·52436	13·65002
47	30·28658	27·46748	25·02470	22·89943	21·04293	19·41470	17·98101	15·58902	13·69160
48	30·67311	27·77313	25·26670	23·09124	21·19513	19·53560	18·07715	15·65002	13·73047
49	31·05207	28·07136	25·50162	23·27656	21·34147	19·65129	18·16872	15·70757	13·76879
50	31·42360	28·36231	25·72076	23·45561	21·48218	19·76200	18·25592	15·76186	13·80074

AN-
NUITIES.TABLE III. Showing the annuity that 1*l*. will purchase for any number of years, not exceeding fifty ; at different rates of interest from 2 to 7 per Cent.AN-
NUITIES.

No. of Years.	2 per Cent.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	7 per Cent.
1	1-02000	1-02500	1-03000	1-03500	1-04000	1-04500	1-05000	1-06000	1-07000
2	-51504	-51882	-52261	-52640	-53019	-53399	-53778	-54543	-55309
3	-34672	-35013	-35353	-35693	-36034	-36377	-36720	-37410	-38105
4	-26262	-26581	-26902	-27225	-27549	-27874	-28201	-28859	-29522
5	-21216	-21524	-21835	-22148	-22462	-22779	-23097	-23739	-24389
6	-17832	-18154	-18459	-18766	-19076	-19387	-19701	-20336	-20979
7	-15451	-15749	-16050	-16354	-16660	-16970	-17281	-17913	-18555
8	-13650	-13946	-14245	-14547	-14852	-15160	-15472	-16103	-16746
9	-12251	-12545	-12843	-13144	-13449	-13757	-14069	-14702	-15348
10	-11132	-11425	-11723	-12024	-12329	-12637	-12950	-13584	-14237
11	-10217	-10510	-10807	-11109	-11414	-11724	-12038	-12679	-13335
12	-09455	-09748	-10046	-10348	-10655	-10966	-11282	-11927	-12590
13	-08811	-09104	-09402	-09706	-10014	-10327	-10645	-11296	-11965
14	-08260	-08553	-08852	-09157	-09466	-09782	-10102	-10758	-11434
15	-07782	-08076	-08376	-08682	-08994	-09311	-09634	-10296	-10979
16	-07365	-07659	-07961	-08268	-08582	-08901	-09226	-09895	-10585
17	-06960	-07252	-07559	-07874	-08195	-08521	-08854	-09544	-10242
18	-06670	-06967	-07270	-07581	-07899	-08223	-08554	-09253	-09961
19	-06378	-06676	-06981	-07294	-07613	-07940	-08274	-08982	-09695
20	-06112	-06414	-06721	-07036	-07358	-07687	-08024	-08738	-09459
21	-05878	-06178	-06487	-06803	-07128	-07460	-07799	-08509	-09228
22	-05663	-05964	-06274	-06593	-06919	-07254	-07597	-08304	-09020
23	-05466	-05769	-06081	-06401	-06730	-07068	-07413	-08127	-08841
24	-05287	-05591	-05904	-06227	-06558	-06898	-07247	-07967	-08681
25	-05122	-05427	-05742	-06067	-06401	-06743	-07095	-07822	-08541
26	-04969	-05276	-05593	-05920	-06256	-06602	-06956	-07690	-08416
27	-04829	-05137	-05456	-05785	-06123	-06471	-06829	-07569	-08292
28	-04698	-05008	-05329	-05660	-06001	-06352	-06712	-07455	-08179
29	-04577	-04889	-05211	-05544	-05887	-06242	-06604	-07357	-08081
30	-04464	-04777	-05101	-05437	-05783	-06139	-06505	-07264	-07988
31	-04359	-04673	-04999	-05337	-05685	-06044	-06413	-07179	-07907
32	-04261	-04576	-04904	-05244	-05594	-05956	-06328	-07090	-07822
33	-04168	-04485	-04815	-05157	-05514	-05884	-06249	-07027	-07764
34	-04081	-04400	-04732	-05075	-05433	-05798	-06175	-06955	-07697
35	-04000	-04320	-04653	-04999	-05357	-05727	-06107	-06897	-07643
36	-03923	-04245	-04580	-04928	-05288	-05660	-06043	-06843	-07591
37	-03850	-04174	-04511	-04861	-05223	-05598	-05983	-06793	-07547
38	-03782	-04107	-04445	-04798	-05163	-05540	-05928	-06743	-07503
39	-03717	-04043	-04384	-04738	-05106	-05485	-05876	-06698	-07465
40	-03655	-03983	-04326	-04682	-05052	-05434	-05827	-06658	-07432
41	-03597	-03926	-04271	-04629	-05001	-05386	-05782	-06619	-07392
42	-03541	-03872	-04219	-04579	-04954	-05340	-05739	-06583	-07358
43	-03488	-03821	-04169	-04532	-04908	-05298	-05699	-06553	-07333
44	-03438	-03773	-04122	-04487	-04866	-05258	-05661	-06520	-07303
45	-03390	-03726	-04078	-04445	-04826	-05220	-05625	-06500	-07279
46	-03343	-03682	-04036	-04405	-04788	-05184	-05592	-06471	-07255
47	-03301	-03640	-03996	-04366	-04752	-05150	-05561	-06444	-07235
48	-03260	-03600	-03957	-04330	-04718	-05118	-05531	-06419	-07218
49	-03220	-03562	-03921	-04296	-04685	-05088	-05503	-06396	-07203
50	-03182	-03525	-03886	-04263	-04655	-05060	-05477	-06374	-07185

AN-
NUITIES.
Life annuities.

§ H. Of life annuities.

10. Life annuities are of that class which we have called contingent annuities, and, indeed, they form the principal part of them; for, although an annuity may be made to depend upon certain other contingencies beside the duration of life, yet such is seldom the case, and it will be unnecessary here to enter upon any such speculation.

By a life annuity is to be understood, the payments which depend upon the continuance of any given life, or lives, and they may be distinguished into two principal classes; viz. those to commence immediately, and those which are to commence at some future period, or reversionary life annuities.

The value of a life annuity is, properly, that sum which will be sufficient, when improved at interest, to pay the annuity without loss; if, therefore, we were certain as to the duration of the life on which the annuity depends, this doctrine would be immediately reduced to principles in every respect the same as those we have just examined; and on the contrary, without some data derived from tables of mortality, it would be impossible to establish any principle of computation whatever.

But numerous tables of this kind have been kept in different places, and from these we may deduce such information, as to render the calculation at least approximately correct; for, although with regard to any one life the result may be very different from the actual value, yet where many lives are concerned, these results correct each other, and approach so much the nearer to a medium value.

Principles
of compo-
sition.

11. In order to apprise the reader, in some measure, of the principles upon which the doctrine of life annuities are made to depend; we may take the following example:—Observations show that, according to the mean probability of human life, the expectation of a life, aged 10, is nearly *fourty* years; that is to say, of any number of lives all of this age, they will, one with another, enjoy 40 years of existence, or which is the same, taking a specific number as 100, the sum of all their ages before they become extinct, will be $40 \times 100 = 4000$; and, in a similar manner, the expectation of a life at any other age is computed, from tables such as those to which we have just alluded.

Expectation
of life.

It must not, however, be understood from what has been above stated, that the value of an annuity upon a life aged 10, is the same as that of an annuity certain for 40 years; we shall see hereafter, that supposing the annuity to be *H* and interest allowed at 4 per cent. the value of such a life annuity is only 177. 10s. 6d. whereas it will be found by the tables given for annuities certain, that its value for 40 years is 194. 16s. The principal reason for this, is the difference between the value of forty payments of an annuity to be made every year regularly one after the other, till in 40 years they are all made; and the value of the same number of payments to be made at greater distances of time, and not to be all made till the end of 70 or 80 years. Or it may, perhaps, be more intelligibly illustrated thus: suppose a person to grant a number, say 100 of such annuities, upon as many lives, each aged 10; of those lives, some will fall very soon, others will live to 50, and others to a greater age; of those that live to 50, the exact value will have been paid; but of those that fall early, the difference between their actual value, and

that at which they were granted, will have the advantage of accumulating longer at compound interest, than would have been contemplated in computing for an annuity certain for 40 years; consequently, upon the whole, a less sum will purchase an annuity upon a life whose expectation of existence is 40 years, than would purchase an annuity certain for the same period. In general it may be assumed, that one-half nearly of the payments on a certain number of life annuities will be made after the expiration of a term of years equal to the expectation of the lives, and that this half having a longer time for accumulation than that indicated by the expectation, the value of such annuities must be less than the value of annuities to be paid regularly every year for a time equal to the expectation. The proper deduction arising from this consideration, or rather the correct method of computing such annuities, will form the subject of a subsequent article; but let us first offer a few remarks relative to the tables to which we have alluded; such are our Tables IV. and V.

AN-
NUITIES.

12. The nature of these tables will be readily comprehended, without being particularly described; it will be sufficient to observe, that the second column shows the number of persons supposed to be living of any given age, and the third the number that will die in the course of the following year, and which, therefore, deducted from the first, will show the number living at the beginning of the succeeding year. Thus we see, that in Table V. of 11,650 children born, 3,000 will die before the expiration of the first year; of the number, 8,650 which live to the age of one year; 1,367 will die before they attain the age of two years; and so on for any other ages. In this table, the whole number of lives are supposed to become extinct in 97 years; in Table IV. the duration of life is limited to 95 years.

Explana-
tion of
Table IV.
and V.

13. The next succeeding tables, viz. VI. and VII. exhibit the expectation of life for the several ages there specified; it is formed from the preceding ones, upon the principles we have already referred to, that is, by computing the whole number of years that all the several lives of any given age will amount to, and dividing that sum by the number living at that age; or, more simply, by dividing the sum of all the living in the table at the age whose expectation is required, and at all greater ages, by the number living of the proposed age, adding $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$ to the quotient; the result will be the expectation sought.

Table of ex-
pectations
of life.

The expectation is, of course, different according to the tables of mortality from which it is deduced, and unfortunately these differ very essentially from each other; we have selected those of Dr. Parcenn and Dr. Price; the former is generally considered as offering the best medium results, but that of Dr. Price is, notwithstanding, more generally consulted in the valuation of annuities in this country.

On the value of life annuities.

14. The computation of the value of life annuities is, the doctrine as we have already remarked, dependent on the doctrine of probabilities; it will, therefore, be proper to make a few such remarks on the latter subject as will be sufficient to explain the method of proceeding in the case in question.

The doc-
trine of pro-
babilities.

For this we may observe, that if there are a ways all possible in which a thing may happen, and *a* ways, in which it may take place in a certain manner, then the

AN.
NUITIES.

probability that it will take place in that manner is expressed by $\frac{a'}{a}$; thus, if there are 20 black and 30

white balls in a bag, and the probability of drawing a black ball be required, it will be expressed by $\frac{2}{5}$, or $\frac{2}{5}$; and if any sum depended upon that event, the value of the chance, or of the expectation before drawing, would be $\frac{2}{5}$ ths of that sum; if, for example, 100*l.* is to be paid upon condition that event take place; the value of the expectation would be $\frac{2}{5}$ of 100 = 40*l.* So, also, if a sum of money is to be paid to a person, supposing him to survive one year, the value of that expectation will be expressed by the quotient of the tabular number of persons living at the end of the year, divided by the number living at the beginning of it. Thus, the probability a person, aged 75, has of living a year, is $\frac{7527}{832}$; and any sum whose payment depends upon this life continuing one year, will be reduced in the above proportion; that is, if the sum was 832*l.* the expectation would only be worth 752*l.* So that, generally, if *a* denote the number of persons living at any age, *A*, and *a'*, *a''*, *a'''*, &c. the number living each succeeding year, the fractions

$$\frac{a'}{a}, \frac{a''}{a}, \frac{a'''}{a}, \&c.$$

will be the probability of that person living one year, two years, three years, &c.

Again, we learn from the doctrine of probabilities that, if $\frac{a'}{a}$ denote the prospect of an event taking place, and $\frac{b'}{b}$ the probability of another independent event also happening, then the probability that both will happen,

is $\frac{a'}{a} \times \frac{b'}{b} = \frac{a'b'}{ab}$; and so on, for any number of

such independent events. If, therefore, a sum of money is to be paid at the end of a year, providing two persons of a given age are living (let us, for example, suppose one of 75 and the other 60), the probability that they will both live the year, will be $\frac{752}{832} \times \frac{1956}{2038}$. If there were three lives, it would be

the product of three such fractions; and so on for any greater number. In all these cases the value of the sum in expectation is reduced in the same proportion.

This being premised, we may proceed to the solution of the following fundamental proposition.

PROBLEM I.

15. To find the value of an annuity granted upon any number of lives; that is, for as long as they shall all continue in being together.

Value on
joint lives.

Let *A*, *B*, *C*, &c. be the lives upon which the annuity is granted; and let the probability of each life continuing 1, 2, 3, &c. years be, as denoted above,

$\frac{a'}{a}, \frac{a''}{a}, \&c., \frac{b'}{b}, \frac{b''}{b}, \frac{b'''}{b}, \&c., \frac{c'}{c}, \frac{c''}{c}, \&c.$; then it follows, from what has been stated above, that the probability of all the lives continuing to the end of

the first year, will be $\frac{a'b'c'}{abc}$, &c. which, being multi-

plied by $\frac{1}{1+r}$, the value of 1*l.* certain, at the end of

AN.
NUITIES.

the year (see art. 6.), will produce $\frac{a'b'c'}{(1+r)abc}$, for the present value of the first year's rent.

And on the same principle we deduce all the following results; viz.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{a'b'c', \&c.}{(1+r)abc} &= \text{present value of 1st payment;} \\ \frac{a''b''c'', \&c.}{(1+r)^2abc} &= \text{2d payment;} \\ \frac{a'''b'''c''', \&c.}{(1+r)^3abc} &= \text{3d payment;} \\ \&c. &= \&c. \\ \frac{a^{(n)}b^{(n)}c^{(n)}, \&c.}{(1+r)^nabc} &= \text{nth payment.} \end{aligned}$$

This series will continue till such time as that $a^{(n)}$ (supposing *a* to be the oldest life) shall become zero; that is, the number of terms *n* will be equal to the number of years between the oldest of the given lives, and the age of the oldest life in the table of observations; consequently, the sum

$$\left\{ \frac{a'b'c', \&c.}{(1+r)abc} + \frac{a''b''c'', \&c.}{(1+r)^2abc} + \frac{a'''b'''c''', \&c.}{(1+r)^3abc} + \&c. \right\}$$

$\frac{a^{(n)}b^{(n)}c^{(n)}, \&c.}{(1+r)^nabc}$ will be the present value of the annuity sought.

16. This formula is general for any number of lives; Simplified. and may be rendered, in the case of one or two lives, *ten of also* much more simple; thus, if we suppose only one life *A*, it becomes

$$\frac{1}{a} \left\{ \frac{a'}{1+r} + \frac{a''}{(1+r)^2} + \frac{a'''}{(1+r)^3} + \&c. \frac{a^{(n)}}{(1+r)^n} \right\}.$$

For two lives, it is

$$\frac{1}{ab} \left\{ \frac{a'b'}{1+r} + \frac{a''b''}{(1+r)^2} + \frac{a'''b'''}{(1+r)^3} + \&c. \frac{a^{(n)}b^{(n)}}{(1+r)^n} \right\}.$$

For three lives, it is

$$\frac{1}{abc} \left\{ \frac{a'b'c'}{1+r} + \frac{a''b''c''}{(1+r)^2} + \frac{a'''b'''c'''}{(1+r)^3} + \&c. \frac{a^{(n)}b^{(n)}c^{(n)}}{(1+r)^n} \right\}$$

As the numbers *a'*, *b'*, *c'*; *a''*, *b''*, *c''*, &c. are subject to no determinate law, it is obvious that there can be no rule given for summing these series; they must be computed by actually substituting the numbers proper to the case in question, and then collecting the sum of all the terms; which will be the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on the lives proposed; and this, therefore, multiplied by any given annuity, will give its present value. It is on this principle that Tables IX. and X. have been computed, deduced from the observations made at Northampton, and which we shall again refer to in a subsequent page.

VII. When the annuity is deferred.

17. If the annuity is not to commence till after a

AN-
NUITIES.
Deferred
life annu-
ties.

certain number of years, and then only on conditions, that the lives on which it is granted still all exist; the value of it may be determined by means of the series

$$\frac{1}{a b c, \&c.} \left\{ \frac{a' b' c'}{1+r} + \frac{a'' b'' c''}{(1+r)^2} + \frac{a''' b''' c'''}{(1+r)^3} + \&c. \right\};$$

$$\frac{a^{(n)} b^{(n)} c^{(n)}}{(1+r)^n} + \frac{a' \beta' \gamma'}{(1+r)^{n+1}} + \frac{a'' \beta'' \gamma''}{(1+r)^{n+2}} + \&c. \left\{ \right\};$$

where $a', a'', a'''; \beta', \beta'', \beta'''; \gamma', \gamma'', \gamma'''; \&c.$ represent the number living after $n, n+1, n+2, \&c.$

For it is obvious that the second part of the series will be the value of such an annuity; and the first part, continued to n terms, the value of an annuity on the same lives for the first n years; the two parts together, or the whole series, being the value of an annuity to commence immediately.

According to this solution, however, we cannot avail ourselves of the tables above referred to, at least only for the whole series; so that we should have still to calculate the value of the first terms, or those which correspond to the assumed temporary annuity: it is best, therefore, to proceed according to the following rule.

Find the value of an annuity on the same number of lives, each as many years older than the given lives, as are equal to the number of years during which the annuity is deferred. Find also the expectation of the given lives surviving to the end of the time during which the annuity is deferred, and the product of these two quantities will be the value required.

The method of determining the value of a temporary contingent annuity, which is represented by the leading terms, or first part, of the preceding series, will immediately suggest itself to the reader, without any particular remark. It is the difference between the value of the whole series, and that of the deferred annuity, determined by the above rule.

PROBLEM II.

Annuity
on the
longest of a
given num-
ber of lives.

18. To find the value of an annuity granted upon the longest of any number of lives; that is, for as long as any one of them is in existence.

Let A, B, C be the lives upon which the annuity is granted; let the probability of each life continuing 1, 2, 3, &c. years be denoted as in Problem I; then the probability that some one or other of these will live to the end of the first year is

$$1 - \frac{a-a'}{a} \times \frac{b-b'}{b} \times \frac{c-c'}{c}, \&c.;$$

for the probability that A will die is $\frac{a-a'}{a}$; that B will

die is $\frac{b-b'}{b}$; that C will die is $\frac{c-c'}{c}$; and, therefore,

that they will all die is

$$\frac{a-a'}{a} \times \frac{b-b'}{b} \times \frac{c-c'}{c};$$

and that they will not all die, or, which is the same, that one at least will be living, is the difference between unity, or certainty, and the above product; that is,

$$1 - \frac{a-a'}{a} \times \frac{b-b'}{b} \times \frac{c-c'}{c};$$

or, which is the same,

$$1 - \left(1 - \frac{a'}{a}\right) \left(1 - \frac{b'}{b}\right) \left(1 - \frac{c'}{c}\right), \&c. =$$

$$\frac{a'}{a} + \frac{b'}{b} + \frac{c'}{c} - \frac{a' b'}{a b} - \frac{a' c'}{a c} - \frac{b' c'}{b c} + \frac{a' b' c'}{a b c};$$

which being multiplied by $\frac{1}{1+r}$, or $(1+r)^{-1}$, the

present value of 1*l.* certain at the year's end will give the present value of the first year's expectation.

We shall have, therefore, for the successive values,

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} + \frac{b'}{b} + \frac{c'}{c} - \left(\frac{a' b'}{a b} + \frac{a' c'}{a c} + \frac{b' c'}{b c} \right) + \frac{a' b' c'}{a b c} \right\} = 1st\ year;$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)} \left\{ \frac{a''}{a} + \frac{b''}{b} + \frac{c''}{c} - \left(\frac{a'' b''}{a b} + \frac{a'' c''}{a c} + \frac{b'' c''}{b c} \right) + \frac{a'' b'' c''}{a b c} \right\} = 2d, \&c. \&c.;$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^n} \left\{ \frac{a^{(n)}}{a} + \frac{b^{(n)}}{b} + \frac{c^{(n)}}{c} + \&c. \right\} = nth;$$

and the sum of all these series will be the expectation sought.

Now the reader will readily observe, by comparing this general expression with those found in Problem I, that the first collateral column denotes the value of an annuity on the life of A , the second on that of B , the third on that of C ; the fourth, fifth, and sixth, respectively, the value on the lives A and B , A and C , B and C , and the seventh, or last, that on A, B , and C together; that is, the value of an annuity on the longest of three given lives, is equal to the value of three annuities on each of the separate lives, *minus* the value of three annuities on each two of the lives combined, *plus* the value of an annuity on all three lives. Or,

19. Supposing $(A), (B), (C)$ to denote the value of the annuities on A, B, C respectively; $(AB), (AC), (BC)$, the values of the annuities on A and B together, A and C together, and B and C together; also (ABC) , the value of the annuity on A, B , and C together; then the value of the annuity on the longest of the three lives is equal to

$(A) + (B) + (C) - (AB) - (AC) - (BC) + (ABC)$; whence the same tables, which exhibit the values of annuities on the joint lives of two or three persons, may also be employed in computing the value of an annuity on the longest of those lives.

Some examples illustrating these formulae will be found immediately preceding the following tables.

Of reversionary life annuities.

20. By reversionary life annuities the reader is to understand those annuities which are not payable to a given life or lives, till after some other life or lives become extinct; those which are to commence after a certain number of years, may be distinguished by the term *deferred annuities*. Such are those to which we have alluded in a preceding article.

AN-
NUITIES.

AN-
NUITIES.
Annuity
depending
on the ex-
tinction of
other lives.

PROBLEM III.

21. To find the value of an annuity depending on any number of joint lives A, B, C, &c. after the extinction of any other number of joint lives P, Q, R, &c.

We shall, for the sake of abridging the work, confine our investigation to two lives only, A, B; and two others, P, Q; but it will be obvious that the same process will apply to any number.

Let now the probabilities of three joint lives, attaining to 1, 2, 3, &c. years, be denoted, as above, by $\frac{a'b'}{ab}$, $\frac{a'b''}{ab}$, $\frac{a'b'''}{ab}$, &c. $\frac{p'q'}{pq}$, $\frac{p''q'}{pq}$, $\frac{p'''q'}{pq}$, &c.

Then it is obvious that the chance which the joint lives A, B have of receiving the annuity after one year, will depend upon their living to the end of that year, and on the joint lives P, Q becoming extinct before the end of that period. The former, from what we have seen, is denoted by $\frac{a'b'}{ab}$, and the latter by

$\left(1 - \frac{p'q'}{pq}\right)$ (see the last proposition); consequently,

the prospect that both will take place, is $\frac{a'b'}{ab} \left(1 - \frac{p'q'}{pq}\right)$; and the value of the first payment becomes

$$\begin{aligned} (1+r)^{-1} \frac{a'b'}{ab} \left(1 - \frac{p'q'}{pq}\right), & \text{ or } \\ \frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'b'}{ab} - \frac{a'b'p'q'}{abpq} \right\} & = 1\text{st year;} \\ \frac{1}{(1+r)^2} \left\{ \frac{a'b''}{ab} - \frac{a'b''p'q'}{abpq} \right\} & = 2\text{d year;} \\ \frac{1}{(1+r)^3} \left\{ \frac{a'b'''}{ab} - \frac{a'b''p'q'}{abpq} \right\} & = 3\text{d year;} \\ & \&c. \end{aligned}$$

The sum of these is, therefore, the value sought, which is obviously equal to the difference between the value of an annuity on the joint lives of A, B together, minus that on A, B, P, Q together.

We may, therefore, in these computations, still avail ourselves of the same tables.

Particular
cases.

Our limits will not admit of our following out the investigation of the other cases of reversionary annuities to the same extent; but upon principles precisely similar to those employed in the foregoing problems, it may be shown,

1. That the value of an annuity on a single life A, after another single life P, is expressed
(A) - (AP).
2. On a single life A, after the longest of two lives P, Q, by
(A) - (AP) - (AQ) + (APQ).
3. On the longest of two lives A, B, after a single life P, by
(A) + (B) - (AB) - (AP) - (BP) + (ABP).
4. On a single life A, after two joint lives P, Q, by
(A) - (APQ).
5. On two joint lives A, B, after a single life P, by
(AB) - (ABP).

We shall illustrate the use of these results in the solution of the subsequent practical questions.

AN-
NUITIES.

Of survivorships.

22. The doctrine of survivorships is one of a mixed nature, and admits of a great variety of combinations; we must, of course, confine ourselves to only a few of those cases which most commonly occur.

In the cases we have hitherto examined, we have only considered the value of annuities, as depending upon the continuance of certain lives; or of a certain number out of any proposed lives; we now intend to compute their value, as depending upon any specified survivorship between them; and consequently the questions become so much the more embarrassing, and admit, as we have said above, of greater variety. Those of most common application are as follow:

PROBLEM IV.

23. An annuity is granted upon the longest of three given lives A, B, C, to be equally divided amongst them while they are all living; equally between the two survivors, when one life fails, and the whole by the longest liver, during his life. Required the value of their respective expectations; their ages being given.

Let the prospect of the given lives continuing 1, 2, 3, &c. years be still denoted as in the foregoing problems; and let us first determine A's expectation.

The expectation of A, as to what he may happen to receive at the end of any one year, may be considered in four parts. First, A, B, C may be all living; the probability of which is $\frac{a'b'c'}{abc}$; in which case he will receive $\frac{1}{3}$ of the annuity; and, consequently,

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \times \frac{a'b'c'}{3abc} = \text{the value of this expectation.}$$

Secondly, A and B may be living, and C dead; the probability that this will take place by the end of the

first year is $\frac{a'b'}{ab} \left(1 - \frac{c'}{c}\right)$; in which case he will

receive one half of the annuity, or $\frac{1}{2(1+r)}$; therefore,

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)} \times \frac{a'b'}{2ab} \left(1 - \frac{c'}{c}\right) = \text{value of 2d expectation.}$$

Thirdly, A and C may be living, and B dead, which gives precisely as above,

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \times \frac{a'c'}{2ac} \left(1 - \frac{b'}{b}\right) = \text{value of 3d expectation.}$$

Lastly, B and C may be both dead, and A living; the probability of which is

$$\frac{a'}{a} \times \left(1 - \frac{b'}{b}\right) \left(1 - \frac{c'}{c}\right).$$

In this case, A will receive the whole annuity. We have therefore,

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b'}{ab} - \frac{a'c'}{ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{abc} \right\} = 4\text{th ex-}$$

pectation.

By adding these several values together, we find

$$\text{ANNUITIES.} \quad \frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b}{2ab} - \frac{a'c}{2ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{abc} \right\} = \text{whole}$$

Problems.

expectation first year.

In the same manner, we find the value of the expectation of the second payment, viz.

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^2} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b}{2ab} - \frac{a'c}{2ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{abc} \right\} = \text{whole}$$

expectation second year; and so on for the 3d, 4th, &c. years.

By observing that the vertical column of a series of terms, such as the above, denotes the value on single and joint lives, as explained in the foregoing problems, and using the same symbols to express the values of these lives, we shall find the expectation in the case in question, equal to

$$(A) - \frac{1}{2}(AB) - \frac{1}{2}(AC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC).$$

In the same manner, B's expectation is

$$(B) - \frac{1}{2}(BA) - \frac{1}{2}(BC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC);$$

and that of C is

$$(C) - \frac{1}{2}(AC) - \frac{1}{2}(CB) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC).$$

If there are but two lives A and B, to divide the annuity equally while both are living, and the survivor to enjoy it whole, then we shall have A's expectation equal to

$$(A) - \frac{1}{2}(BA),$$

and B's equal

$$(B) - \frac{1}{2}(AB).$$

PROBLEM V.

Problems.

24. An annuity is granted on three lives, as follows: A and B are to enjoy it equally while they are both living; and on the death of either, A and C, or B and C are to have it equally shared between them; and, finally, on the death of either of these, the survivor is to enjoy the whole. Required the value of their respective expectations.

Here the value of A's expectation may be considered in three parts.

1. A and B may be both living, the probability of which $\frac{a'b}{ab}$, in which case A receives $\frac{1}{2}$ the annuity; and the value of this expectation is

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \times \frac{a'b}{2ab}.$$

Secondly, A and C may be living, and C dead; the value of which expectation is

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \times \frac{a'c}{2ac} \left(1 - \frac{b'}{b}\right).$$

Lastly, B and C may be both dead, and A living; the probability of this is

$$\frac{a'}{a} \left(1 - \frac{b'}{b}\right) \left(1 - \frac{c'}{c}\right);$$

and the value of the expectation becomes

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b}{ab} - \frac{a'c}{ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{abc} \right\};$$

whence, the sum of the three, or the whole expectation of A, is, for the first year, second year, &c.

$$\frac{1}{1+r} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b}{2ab} - \frac{a'c}{2ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{2abc} \right\} = 1 \text{st year;}$$

$$\frac{1}{(1+r)^2} \left\{ \frac{a'}{a} - \frac{a'b}{2ab} - \frac{a'c}{2ac} + \frac{a'b'c'}{2abc} \right\} = 2 \text{d year; ANNUITIES.}$$

&c.

&c.

whence, using the preceding notation, A's expectation may be expressed by

$$(A) - \frac{1}{2}(AB) - \frac{1}{2}(AC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC).$$

In the same way, B's expectation is worth

$$(B) - \frac{1}{2}(AB) - \frac{1}{2}(BC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC);$$

while that of C is only worth

$$(C) - \frac{1}{2}(AC) - \frac{1}{2}(BC).$$

25. Various other cases of survivorships might be proposed, and investigated; we must, however, be contented to mention only the following, with the corresponding results, leaving the investigations to be supplied by the reader; or we may refer him to Bailey's *Doctrine of Life Annuities and Assurances*, the most scientific work that has yet appeared on those subjects.

A, B, and C agree to purchase an annuity on the longest of their lives, to be divided amongst them in the following manner: A and B are to enjoy it equally during their joint lives; if A die first, then B and C are to enjoy it equally during their joint lives, and the survivor of them to have the whole; but if B die first, then A is to enjoy the whole during his life; and after his decease, it is to devolve wholly to C.

The value of the several expectations, according to these conditions, are

$$\text{of A's} = (A) - \frac{1}{2}(AB),$$

$$\text{of B's} = (B) - \frac{1}{2}(AB) - \frac{1}{2}(BC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC),$$

$$\text{of C's} = (C) - \frac{1}{2}(AC) - \frac{1}{2}(BC) + \frac{1}{4}(ABC).$$

A, B, C purchase an annuity on the longest of their lives, which is to be enjoyed wholly by each of them in succession; that is, A is to enjoy it first for his whole life; at his decease, if B be living, he is to enter upon it; and, finally, on his decease, it reverts to C.

Here we have the expectations as follow:

$$A's = (A),$$

$$B's = (B) - (AB),$$

$$C's = (C) - (AC) - (BC) + (ABC).$$

Illustration of the preceding deductions, solution of various problems, &c.

26. Such of our readers as are familiar with the use of algebraical formulae, will find no difficulty in submitting those we have deduced from our investigations to the solution of any problem which falls within their range; others, however, will doubtless prefer seeing those deductions in words at length; which we propose to exhibit in this section.

PROBLEM I.

To find the probability that a life or lives, of any given age, will continue in being to the end of any given term.

For a single life, the probability is a fraction whose denominator is the number of persons living at a given age; and whose numerator is the number of persons living at an age older by the given term than the given age.

Which is expressed by our formula $\frac{a-n}{a}$ where a is the number of persons living at the proposed age, & n 2

ANNUITIES. and $a^{(n)}$ the number existing any given number of years (n) after that period.

Illustrations by examples. In the case of joint lives, it is the product of the probabilities that each of the single lives shall continue in being to the end of the given term.

Expectation of life. Ex. 1. Let it be proposed to find the probability that two persons, one aged 20, and the other 40, shall individually and jointly live 30 years. Using De Parcieux's result, Table IV.

We find here that the probability of A living 30 years is $\frac{581}{814}$; that B will live the same time is $\frac{310}{657}$; and that they will both continue in existence to the end of the proposed term, is

$$\frac{581}{814} \times \frac{310}{657} = \frac{180110}{534798}$$

In the same manner, the probability of any other number of lives continuing in existence for a given term, may be determined.

If the probability were required that either one or both the lives, will be in existence at the end of the proposed period, we may find the probability of their both dying within the given time; and subtract that result from unity, viz.

Divide the number of persons which die within the given number of years, by the number living at the proposed ages, and the product of the fractions is the probability of their both dying; the difference between which and unity will be the probability sought.

PROBLEM II.

27. To find the value of a sum to be received at the end of a given term, providing a given life or lives be then in existence.

Value of a contingency.

Find the value of an annuity certain to be received at the end of the given term, and the probability of the given life or lives. The product will be the present value of the expectation; this is expressed by our formula

$$\text{value} = \frac{1}{(1+r)^n} \times \frac{a^{(n)}}{a} \times \frac{b^n}{b}$$

Ex. 2. A person, aged 20, is entitled to 1,000*l.* thirty years hence, providing he is then in existence, what is the value of his expectation in a present sum? Reckoning interest at 4*½* per cent. and using De Parcieux's Table of Expectations, viz. Table IV.

By our Table II. it appears that the present worth of 1,000*l.* certain, at the end of 30 years, is 267*l.*; and the probability of a person, 20, living thirty years, is $\frac{581}{814}$; therefore

$$\frac{581}{814} \times 267\text{£} = \text{£}190\text{--}6, \text{ or } 190\text{£ } 12\text{s.}$$

We must proceed in the same way, if the payment depended upon the continuance of more than one life; for instance, if the payment depended upon the joint lives computed in Prob. I, the expectation would be

$$\frac{180110}{534798} \times 267\text{£}$$

Ex. 3. Again, let it be required to determine what sum a father ought to pay down to ensure to his child, now 11 years of age, 100*l.* when he arrives at 21,

providing he is then living, taking interest at 5 per cent. and using still the same Table IV. of De Parcieux's.

The present value of 100*l.* sixteen years hence, at 5 per cent. is, by Table II. equal to 61-391.

The expectation of life is $\frac{806}{872}$; consequently,

$$\frac{806}{872} \times 61\text{--}391 = \text{£}50\text{--}744, \text{ or } 50\text{£ } 14\text{s. } 10\text{d.}$$

PROBLEM III.

28. To find the value of an annuity on a single life.

We have already shown the principle upon which Value of an annuity on single lives; it remains, therefore, here merely to explain the use of our Table IX. for rendering the operation more easy, or indeed for determining the required value from simple inspection. Various tables have been computed for this purpose, founded on different observations on the mortality of mankind; as we could not, from the nature of our work, introduce all such tables, we have preferred those of Dr. Price, which are formed upon observations made at Northampton, being, as we have elsewhere observed, those most commonly had recourse to in this country.

Rule. Multiply the tabular value by the given annuity, for the present worth sought.

Ex. 4. Required the value of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum, on a life aged 40, allowing 5 per cent. interest.

By Table IX, the value of an annuity of 1*l.* per annum, under the proposed circumstances, is £11-837; wherefore, the value of the proposed annuity is

$$\text{£}11\text{--}837 \times 100 = 1183\text{£ } 14\text{s.}$$

Ex. 5. Required the value of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum, on a life aged 30, interest being allowed at 4 per cent.

By Table IX, the value of an annuity of 1*l.* is £14-781; whence £14-781 \times 100 = 1478*l.* 2*s.*

PROBLEM IV.

29. To find the value of an annuity on two joint lives, the difference of the proposed ages falling within the limits of the differences in the tables.

By inspection in Table X, find the tabular value answering to the given case, and multiply that value by two joint lives.

Ex. 6. What is the value of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum, depending on the joint lives of two persons, one aged 40 and the other 50; interest at 5 per cent.

Here the difference of age is 10 years, and the tabular value is £8-177; wherefore

$$\text{£}8\text{--}177 \times 100 = 817\text{£ } 14\text{s.}$$

Ex. 7. What is the value of an annuity of 100*l.* per annum on two joint lives, each being 30; interest 4 per cent.

By Table X, the value of an annuity of 1*l.* is £11-313; whence £11-313 \times 100 = 1131*l.* 6*s.*

PROBLEM V.

30. To find the value of an annuity on two joint lives, when the difference of age is not found in the table.

AN-
NUITIES.

Find by the table the value of an annuity on two joint lives, whose difference of age is the next greater than the difference in the proposed lives; and the value of oldest of which is of the same age as the eldest of the proposed lives. Find also by the table, the value of an annuity on two joint lives, whose difference of age is the next less than that just mentioned; and the oldest of which is, in like manner, of the same age with the oldest of the given lives; increase the least of these results by as many fifths of the difference between the two, as the youngest of the proposed lives is less than the second assumed youngest life; and multiply by the annuity for the value sought.

Ex. 8. Let the two lives be 26 and 60, the annuity 100*l.* and interest 5 per cent.

The difference here is 34, and the next greater and less tabular difference is 35 and 30; that is, the values we must look out are for lives of

60 and 25 = 7.382
60 and 30 = 7.292

Diff. = .091

Now 30, the second assumed youngest life, being 4 more than 26, the youngest of the proposed lives, add 4 of .091 = .072 to 7.292, and we obtain £7.365 value of annuity of 1*l.*

Whence £7.365 × 100 = 736*l.* 10*s.* the value sought.

PROBLEM VI.

31. To find the value of three joint lives, where the difference of them is found in the table.

Look out in Table XI the value answering to three given lives, at the corresponding rate of interest, and multiply that tabular value by the proposed annuity, for the value sought.

Ex. 9. Required the value of an annuity on three lives, 30, 40, 50: interest 4 per cent. and annual payment 100*l.*

Opposite 30, 40, 50, we find the value 7.571. Consequently 7.571 × 100 = 757*l.* 2*s.* answer.

If the interest is to bear any other than 4 per cent. and the difference of age is not found in the tables, then the computation must be actually performed according to the principles indicated in (art. 18).

Notc. For the value of deferred and temporary annuities on single and joint lives, we must refer the reader to articles 21 and 22, where the principle of computation is indicated; but it would carry us too far to illustrate all the cases of these kinds, by examples to length.

PROBLEM VII.

32. To find the value of an annuity on the longest of two given lives.

From the sum of the values of an annuity on the two single lives subtract the value of an annuity on the two joint lives: the difference will be the value required.

This is indicated by our expression

$$(A) + (B) - (AB). \quad (\text{See art. 19}).$$

Ex. 10. Required the value of an annuity of 40*l.* per annum on the longest of two lives, 40 and 50: interest 4 per cent.

Value of life 40, is, by Table IX. = 13.197
..... 50, Table IX. = 11.264

Sum 24.461

Value of the joint lives, Table X. = 8.834

Difference = 15.627

Mult. by 40

£625.08 Ans.

AN-
NUITIES.

PROBLEM VIII.

33. To find the value of an annuity on the longest of three lives.

From the sum of the values of annuities on all the single lives subtract the sum of the values of annuities on the joint continuance of every two of those lives, and add the value of an annuity on the three joint lives for the value required.

This is indicated by our expression

$$(A) + (B) + (C) - (AB) - (AC) - (BC) + (ABC). \quad (\text{See art. 19}).$$

Ex. 11. Let the three lives be 30, 40, 50: interest 4 per cent.: annuity 100*l.* per annum.

Value of the life 30 = 14.781
..... 40 = 13.197
..... 50 = 11.067

Sum 39.035

Value of the joint lives 30—40 = 10.490
..... 30—50 = 8.834
..... 40—50 = 9.321

Sum 28.645

Difference of sums = 10.390

Value of the joint lives 30, 40, 50 = 7.571

By adding = 17.961

Mult. by 100

Value sought = 1796.1 = 1796 *£. s.*

We cannot enter further into an illustration of our other deductions; we conceive, however, that the reader can find no difficulty in applying them to the several cases, as we have everywhere reduced them to the finding the values of annuities on single and joint lives, as indicated by the several formulæ.

TABLES, Showing the number of persons who die every year out of a given number, living at the beginning of each year, according to the observations of Dr. PRICE and DE PARCIEUX.

AN-
NUITIES.
Tables of
mortality.

TABLE IV.—DE PARCIEUX'S OBSERVATIONS.						TABLE V.—DR. PRICE'S OBSERVATIONS.					
Age.	Living.	Dead.	Age.	Living.	Dead.	Age.	Living.	Dead.	Age.	Living.	Dead.
1	49	590	9	0	11650	3009			
2	50	581	10	1	8650	1367	49	2936	79
3	1000	30	51	571	11	2	7283	502	50	2857	81
4	970	22	52	560	11	3	6781	335	51	2776	82
5	948	18	53	549	11	4	6446	197	52	2694	82
6	930	15	54	538	12	5	6249	184	53	2612	82
7	915	13	55	526	12	6	6065	140	54	2530	82
8	902	12	56	514	12	7	5925	110	55	2448	82
9	890	10	57	502	13	8	5815	80	56	2366	82
10	880	8	58	489	13	9	5735	66	57	2284	82
11	872	6	59	476	13	10	5675	52	58	2202	82
12	866	6	60	463	13	11	5623	50	59	2120	82
13	860	6	61	450	13	12	5573	50	60	2038	82
14	854	6	62	437	14	13	5523	50	61	1956	82
15	848	6	63	423	14	14	5473	50	62	1874	81
16	842	7	64	409	14	15	5423	50	63	1793	81
17	835	7	65	395	15	16	5373	53	64	1712	80
18	828	7	66	380	16	17	5320	58	65	1632	80
19	821	7	67	364	17	18	5262	63	66	1552	80
20	814	8	68	347	18	19	5199	67	67	1472	80
21	806	8	69	329	19	20	5132	72	68	1392	80
22	798	8	70	310	19	21	5060	75	69	1312	80
23	790	8	71	291	20	22	4985	75	70	1232	80
24	782	8	72	271	20	23	4910	75	71	1152	80
25	774	8	73	251	20	24	4835	75	72	1072	80
26	766	8	74	231	19	25	4760	75	73	992	80
27	758	8	75	211	19	26	4685	75	74	912	80
28	750	8	76	192	19	27	4610	75	75	832	80
29	742	8	77	173	19	28	4535	75	76	752	77
30	734	8	78	154	18	29	4460	75	77	675	73
31	726	8	79	136	18	30	4385	75	78	602	68
32	718	8	80	118	17	31	4310	75	79	534	65
33	710	8	81	101	16	32	4235	75	80	469	63
34	702	8	82	85	14	33	4160	75	81	406	60
35	694	8	83	71	12	34	4085	75	82	346	57
36	686	8	84	59	11	35	4010	75	83	289	55
37	678	7	85	48	10	36	3935	75	84	234	48
38	671	7	86	38	9	37	3860	75	85	186	41
39	664	7	87	29	7	38	3785	75	86	145	34
40	657	7	88	22	6	39	3710	75	87	111	28
41	650	7	89	16	5	40	3635	76	88	83	21
42	643	7	90	11	4	41	3569	77	89	62	16
43	636	7	91	7	3	42	3482	78	90	46	12
44	629	7	92	4	2	43	3404	78	91	34	10
45	622	7	93	2	1	44	3326	78	92	24	8
46	615	8	94	1	1	45	3248	78	93	16	7
47	607	8	95	0	0	46	3170	78	94	9	5
48	609	9				47	3092	78	95	4	3
						48	3014	78	96	1	1
									97	0	0

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ANNUITIES.

631.

TABLES, Showing the expectations of life at different ages, according to the observations of Dr PARCIEUX, Dr. PRICE, and those deduced from observations in London.

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Tables of
the expecta-
tion of life.

TABLE VI.—Dr PARCIEUX.				TABLE VII.—Dr. PRICE.				TABLE VIII.—LONDON.			
Age.	Expecta- tion.	Age.	Expecta- tion.	Age.	Expecta- tion.	Age.	Expecta- tion.	Age.	Expecta- tion.	Age.	Expecta- tion.
1	...	49	21-07	1	32-74	49	18-49	1	27-0	49	16-3
2	...	50	20-38	2	37-79	50	17-99	2	32-0	50	16-0
3	47-71	51	19-73	3	39-55	51	17-50	3	34-0	51	15-6
4	48-17	52	19-11	4	40-58	52	17-02	4	35-6	52	15-2
5	48-27	53	18-48	5	40-84	53	16-54	5	36-0	53	14-9
6	48-20	54	17-85	6	41-07	54	16-06	6	36-0	54	14-5
7	47-98	55	17-25	7	41-03	55	15-58	7	35-8	55	14-2
8	47-66	56	16-64	8	40-79	56	15-10	8	35-6	56	13-8
9	47-30	57	16-02	9	40-36	57	14-63	9	35-2	57	13-4
10	46-83	58	15-44	10	39-78	58	14-15	10	34-8	58	13-1
11	46-26	59	14-84	11	39-14	59	13-68	11	34-3	59	12-7
12	45-58	60	14-25	12	38-49	60	13-21	12	33-7	60	12-4
13	44-89	61	13-65	13	37-83	61	12-75	13	33-1	61	12-0
14	44-20	62	13-04	14	37-17	62	12-28	14	32-5	62	11-6
15	43-51	63	12-43	15	36-51	63	11-81	15	31-9	63	11-2
16	42-82	64	11-86	16	35-85	64	11-35	16	31-3	64	10-8
17	42-17	65	11-26	17	35-20	65	10-88	17	30-7	65	10-5
18	41-52	66	10-69	18	34-58	66	10-42	18	30-1	66	10-1
19	40-87	67	10-14	19	33-99	67	9-96	19	29-5	67	9-8
20	40-22	68	9-61	20	33-43	68	9-50	20	28-9	68	9-4
21	39-62	69	9-11	21	32-90	69	9-05	21	28-3	69	9-1
22	39-00	70	8-64	22	32-39	70	8-60	22	27-7	70	8-8
23	38-40	71	8-17	23	31-88	71	8-17	23	27-2	71	8-4
24	37-78	72	7-73	24	31-36	72	7-74	24	26-6	72	8-2
25	37-17	73	7-31	25	30-85	73	7-33	25	26-1	73	7-8
26	36-55	74	6-90	26	30-33	74	6-92	26	25-6	74	7-5
27	35-93	75	6-50	27	29-82	75	6-54	27	25-1	75	7-2
28	35-39	76	6-10	28	29-30	76	6-18	28	24-6	76	6-8
29	34-69	77	5-71	29	28-79	77	5-83	29	24-1	77	6-4
30	34-06	78	5-36	30	28-27	78	5-48	30	23-6	78	6-0
31	33-29	79	5-00	31	27-76	79	5-11	31	23-1	79	5-5
32	32-80	80	4-69	32	27-24	80	4-75	32	22-7	80	5-0
33	32-16	81	4-39	33	26-72	81	4-41	33	22-3		
34	31-52	82	4-01	34	26-20	82	4-09	34	21-9		
35	30-88	83	3-84	35	25-68	83	3-80	35	21-5		
36	30-23	84	3-62	36	25-16	84	3-58	36	21-1		
37	29-58	85	3-21	37	24-64	85	2-37	37	20-7		
38	28-89	86	2-92	38	24-12	86	3-19	38	20-3		
39	28-18	87	2-67	39	23-60	87	3-01	39	19-9		
40	27-48	88	2-36	40	23-08	88	2-86	40	19-6		
41	26-77	89	2-06	41	22-56	89	2-66	41	19-2		
42	26-06	90	1-77	42	22-04	90	2-41	42	18-8		
43	25-34	91	1-50	43	21-54	91	2-09	43	18-5		
44	24-62	92	1-25	44	21-03	92	1-75	44	18-1		
45	23-89	93	1-00	45	20-52	93	1-37	45	17-8		
46	23-15	94	00	46	20-02	94	1-05	46	17-4		
47	22-45	95		47	19-51	95	-75	47	17-0		
48	21-74	96		48	19-00	96	-50	48	16-7		

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TABLE IX.

Showing the value of an annuity on a single life at every age, deduced from the observations made at Northampton.

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Table of the
value of an-
nuities on
single lives.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	7 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	7 per Cent.
1	16.021	13.465	11.563	10.107	8.963	49	12.693	11.475	10.443	9.563	8.804
2	18.399	15.633	13.420	11.724	10.391	50	12.436	11.234	10.269	9.417	8.683
3	19.575	16.462	14.135	12.348	10.941	51	12.183	11.057	10.097	9.273	8.559
4	20.210	17.010	14.613	12.769	11.315	52	11.930	10.849	9.925	9.129	8.437
5	20.473	17.248	14.825	12.962	11.489	53	11.674	10.637	9.748	8.980	8.311
6	20.727	17.482	15.041	13.156	11.668	54	11.414	10.421	9.567	8.827	8.181
7	20.953	17.611	15.166	13.275	11.777	55	11.150	10.201	9.382	8.670	8.047
8	20.885	17.662	15.222	13.337	11.846	56	10.882	9.977	9.193	8.509	7.909
9	20.812	17.625	15.210	13.335	11.846	57	10.611	9.749	8.999	8.343	7.766
10	20.663	17.523	15.139	13.285	11.809	58	10.337	9.516	8.801	8.173	7.619
11	20.480	17.393	15.043	13.212	11.752	59	10.058	9.280	8.599	7.999	7.468
12	20.283	17.251	14.937	13.130	11.687	60	9.777	9.039	8.392	7.820	7.312
13	20.081	17.103	14.826	13.044	11.618	61	9.493	8.795	8.181	7.637	7.152
14	19.872	16.950	14.710	12.953	11.545	62	9.205	8.547	7.966	7.449	6.968
15	19.657	16.791	14.588	12.857	11.467	63	8.910	8.291	7.742	7.253	6.815
16	19.435	16.625	14.460	12.755	11.384	64	8.611	8.030	7.514	7.052	6.637
17	19.218	16.462	14.334	12.655	11.302	65	8.304	7.761	7.276	6.841	6.449
18	19.013	16.309	14.217	12.562	11.226	66	7.994	7.488	7.034	6.625	6.256
19	18.820	16.167	14.108	12.477	11.157	67	7.682	7.211	6.787	6.405	6.058
20	18.638	16.033	14.007	12.398	11.094	68	7.367	6.940	6.536	6.179	5.855
21	18.470	15.912	13.917	12.329	11.042	69	7.051	6.647	6.281	5.949	5.646
22	18.311	15.797	13.833	12.265	10.993	70	6.734	6.361	6.023	5.716	5.434
23	18.148	15.680	13.746	12.200	10.942	71	6.418	6.075	5.764	5.479	5.218
24	17.983	15.560	13.658	12.132	10.890	72	6.103	5.790	5.504	5.241	5.000
25	17.814	15.438	13.567	12.063	10.836	73	5.789	5.507	5.245	5.004	4.781
26	17.642	15.312	13.473	11.992	10.780	74	5.491	5.230	4.990	4.746	4.565
27	17.467	15.184	13.377	11.917	10.723	75	5.199	4.962	4.744	4.512	4.364
28	17.289	15.053	13.278	11.841	10.669	76	4.925	4.710	4.511	4.326	4.154
29	17.107	14.918	13.177	11.763	10.602	77	4.652	4.457	4.277	4.109	3.952
30	16.922	14.781	13.072	11.682	10.539	78	4.372	4.197	4.035	3.884	3.742
31	16.732	14.639	12.965	11.598	10.473	79	4.077	3.921	3.776	3.641	3.514
32	16.540	14.495	12.854	11.512	10.404	80	3.781	3.643	3.515	3.394	3.281
33	16.343	14.347	12.740	11.423	10.330	81	3.499	3.377	3.263	3.159	3.055
34	16.142	14.195	12.623	11.331	10.260	82	3.229	3.122	3.026	2.926	2.836
35	15.936	14.039	12.502	11.236	10.183	83	2.982	2.887	2.797	2.713	2.632
36	15.725	13.889	12.377	11.137	10.104	84	2.793	2.708	2.627	2.551	2.479
37	15.515	13.716	12.249	11.035	10.021	85	2.620	2.543	2.471	2.402	2.337
38	15.298	13.548	12.116	10.929	9.935	86	2.462	2.393	2.328	2.266	2.207
39	15.075	13.376	11.979	10.819	9.845	87	2.312	2.251	2.193	2.138	2.085
40	14.848	13.197	11.837	10.705	9.753	88	2.185	2.131	2.080	2.031	1.984
41	14.620	13.018	11.695	10.589	9.657	89	2.061	2.017	1.972	1.929	1.882
42	14.391	12.838	11.551	10.473	9.562	90	1.949	1.913	1.873	1.839	1.806
43	14.162	12.657	11.407	10.356	9.466	91	1.801	1.771	1.733	1.700	1.666
44	13.929	12.472	11.258	10.235	9.366	92	1.690	1.671	1.633	1.600	1.566
45	13.692	12.283	11.105	10.110	9.262	93	1.589	1.577	1.539	1.506	1.472
46	13.450	12.089	10.947	9.980	9.154	94	1.496	1.483	1.445	1.412	1.378
47	13.203	11.890	10.784	9.846	9.042	95	1.412	1.400	1.362	1.329	1.295
48	12.951	11.685	10.616	9.707	8.925	96	1.337	1.325	1.287	1.254	1.220

AN-
NUITIES.

ANNUITIES.

633

TABLE X. Showing the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on two joint lives, deduced from observations made at Northampton; the difference of ages being as stated in the leading columns.

AN- NUITIES.	ANNUITIES.					ANNUITIES.				
	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
Difference of age 6 years.	1- 1	9.491	8.252	7.287	6.515	58-58	7.041	6.614	6.234	5.890
	2- 2	12.789	11.107	9.793	8.741	59-59	6.824	6.421	6.062	5.735
	3- 3	14.196	12.325	10.862	9.689	60-60	6.606	6.226	5.888	5.579
	4- 4	15.181	13.185	11.621	10.365	61-61	6.387	6.030	5.712	5.420
	5- 5	15.638	13.591	11.984	10.691	62-62	6.166	5.831	5.533	5.259
	6- 6	16.099	14.005	12.358	11.031	63-63	5.938	5.626	5.347	5.089
	7- 7	16.375	14.224	12.596	11.251	64-64	5.709	5.417	5.158	4.917
	8- 8	16.510	14.399	12.731	11.382	65-65	5.471	5.201	4.960	4.736
	9- 9	16.683	14.596	12.744	11.404	66-66	5.231	4.962	4.759	4.551
	10-10	16.339	14.277	12.605	11.345	67-67	4.990	4.760	4.555	4.363
	11-11	16.142	14.133	12.546	11.249	68-68	4.747	4.537	4.348	4.171
	12-12	15.996	13.966	12.411	11.139	69-69	4.504	4.312	4.140	3.977
	13-13	15.702	13.780	12.268	11.025	70-70	4.261	4.087	3.930	3.781
	14-14	15.470	13.604	12.118	10.899	71-71	4.020	3.862	3.719	3.584
	15-15	15.229	13.411	11.960	10.767	72-72	3.781	3.639	3.510	3.387
	16-16	14.979	13.212	11.793	10.626	73-73	3.548	3.421	3.304	3.193
	17-17	14.737	13.019	11.630	10.489	74-74	3.324	3.211	3.105	3.005
	18-18	14.516	12.841	11.483	10.365	75-75	3.114	3.015	2.917	2.827
	19-19	14.316	12.679	11.351	10.255	76-76	2.926	2.833	2.750	2.668
	Difference of age 5 years.	20-20	14.133	12.535	11.232	10.156	77-77	2.741	2.656	2.583
21-21		13.974	12.409	11.131	10.074	78-78	2.550	2.470	2.410	2.346
22-22		13.830	12.293	11.042	10.002	79-79	2.338	2.271	2.217	2.161
23-23		13.683	12.179	10.951	9.928	80-80	2.132	2.068	2.018	1.969
24-24		13.534	12.062	10.858	9.853	81-81	1.917	1.859	1.827	1.786
25-25		13.383	11.944	10.764	9.776	82-82	1.719	1.661	1.642	1.606
26-26		13.230	11.822	10.667	9.697	83-83	1.538	1.510	1.472	1.441
27-27		13.074	11.699	10.567	9.616	84-84	1.416	1.387	1.357	1.330
28-28		12.915	11.573	10.466	9.533	85-85	1.309	1.339	1.326	1.292
29-29		12.754	11.445	10.362	9.448	86-86	1.218	1.195	1.171	1.149
30-30		12.589	11.313	10.255	9.360	87-87	1.141	1.124	1.098	1.078
31-31		12.422	11.179	10.146	9.270	88-88	1.103	1.030	1.063	1.044
32-32		12.252	11.042	10.034	9.178	89-89	1.036	1.015	1.001	.984
33-33		12.079	10.902	9.919	9.082	90-90	.938	.922	.909	.895
34-34		11.902	10.759	9.801	8.984	91-91	.769	.756	.748	.737
35-35		11.722	10.612	9.680	8.883	92-92	.591	.583	.576	.569
36-36		11.539	10.462	9.555	8.778	93-93	.369	.365	.361	.351
37-37		11.351	10.307	9.427	8.670	94-94	.203	.201	.199	.197
38-38		11.160	10.149	9.294	8.558	95-95	.060	.060	.059	.058
39-39		10.964	9.986	9.158	8.442	96-96	.000	.000	.000	.000
Difference of age 3 years.	40-40	10.764	9.830	9.016	8.323	1- 6	12.347	10.741	9.479	8.467
	41-41	10.565	9.654	8.876	8.202	2- 7	14.461	12.581	11.100	9.911
	42-42	10.369	9.491	8.737	8.083	3- 8	15.300	13.519	11.755	10.495
	43-43	10.175	9.326	8.599	7.965	4- 9	15.809	13.775	12.165	10.869
	44-44	9.978	9.160	8.457	7.843	5-10	15.974	13.933	12.315	11.010
	45-45	9.776	8.990	8.313	7.718	6-11	16.110	14.068	12.447	11.156
	46-46	9.571	8.815	8.162	7.589	7-12	16.137	14.111	12.498	11.192
	47-47	9.362	8.637	8.008	7.455	8-13	16.089	14.089	12.492	11.197
	48-48	9.149	8.453	7.849	7.316	9-14	15.957	13.992	12.421	11.144
	49-49	8.931	8.266	7.686	7.173	10-15	15.762	13.841	12.302	11.048
	50-50	8.714	8.081	7.523	7.030	11-16	15.538	13.664	12.158	10.929
	51-51	8.507	7.900	7.366	6.893	12-17	15.308	13.480	12.009	10.805
	52-52	8.304	7.724	7.213	6.758	13-18	15.066	13.303	11.864	10.685
	53-53	8.096	7.544	7.056	6.620	14-19	14.870	13.130	11.723	10.568
	54-54	7.891	7.362	6.897	6.480	15-20	14.660	12.961	11.585	10.453
	55-55	7.681	7.179	6.735	6.336	16-21	14.457	12.799	11.452	10.342
	56-56	7.470	6.993	6.571	6.190	17-22	14.365	12.646	11.327	10.230
	57-57	7.256	6.805	6.404	6.041					

TABLE X.—continued.

ANNUITIES.										ANNUITIES.				
Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
18-24	14 082	12 500	11 909	10 140	76-81	2 325	2 258	2 195	2 147	76-81	2 325	2 258	2 195	2 147
19-24	13 908	12 361	11 806	10 048	77-82	2 131	2 077	2 013	1 975	77-82	2 131	2 077	2 013	1 975
20-25	13 741	12 229	11 699	9 960	78-83	1 947	1 899	1 838	1 810	78-83	1 947	1 899	1 838	1 810
21-26	13 581	12 105	11 590	9 879	79-84	1 783	1 751	1 750	1 672	79-84	1 783	1 751	1 750	1 672
22-27	13 433	11 987	11 506	9 803	80-85	1 645	1 625	1 573	1 539	80-85	1 645	1 625	1 573	1 539
23-28	13 288	11 866	11 409	9 734	81-86	1 511	1 478	1 447	1 417	81-86	1 511	1 478	1 447	1 417
24-29	13 148	11 743	11 299	9 673	82-87	1 385	1 355	1 329	1 303	82-87	1 385	1 355	1 329	1 303
25-30	13 006	11 618	11 189	9 561	83-88	1 264	1 259	1 235	1 212	83-88	1 264	1 259	1 235	1 212
26-31	12 866	11 489	11 066	9 476	84-89	1 188	1 164	1 145	1 124	84-89	1 188	1 164	1 145	1 124
27-32	12 641	11 359	10 989	9 389	85-90	1 074	1 054	1 038	1 021	85-90	1 074	1 054	1 038	1 021
28-33	12 474	11 225	10 881	9 299	86-91	991	969	969	979	86-91	991	969	969	979
29-34	12 304	11 088	10 769	9 207	87-92	916	906	906	925	87-92	916	906	906	925
30-35	12 131	10 948	10 654	9 113	88-93	848	842	842	861	88-93	848	842	842	861
31-36	11 955	10 805	10 537	9 014	89-94	787	787	787	805	89-94	787	787	787	805
32-37	11 775	10 659	10 416	8 913	90-95	730	730	730	747	90-95	730	730	730	747
33-38	11 592	10 508	10 291	8 808	91-96	676	676	676	692	91-96	676	676	676	692
34-39	11 404	10 354	10 163	8 701	1-11	12 346	10 782	9 544	8 547	1-11	12 346	10 782	9 544	8 547
35-40	11 213	10 196	9 931	8 589	12-12	14 239	12 438	11 010	9 867	12-12	14 239	12 438	11 010	9 867
36-41	11 021	10 037	9 798	8 476	13-13	14 895	13 019	11 528	10 324	13-13	14 895	13 019	11 528	10 324
37-42	10 828	9 877	9 663	8 369	14-14	15 287	13 374	11 850	10 617	14-14	15 287	13 374	11 850	10 617
38-43	10 635	9 716	9 527	8 266	15-15	15 391	13 479	11 954	10 716	15-15	15 391	13 479	11 954	10 716
39-44	10 437	9 550	9 381	8 163	16-16	15 486	13 578	12 052	10 812	16-16	15 486	13 578	12 052	10 812
40-45	10 236	9 381	9 229	8 063	17-17	15 490	13 599	12 083	10 849	17-17	15 490	13 599	12 083	10 849
41-46	10 033	9 210	9 066	7 958	18-18	15 496	13 609	12 090	10 857	18-18	15 496	13 609	12 090	10 857
42-47	9 829	9 037	8 893	7 851	19-19	15 516	13 642	12 106	10 879	19-19	15 516	13 642	12 106	10 879
43-48	9 624	8 863	8 720	7 753	20-20	15 551	13 685	12 131	10 901	20-20	15 551	13 685	12 131	10 901
44-49	9 414	8 683	8 541	7 648	21-21	15 594	13 734	12 164	10 931	21-21	15 594	13 734	12 164	10 931
45-50	9 204	8 503	8 362	7 543	22-22	15 645	13 794	12 204	10 968	22-22	15 645	13 794	12 204	10 968
46-51	8 997	8 326	8 186	7 439	23-23	15 703	13 861	12 250	11 012	23-23	15 703	13 861	12 250	11 012
47-52	8 790	8 147	8 008	7 336	24-24	15 768	13 934	12 301	11 061	24-24	15 768	13 934	12 301	11 061
48-53	8 579	7 965	7 826	7 234	25-25	15 839	14 012	12 357	11 113	25-25	15 839	14 012	12 357	11 113
49-54	8 366	7 780	7 641	7 131	26-26	15 916	14 094	12 417	11 168	26-26	15 916	14 094	12 417	11 168
50-55	8 152	7 593	7 454	7 028	27-27	16 000	14 180	12 480	11 225	27-27	16 000	14 180	12 480	11 225
51-56	7 941	7 400	7 261	6 936	28-28	16 090	14 270	12 548	11 284	28-28	16 090	14 270	12 548	11 284
52-57	7 730	7 205	7 066	6 741	29-29	16 186	14 364	12 620	11 345	29-29	16 186	14 364	12 620	11 345
53-58	7 518	7 009	6 870	6 546	30-30	16 288	14 461	12 696	11 408	30-30	16 288	14 461	12 696	11 408
54-59	7 304	6 804	6 665	6 342	31-31	16 396	14 561	12 775	11 473	31-31	16 396	14 561	12 775	11 473
55-60	7 088	6 598	6 459	6 139	32-32	16 510	14 664	12 857	11 540	32-32	16 510	14 664	12 857	11 540
56-61	6 870	6 405	6 266	5 946	33-33	16 630	14 770	12 941	11 609	33-33	16 630	14 770	12 941	11 609
57-62	6 651	6 200	6 061	5 736	34-34	16 756	14 879	13 036	11 680	34-34	16 756	14 879	13 036	11 680
58-63	6 437	6 000	5 861	5 536	35-35	16 888	14 990	13 134	11 753	35-35	16 888	14 990	13 134	11 753
59-64	6 201	5 767	5 628	5 316	36-36	17 026	15 104	13 235	11 828	36-36	17 026	15 104	13 235	11 828
60-65	5 970	5 558	5 419	5 107	37-37	17 170	15 221	13 339	11 905	37-37	17 170	15 221	13 339	11 905
61-66	5 737	5 335	5 196	4 885	38-38	17 320	15 340	13 445	11 984	38-38	17 320	15 340	13 445	11 984
62-67	5 503	5 101	4 962	4 651	39-39	17 476	15 461	13 553	12 064	39-39	17 476	15 461	13 553	12 064
63-68	5 265	4 863	4 724	4 410	40-40	17 638	15 584	13 664	12 146	40-40	17 638	15 584	13 664	12 146
64-69	5 025	4 623	4 484	4 170	41-41	17 806	15 709	13 777	12 230	41-41	17 806	15 709	13 777	12 230
65-70	4 783	4 383	4 244	3 939	42-42	17 980	15 836	13 891	12 316	42-42	17 980	15 836	13 891	12 316
66-71	4 540	4 140	4 001	3 699	43-43	18 160	15 964	14 007	12 403	43-43	18 160	15 964	14 007	12 403
67-72	4 298	3 898	3 759	3 459	44-44	18 346	16 094	14 124	12 491	44-44	18 346	16 094	14 124	12 491
68-73	4 059	3 659	3 520	3 220	45-45	18 538	16 225	14 242	12 580	45-45	18 538	16 225	14 242	12 580
69-74	3 825	3 425	3 286	2 986	46-46	18 736	16 357	14 357	12 670	46-46	18 736	16 357	14 357	12 670
70-75	3 599	3 199	3 060	2 760	47-47	18 940	16 490	14 473	12 761	47-47	18 940	16 490	14 473	12 761
71-76	3 386	2 986	2 847	2 547	48-48	19 150	16 624	14 590	12 853	48-48	19 150	16 624	14 590	12 853
72-77	3 176	2 776	2 637	2 337	49-49	19 366	16 760	14 708	12 946	49-49	19 366	16 760	14 708	12 946
73-78	2 963	2 563	2 424	2 124	50-50	19 588	16 897	14 827	13 040	50-50	19 588	16 897	14 827	13 040
74-79	2 743	2 343	2 204	1 904	41-51	9 383	8 658	8 023	7 470	41-51	9 383	8 658	8 023	7 470
75-80	2 526	2 126	1 987	1 687										

ANNUITIES.

635

TABLE X.—continued.

AN- NUITIES	Difference of age 10 years.					Difference of age 15 years.					Difference of age 20 years.					AN- NUITIES
	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	
42-52	9 179	8 483	7 875	7 340	12-27	14 323	12 715	11 402	10 314							
43-53	8 975	8 308	7 734	7 208	13-29	14 132	12 564	11 290	10 215							
44-54	8 767	8 130	7 569	7 073	14-29	13 936	12 408	11 153	10 110							
45-55	8 557	7 948	7 411	6 935	15-30	13 734	12 246	11 021	10 001							
46-56	8 344	7 763	7 249	6 793	16-31	13 527	12 078	10 883	9 886							
47-57	8 127	7 574	7 084	6 618	17-32	13 320	11 911	10 746	9 771							
48-58	7 907	7 382	6 915	6 438	18-33	13 121	11 750	10 613	9 660							
49-59	7 684	7 186	6 742	6 314	19-34	12 930	11 595	10 486	9 554							
50-60	7 461	6 989	6 568	6 180	20-35	12 741	11 445	10 363	9 451							
51-61	7 240	6 795	6 395	6 035	21-36	12 567	11 302	10 246	9 354							
52-62	7 021	6 600	6 222	5 880	22-37	12 394	11 163	10 132	9 280							
53-63	6 795	6 359	6 042	5 719	23-38	12 218	11 020	10 015	9 163							
54-64	6 568	6 196	5 890	5 555	24-39	12 038	10 874	9 885	9 063							
55-65	6 334	5 996	5 671	5 384	25-40	11 854	10 725	9 771	8 980							
56-66	6 098	5 774	5 479	5 200	26-41	11 670	10 571	9 647	8 855							
57-67	5 860	5 559	5 283	5 031	27-42	11 486	10 423	9 524	8 751							
58-68	5 621	5 311	5 061	4 819	28-43	11 302	10 272	9 386	8 645							
59-69	5 380	5 121	4 883	4 665	29-44	11 114	10 117	9 267	8 536							
60-70	5 139	4 900	4 680	4 478	30-45	10 923	9 959	9 133	8 424							
61-71	4 898	4 679	4 476	4 289	31-46	10 728	9 797	8 998	8 300							
62-72	4 659	4 458	4 272	4 099	32-47	10 530	9 631	8 858	8 180							
63-73	4 420	4 236	4 066	3 908	33-48	10 327	9 461	8 714	8 066							
64-74	4 186	4 019	3 864	3 719	34-49	10 120	9 286	8 565	7 938							
65-75	3 958	3 806	3 665	3 533	35-50	9 912	9 110	8 415	7 809							
66-76	3 743	3 606	3 477	3 357	36-51	9 707	8 937	8 267	7 681							
67-77	3 529	3 405	3 289	3 180	37-52	9 503	8 763	8 119	7 553							
68-78	3 310	3 199	3 095	2 996	38-53	9 296	8 586	7 966	7 421							
69-79	3 077	2 979	2 887	2 799	39-54	9 085	8 406	7 810	7 286							
70-80	2 843	2 757	2 675	2 598	40-55	8 870	8 221	7 651	7 146							
71-81	2 618	2 542	2 470	2 402	41-56	8 655	8 035	7 489	7 005							
72-82	2 401	2 334	2 271	2 211	42-57	8 439	7 848	7 336	6 862							
73-83	2 199	2 141	2 085	2 032	43-58	8 223	7 660	7 162	6 718							
74-84	2 043	1 991	1 941	1 894	44-59	8 003	7 469	6 994	6 570							
75-85	1 903	1 856	1 811	1 769	45-60	7 781	7 274	6 822	6 416							
76-86	1 781	1 739	1 699	1 661	46-61	7 556	7 076	6 648	6 263							
77-87	1 670	1 633	1 597	1 562	47-62	7 328	6 875	6 469	6 104							
78-88	1 580	1 546	1 514	1 483	48-63	7 093	6 667	6 283	5 937							
79-89	1 456	1 427	1 400	1 373	49-64	6 854	6 454	6 093	5 767							
80-90	1 302	1 278	1 255	1 231	50-65	6 611	6 236	5 897	5 590							
81-91	1 096	1 078	1 061	1 041	51-66	6 369	6 019	5 701	5 412							
82-92	877	864	852	840	52-67	6 127	5 801	5 504	5 233							
83-93	692	681	669	659	53-68	5 884	5 580	5 303	5 050							
84-94	498	493	488	481	54-69	5 638	5 357	5 100	4 864							
85-95	189	187	185	183	55-70	5 391	5 132	4 893	4 674							
86-96	000	000	000	000	56-71	5 115	4 905	4 685	4 482							
					57-72	4 899	4 679	4 477	4 289							
					58-73	4 656	4 455	4 269	4 096							
					59-74	4 418	4 234	4 064	3 906							
					60-75	4 189	4 021	3 866	3 721							
					61-76	3 974	3 821	3 679	3 546							
					62-77	3 780	3 621	3 492	3 371							
					63-78	3 598	3 441	3 297	3 188							
					64-79	3 303	3 192	3 088	2 990							
					65-80	3 063	2 965	2 873	2 786							
					66-81	2 843	2 746	2 664	2 587							
					67-82	2 619	2 533	2 461	2 393							
					68-83	2 403	2 336	2 272	2 211							

TABLE X.—continued.

AN- NUITIES.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	AN- NUITIES.
Difference of age 15 years.	69-84	2'444	2'183	2'126	2'071	45-65	6'850	6'453	6'094	5'769	Difference of age 20 years.
	70-85	2'097	2'042	1'991	1'941	46-66	6'692	6'290	5'894	5'588	
	71-86	1'963	1'914	1'867	1'823	47-67	6'351	6'004	5'690	5'403	
	72-87	1'838	1'794	1'753	1'713	48-68	6'096	5'774	5'481	5'213	
	73-88	1'736	1'697	1'660	1'625	49-69	5'839	5'541	5'268	5'019	
	74-89	1'603	1'570	1'538	1'508	50-70	5'582	5'306	5'054	4'822	
	75-90	1'440	1'413	1'387	1'361	51-71	5'328	5'074	4'841	4'626	
	76-91	1'291	1'260	1'230	1'200	52-72	5'077	4'845	4'630	4'430	
	77-92	'985	'970	'955	'942	53-73	4'829	4'614	4'417	4'234	
	78-93	'706	'697	'688	'679	54-74	4'585	4'389	4'208	4'040	
	79-94	'458	'453	'448	'443	55-75	4'350	4'171	4'006	3'852	
	80-95	'210	'208	'206	'204	56-76	4'129	3'966	3'815	3'674	
	81-96	'000	'000	'000	'000	57-77	3'908	3'761	3'623	3'494	
	1-21	11'413	10'053	8'961	8'070	58-78	3'692	3'549	3'424	3'306	
	2-22	13'172	11'605	10'344	9'313	59-79	3'480	3'332	3'210	3'105	
Difference of age 20 years.	3-23	13'794	12'161	10'843	9'764	60-80	3'197	3'064	2'952	2'859	Difference of age 25 years.
	4-24	14'178	12'511	11'163	10'057	61-81	2'964	2'870	2'782	2'709	
	5-25	14'301	12'633	11'281	10'170	62-82	2'739	2'656	2'579	2'504	
	6-26	14'490	12'754	11'400	10'285	63-83	2'530	2'457	2'387	2'321	
	7-27	14'451	12'758	11'452	10'341	64-84	2'371	2'305	2'242	2'182	
	8-28	14'417	12'786	11'455	10'354	65-85	2'223	2'163	2'107	2'053	
	9-29	14'310	12'710	11'401	10'315	66-86	2'089	2'035	1'984	1'936	
	10-30	14'150	12'586	11'304	10'239	67-87	1'963	1'915	1'870	1'826	
	11-31	13'965	12'441	11'188	10'144	68-88	1'850	1'817	1'777	1'737	
	12-32	13'770	12'296	11'062	10'042	69-89	1'732	1'685	1'650	1'616	
	13-33	13'570	12'125	10'932	9'934	70-90	1'645	1'515	1'486	1'459	
	14-34	13'363	11'959	10'796	9'822	71-91	1'503	1'380	1'359	1'338	
	15-35	13'151	11'747	10'655	9'703	72-92	1'344	1'228	1'212	1'197	
	16-36	12'932	11'509	10'507	9'579	73-93	1'213	1'103	1'093	1'074	
	17-37	12'714	11'330	10'358	9'454	74-94	1'080	1'074	1'069	1'064	
	18-38	12'502	11'257	10'214	9'333	75-95	919	917	915	913	
	19-39	12'297	11'089	10'074	9'215	1-26	11'037	9'770	8'742	7'897	
	20-40	12'096	10'924	9'937	9'100	2-27	12'792	11'264	10'080	9'104	
	21-41	11'906	10'768	9'809	8'992	3-28	13'307	11'790	10'555	9'537	
	22-42	11'723	10'619	9'685	8'889	4-29	13'661	12'116	10'855	9'813	
	23-43	11'540	10'470	9'562	8'785	5-30	13'762	12'220	10'959	9'913	
	24-44	11'354	10'317	9'435	8'670	6-31	13'859	12'322	11'062	10'015	
	25-45	11'164	10'160	9'304	8'569	7-32	13'871	12'350	11'100	10'060	
	26-46	10'970	10'000	9'170	8'455	8-33	13'820	12'323	11'090	10'061	
	27-47	10'773	9'836	9'033	8'338	9-34	13'698	12'234	11'024	10'012	
	28-48	10'572	9'667	8'890	8'217	10-35	13'525	12'098	10'916	9'925	
	29-49	10'366	9'495	8'744	8'092	11-36	13'328	11'941	10'788	9'820	
	30-50	10'160	9'321	8'596	7'966	12-37	13'120	11'773	10'651	9'707	
	31-51	9'957	9'151	8'451	7'841	13-38	12'906	11'600	10'509	9'588	
	32-52	9'756	8'980	8'306	7'716	14-39	12'686	11'430	10'360	9'464	
	33-53	9'550	8'806	8'157	7'588	15-40	12'459	11'234	10'206	9'333	
	34-54	9'342	8'629	8'005	7'457	16-41	12'229	11'044	10'046	9'198	
	35-55	9'131	8'448	7'849	7'322	17-42	12'002	10'856	9'889	9'065	
	36-56	8'916	8'264	7'690	7'183	18-43	11'785	10'677	9'739	8'958	
	37-57	8'699	8'076	7'527	7'041	19-44	11'574	10'502	9'592	8'814	
	38-58	8'477	7'884	7'360	6'894	20-45	11'367	10'330	9'448	8'692	
	39-59	8'253	7'659	7'169	6'744	21-46	11'167	10'165	9'310	8'574	
	40-60	8'025	7'430	6'965	6'560	22-47	10'969	10'001	9'173	8'458	
	41-61	7'796	7'200	6'758	6'374	23-48	10'768	9'833	9'031	8'338	
	42-62	7'567	7'008	6'589	6'226	24-49	10'562	9'661	8'886	8'214	
	43-63	7'332	6'801	6'407	6'112	25-50	10'356	9'488	8'739	8'089	
	44-64	7'095	6'671	6'289	5'994	26-51	10'154	9'318	8'595	7'966	

ANNUITIES.

637

TABLE X.—continued.

ANNUITIES.						ANNUITIES.					
Agos.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.		Agos.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	
27-52	9 952	9 148	8 451	7 842	Difference of age 20 years.	11-41	12 580	11 342	10 302	9 420	
28-53	9 748	8 975	8 304	7 716		12-42	12 363	11 165	10 156	9 298	
29-54	9 540	8 799	8 153	7 586		13-43	12 144	10 985	10 007	9 173	
30-55	9 329	8 619	7 999	7 453		14-44	11 918	10 799	9 852	9 042	
31-56	9 115	8 436	7 841	7 316		15-45	11 697	10 607	9 690	8 908	
32-57	8 897	8 250	7 680	7 175		16-46	11 448	10 408	9 522	8 762	
33-58	8 677	8 060	7 515	7 031		17-47	11 210	10 208	9 353	8 617	
34-59	8 454	7 866	7 346	6 884		18-48	10 975	10 011	9 186	8 473	
35-60	8 227	7 669	7 174	6 734		19-49	10 746	9 818	9 041	8 339	
36-61	7 997	7 469	6 998	6 577		20-50	10 523	9 630	8 861	8 185	
37-62	7 765	7 265	6 819	6 418		21-51	10 313	9 454	8 712	8 067	
38-63	7 532	7 053	6 631	6 252		22-52	10 111	9 284	8 569	7 944	
39-64	7 291	6 838	6 440	6 081		23-53	9 905	9 111	8 421	7 818	
40-65	7 050	6 614	6 240	5 901		24-54	9 696	8 934	8 270	7 688	
41-66	6 776	6 368	6 037	5 718		25-55	9 484	8 754	8 116	7 555	
42-67	6 522	6 159	5 831	5 532		26-56	9 269	8 570	7 958	7 419	
43-68	6 266	5 929	5 602	5 343		27-57	9 051	8 383	7 797	7 279	
44-69	6 008	5 696	5 411	5 150		28-58	8 830	8 193	7 632	7 135	
45-70	5 749	5 460	5 195	4 953		29-59	8 605	7 999	7 464	6 988	
46-71	5 488	5 222	4 978	4 753		30-60	8 378	7 802	7 292	6 837	
47-72	5 228	4 983	4 758	4 551		31-61	8 147	7 601	7 116	6 682	
48-73	4 970	4 746	4 539	4 348		32-62	7 914	7 397	6 937	6 524	
49-74	4 716	4 511	4 322	4 146		33-63	7 673	7 186	6 750	6 359	
50-75	4 472	4 285	4 112	3 951		34-64	7 429	6 971	6 559	6 189	
51-76	4 245	4 074	3 916	3 768		35-65	7 177	6 747	6 360	6 010	
52-77	4 019	3 864	3 720	3 586		36-66	6 922	6 520	6 156	5 827	
53-78	3 787	3 648	3 518	3 396		37-67	6 663	6 288	5 948	5 639	
54-79	3 540	3 416	3 299	3 189		38-68	6 401	6 052	5 735	5 446	
55-80	3 291	3 180	3 076	2 976		39-69	6 137	5 813	5 518	5 249	
56-81	3 051	2 953	2 861	2 774		40-70	5 871	5 571	5 298	5 047	
57-82	2 820	2 733	2 651	2 574		41-71	5 605	5 329	5 076	4 844	
58-83	2 608	2 530	2 457	2 388		42-72	5 341	5 087	4 854	4 640	
59-84	2 446	2 376	2 310	2 247		43-73	5 081	4 848	4 634	4 436	
60-85	2 297	2 234	2 174	2 118		44-74	4 826	4 613	4 417	4 235	
61-86	2 162	2 105	2 051	2 000		45-75	4 575	4 380	4 206	4 040	
62-87	2 036	1 985	1 937	1 891		46-76	4 348	4 171	4 006	3 853	
63-88	1 929	1 886	1 843	1 802		47-77	4 115	3 954	3 805	3 666	
64-89	1 790	1 751	1 714	1 678		48-78	3 875	3 731	3 596	3 469	
65-90	1 666	1 635	1 604	1 575		49-79	3 619	3 490	3 369	3 256	
66-91	1 554	1 530	1 507	1 485		50-80	3 369	3 247	3 140	3 039	
67-92	1 463	1 447	1 430	1 415		51-81	3 117	3 015	2 920	2 829	
68-93	1 370	1 360	1 350	1 340		52-82	2 883	2 792	2 707	2 627	
69-94	1 287	1 282	1 275	1 268		53-83	2 665	2 585	2 510	2 438	
70-95	1 212	1 210	1 205	1 200		54-84	2 501	2 428	2 360	2 295	
71-96	1 146	1 146	1 143	1 140		55-85	2 349	2 284	2 222	2 164	
					Difference of age 30 years.	56-86	2 211	2 153	2 097	2 044	
1-31	10 605	9 438	8 483	7 691		57-87	2 082	2 030	1 980	1 932	
2-32	12 203	10 865	9 767	8 855		58-88	1 975	1 928	1 883	1 841	
3-33	12 743	11 355	10 213	9 263		59-89	1 888	1 838	1 795	1 753	
4-34	13 061	11 651	10 488	9 518		60-90	1 841	1 788	1 747	1 707	
5-35	13 136	11 732	10 572	9 602		61-91	1 382	1 358	1 334	1 311	
6-36	13 207	11 812	10 656	9 687		62-92	1 105	1 088	1 071	1 055	
7-37	13 198	11 819	10 676	9 715		63-93	785	774	764	754	
8-38	13 193	11 772	10 648	9 701		64-94	606	600	594	589	
9-39	13 201	11 665	10 565	9 637		65-95	520	520	516	514	
10-40	13 211	11 513	10 442	9 537		66-96	400	400	400	400	

ANNUITIES.

TABLE X.—continued.

AN-NUTRIES.					AN-NUTRIES.				
Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1-36	10.104	9.047	8.173	7.442	59-94	.511	.505	.499	.494
2-37	11.600	10.392	9.390	8.551	60-95	.523	.520	.522	.526
3-38	12.057	10.038	9.300	8.928	61-96	.500	.500	.500	.500
4-39	12.302	11.007	10.043	9.157					
5-40	12.405	11.130	10.102	9.319	1-41	9.523	8.585	7.800	7.135
6-41	12.146	11.203	10.163	9.283	2-42	10.907	9.939	8.942	8.182
7-42	12.412	11.190	10.165	9.296	3-43	11.343	10.468	9.315	8.558
8-43	12.324	11.130	10.124	9.270	4-44	11.578	10.700	9.531	8.753
9-44	12.174	11.013	10.031	9.197	5-45	11.597	10.700	9.571	8.778
10-45	11.976	10.851	9.900	9.068	6-46	11.610	10.528	9.609	8.693
11-46	11.756	10.697	9.774	8.902	7-47	11.550	10.491	9.589	8.615
12-47	11.525	10.481	9.592	8.827	8-48	11.435	10.401	9.544	8.767
13-48	11.288	10.284	9.425	8.686	9-49	11.290	10.263	9.402	8.673
14-49	11.045	10.080	9.252	8.538	10-50	11.044	10.085	9.260	8.548
15-50	10.799	9.872	9.076	8.386	11-51	10.816	9.864	9.100	8.411
16-51	10.554	9.665	8.899	8.244	12-52	10.582	9.698	8.914	8.270
17-52	10.313	9.461	8.724	8.083	13-53	10.344	9.497	8.763	8.123
18-53	10.076	9.260	8.552	7.934	14-54	10.100	9.260	8.586	7.970
19-54	9.845	9.063	8.383	7.788	15-55	9.851	9.077	8.402	7.912
20-55	9.617	8.869	8.216	7.643	16-56	9.595	8.858	8.214	7.648
21-56	9.394	8.679	8.053	7.502	17-57	9.340	8.639	8.024	7.481
22-57	9.174	8.491	7.891	7.362	18-58	9.089	8.432	7.835	7.316
23-58	8.951	8.299	7.735	7.218	19-59	8.841	8.207	7.648	7.153
24-59	8.725	8.104	7.556	7.070	20-60	8.597	7.995	7.462	6.990
25-60	8.495	7.906	7.383	6.919	21-61	8.357	7.787	7.281	6.830
26-61	8.263	7.704	7.207	6.764	22-62	8.119	7.580	7.100	6.670
27-62	8.028	7.499	7.027	6.605	23-63	7.874	7.365	6.910	6.503
28-63	7.785	7.286	6.839	6.439	24-64	7.636	7.147	6.717	6.331
29-64	7.539	7.069	6.648	6.268	25-65	7.370	6.990	6.515	6.151
30-65	7.296	6.844	6.447	6.089	26-66	7.110	6.689	6.309	5.966
31-66	7.028	6.615	6.243	5.905	27-67	6.847	6.454	6.098	5.776
32-67	6.768	6.382	6.033	5.717	28-68	6.581	6.215	5.883	5.581
33-68	6.504	6.146	5.820	5.524	29-69	6.313	5.973	5.664	5.383
34-69	6.239	5.906	5.603	5.326	30-70	6.043	5.729	5.442	5.180
35-70	5.971	5.663	5.382	5.125	31-71	5.772	5.483	5.218	4.974
36-71	5.703	5.419	5.150	4.920	32-72	5.502	5.236	4.992	4.767
37-72	5.435	5.174	4.934	4.714	33-73	5.233	4.991	4.766	4.559
38-73	5.169	4.930	4.710	4.507	34-74	4.973	4.749	4.543	4.353
39-74	4.908	4.690	4.488	4.301	35-75	4.730	4.516	4.327	4.152
40-75	4.656	4.457	4.272	4.101	36-76	4.481	4.285	4.123	3.962
41-76	4.430	4.238	4.069	3.912	37-77	4.242	4.073	3.916	3.770
42-77	4.184	4.019	3.865	3.722	38-78	3.996	3.844	3.702	3.570
43-78	3.942	3.794	3.655	3.525	39-79	3.734	3.598	3.471	3.352
44-79	3.695	3.552	3.428	3.312	40-80	3.469	3.349	3.236	3.130
45-80	3.436	3.308	3.197	3.093	41-81	3.216	3.100	3.009	2.914
46-81	3.176	3.072	2.973	2.881	42-82	2.973	2.878	2.789	2.705
47-82	2.936	2.843	2.766	2.673	43-83	2.750	2.666	2.587	2.511
48-83	2.714	2.632	2.554	2.481	44-84	2.581	2.505	2.433	2.365
49-84	2.544	2.470	2.400	2.334	45-85	2.424	2.356	2.291	2.230
50-85	2.388	2.322	2.258	2.198	46-86	2.282	2.221	2.162	2.107
51-86	2.248	2.188	2.131	2.077	47-87	2.148	2.093	2.041	1.991
52-87	2.117	2.063	2.012	1.963	48-88	2.036	1.987	1.941	1.895
53-88	2.006	1.960	1.914	1.870	49-89	1.882	1.840	1.800	1.761
54-89	1.858	1.817	1.778	1.740	50-90	1.685	1.651	1.619	1.590
55-90	1.666	1.633	1.601	1.570		1.417	1.391	1.367	1.343
56-91	1.492	1.377	1.353	1.330		1.130	1.113	1.095	1.079
57-92	1.190	1.102	1.085	1.069		.801	.790	.780	.770
58-93	.794	.784	.773	.763		.544	.545	.503	.498

ANNUITIES.

639

TABLE X.—continued.

AN-
NUITIES.

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
55-95	234	232	230	228	49-91	519	512	507	501
55-96	000	000	000	000	50-95	235	233	231	229
					51-96	000	000	000	000
1-46	8988	8071	7379	6787	1-51	8171	7479	6885	6370
2-47	10147	9221	8435	7760	2-52	9300	8580	7849	7264
3-48	10515	9566	8759	8065	3-53	9611	8815	8128	7529
4-49	10697	9744	8932	8230	4-54	9751	8957	8269	7668
5-50	10679	9742	8941	8248	5-55	9707	8931	8256	7665
6-51	10664	9745	8956	8271	6-56	9659	8902	8241	7662
7-52	10586	9680	8919	8248	7-57	9549	8817	8176	7619
8-53	10458	9591	8841	8188	8-58	9395	8691	8073	7527
9-54	10276	9442	8718	8085	9-59	9191	8519	7927	7403
10-55	10055	9256	8560	7951	10-60	8952	8314	7750	7250
11-56	9814	9052	8386	7801	11-61	8696	8092	7557	7081
12-57	9566	8830	8203	7643	12-62	8433	7863	7357	6905
13-58	9312	8622	8015	7479	13-63	8161	7615	7147	6719
14-59	9053	8399	7821	7310	14-64	7884	7381	6931	6527
15-60	8790	8170	7622	7135	15-65	7597	7127	6705	6325
16-61	8521	7935	7416	6953	16-66	7304	6866	6472	6115
17-62	8252	7700	7208	6770	17-67	7012	6604	6236	5903
18-63	7981	7462	6998	6583	18-68	6721	6343	6001	5689
19-64	7714	7226	6789	6396	19-69	6434	6084	5765	5476
20-65	7444	6986	6576	6205	20-70	6149	5826	5532	5262
21-66	7177	6749	6364	6015	21-71	5870	5572	5300	5050
22-67	6911	6512	6151	5824	22-72	5595	5321	5070	4840
23-68	6643	6271	5934	5628	23-73	5323	5072	4841	4628
24-69	6372	6027	5713	5427	24-74	5056	4827	4615	4419
25-70	6099	5780	5489	5223	25-75	4799	4589	4396	4216
26-71	5826	5532	5263	5016	26-76	4536	4365	4188	4024
27-72	5554	5283	5035	4807	27-77	4313	4140	3979	3829
28-73	5284	5036	4808	4597	28-78	4064	3908	3762	3626
29-74	5019	4792	4583	4390	29-79	3798	3659	3528	3406
30-75	4764	4557	4365	4188	30-80	3530	3406	3290	3181
31-76	4523	4335	4160	3997	31-81	3274	3161	3060	2963
32-77	4282	4111	3952	3804	32-82	3027	2929	2839	2751
33-78	4035	3881	3737	3602	33-83	2800	2713	2632	2555
34-79	3771	3633	3505	3384	34-84	2597	2519	2446	2376
35-80	3506	3383	3268	3160	35-85	2408	2336	2271	2208
36-81	3251	3142	3040	2944	36-86	2232	2160	2100	2043
37-82	3005	2909	2818	2733	37-87	2077	2013	1957	1902
38-83	2779	2694	2613	2537	38-88	1932	1872	1822	1772
39-84	2567	2490	2417	2348	39-89	1797	1742	1696	1654
40-85	2366	2297	2231	2166	40-90	1671	1621	1581	1544
41-86	2176	2113	2056	2000	41-91	1554	1509	1474	1444
42-87	2000	1942	1893	1844	42-92	1446	1406	1376	1346
43-88	1835	1782	1739	1694	43-93	1346	1311	1286	1261
44-89	1681	1633	1595	1564	44-94	1254	1224	1204	1184
45-90	1537	1495	1460	1435	45-95	1169	1144	1124	1109
46-91	1401	1365	1335	1310	46-96	1090	1070	1050	1030
47-92	1272	1242	1215	1189					
48-93	1150	1122	1095	1076					

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Difference of age 45 years.

Difference of age 50 years.

ANNUITIES.

TABLE XI.

Showing the value of an annuity on three joint lives, each of the same age, deduced from the Northampton observations.

AN- NUITIES.		Common Age.	4 per Cent.	Common Age.	4 per Cent.	Common Age.	4 per Cent.	Common Age.	4 per Cent.	Common Age.	4 per Cent.	Common Age.	4 per Cent.	AN- NUITIES.
1	5.309	17	10.845	33	8.648	49	6.482	65	3.914	81	1.245			
2	8.251	18	10.656	34	8.718	50	6.317	66	3.733	82	1.092			
3	9.632	19	10.490	35	8.585	51	6.161	67	3.550	83	0.949			
4	10.661	20	10.342	36	8.448	52	6.011	68	3.366	84	0.860			
5	11.170	21	10.222	37	8.309	53	5.859	69	3.181	85	0.782			
6	11.707	22	10.118	38	8.165	54	5.705	70	2.995	86	0.716			
7	12.058	23	10.012	39	8.017	55	5.550	71	2.810	87	0.662			
8	12.266	24	9.905	40	7.865	56	5.393	72	2.627	88	0.616			
9	12.298	25	9.796	41	7.714	57	5.235	73	2.448	89	0.614			
10	12.300	26	9.685	42	7.567	58	5.076	74	2.277	90	0.563			
11	12.043	27	9.572	43	7.423	59	4.916	75	2.119	91	0.452			
12	11.865	28	9.457	44	7.276	60	4.755	76	1.985	92	0.337			
13	11.678	29	9.340	45	7.126	61	4.593	77	1.855	93	0.185			
14	11.481	30	9.221	46	6.972	62	4.432	78	1.720	94	0.085			
15	11.274	31	9.099	47	6.813	63	4.263	79	1.563	95	0.015			
16	11.056	32	8.975	48	6.650	64	4.093	80	1.400	96	0.000			

TABLE XII.

Showing the value of an annuity on three joint lives, whose difference of ages are 10 and 20 years, deduced from the Northampton observations.

Ages.	4 per Cent.	Ages.	4 per Cent.	Ages.	4 per Cent.	Ages.	4 per Cent.	Ages.	4 per Cent.
1-11-21	8.637	16-26-36	9.564	31-41-51	7.430	46-56-66	4.965	61-71-81	2.224
2-12-22	9.914	17-27-37	9.429	32-42-52	7.372	47-57-67	4.782	62-72-82	2.044
3-13-23	10.344	18-28-38	9.278	33-43-53	7.123	48-58-68	4.597	63-73-83	1.875
4-14-24	10.598	19-29-39	9.131	34-44-54	6.971	49-59-69	4.408	64-74-84	1.743
5-15-25	10.655	20-30-40	8.986	35-45-55	6.816	50-60-70	4.219	65-75-85	1.623
6-16-26	10.708	21-31-41	8.850	36-46-56	6.658	51-61-71	4.032	66-76-86	1.519
7-17-27	10.700	22-32-42	8.718	37-47-57	6.497	52-62-72	3.847	67-77-87	1.425
8-18-28	10.634	23-33-43	8.586	38-48-58	6.332	53-63-73	3.660	68-78-88	1.350
9-19-29	10.562	24-34-44	8.451	39-49-59	6.164	54-64-74	3.477	69-79-89	1.248
10-20-30	10.438	25-35-45	8.313	40-50-60	5.994	55-65-75	3.298	70-80-90	1.128
11-21-31	10.305	26-36-46	8.171	41-51-61	5.827	56-66-76	3.128	71-81-91	.951
12-22-32	10.170	27-37-47	8.027	42-52-62	5.662	57-67-77	2.959	72-82-92	.767
13-23-33	10.031	28-38-48	7.878	43-53-63	5.494	58-68-78	2.785	73-83-93	.548
14-24-34	9.887	29-39-49	7.725	44-54-64	5.322	59-69-79	2.598	74-84-94	.362
15-25-35	9.736	30-40-50	7.571	45-55-65	5.145	60-70-80	2.408	75-85-95	.169

ANNUITIES.

Assurance on lives.

Their advantages to society.

§ III. Assurances.

34. When a person purchases for himself an annuity, during his natural life, or if the purchase be made for an annuity depending upon the joint continuance of two or more given lives, or on the longest of any given lives, he may be said to have assumed an annuity under the specified conditions; and thus far we have, therefore, already entered upon the subject of assurances; but what is most commonly understood by this term, is, when a certain sum of money is to be paid, or a certain annuity to commence upon the extinction of some specified life; on condition of the insurer either paying down a certain gross sum, or making a certain yearly payment, to be continued during his life, or in any other manner that may be agreed upon between the parties.

We have already observed, that the doctrine of annuities must always be considered a subject of the first importance, in a commercial state like that of Great Britain; but that of assurances, we conceive, according to the definition we have given of the term, to involve a still greater number of interests. When we consider the thousands of families in this country, who are living in a state of comparative affluence, without possessing any, or very little, disposable property; whose income, in fact, depends almost entirely on the exertions of the head of the family, and with the extinction of whose life every source of income ceases; when we contemplate the poverty and distress in which many widows, with their helpless children, would be plunged by such an event, we cannot estimate too highly the advantages which are held out by those societies, who, on honourable principles, furnish the means whereby every provident father and husband may, in part, avert the consequences of a premature death; to which every one is liable, and against which event every man ought to be provided. Perhaps, no part of the civil economy of this country shows more decidedly the high moral state of the middling classes of the people, than the immense amount of life assurances effected in the different offices of the metropolis, and in those of like local companies in several of the counties in England; nor, perhaps, can we have a stronger instance of the high degree of confidence that the people are disposed to place in the moral rectitude of the government; by far the greater part of the capital of the companies to which we have alluded being invested under government securities.

A subject of such importance ought to be well understood, and every means ought to be taken to reduce it to accurate computation. This, however, is not a very easy task; the data must be formed from bills of mortality, such as we have alluded to in the preceding part of this article; and these bills, as we have remarked, are subject to great irregularity, the consequence of which is, that very different results will be obtained, according to the tables from which the computations are made. If the assurances are set at too high a rate, the insurer is injured instead of being benefited; and if too low, the company, after a few years, must cease to be effective, and the persons depending on its stability, are ultimately involved in all the distress they were endeavouring to avert. The most eligible plan, therefore, and that which is adopted by many assurance companies, is to assure at rather a high than at a low rate, and then from time to time to

increase the value of the assurance, as the prospects of the society improve: we have no hesitation in asserting, that this is the most eligible, and the only fair method of conducting the business of such offices.

This being premised, we shall proceed to explain the principles upon which the computations ought to be made, after a just table of data has been established. The method here to be pursued, for determining the value of any sum, depending on the extinction of any given life or lives, is materially different from that which has been employed in the preceding cases, as will appear in the following problem:

PROBLEM I.

35. To determine the present value of a given sum, payable at the end of the year, in which any given lives become extinct.

Let us denote, as in the preceding articles, the given lives by A, B, C, and the prospect of each living 1, 2, 3, &c. years, by

$$\frac{a'}{a}, \frac{a''}{a}, \frac{a'''}{a}, \&c. \quad \frac{b'}{b}, \frac{b''}{b}, \frac{b'''}{b}, \&c. \quad \frac{c'}{c}, \frac{c''}{c}, \&c.$$

and let the given sum to be received be s . Now, the probability of life being denoted as above, the prospect of the three lives continuing for one year will be

$$\frac{a' b' c'}{a b c};$$

and consequently that they do not all continue a year will be

$$1 - \frac{a' b' c'}{a b c} = \frac{a b c - a' b' c'}{a b c}$$

In like manner, the probability of the joint lives failing the second year is

$$\frac{a' b' c' - a'' b'' c''}{a b c};$$

the third year

$$\frac{a'' b'' c'' - a''' b''' c'''}{a b c}, \&c.$$

If now we observe that the value of a sum (s), certain at the end of 1, 2, 3, &c. years, is

$$s(1+r)^{-1}, s(1+r)^{-2}, s(1+r)^{-3}, \&c.$$

we shall have for the value of the whole expectation

$$\begin{aligned} & s(1+r)^{-1} \times \frac{a b c - a' b' c'}{a b c} + \\ & s(1+r)^{-2} \times \frac{a' b' c' - a'' b'' c''}{a b c} + \\ & s(1+r)^{-3} \times \frac{a'' b'' c'' - a''' b''' c'''}{a b c} + \&c. \end{aligned}$$

which may be more concisely expressed in the two following series: viz.

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{s}{a b c (1+r)} \times \left\{ a b c + \frac{a' b' c'}{(1+r)} + \frac{a'' b'' c''}{(1+r)^2} + \&c. \right\} \\ & - \frac{s}{a b c} \times \left\{ \frac{a' b' c'}{(1+r)} + \frac{a'' b'' c''}{(1+r)^2} + \&c. \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Now, by referring to art. 16, it will appear, that if we denote the value of an annuity on three joint lives by

$$\frac{4}{M}$$

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NUITIES. (ABC), as in the preceding part of this article, the first of the above series is expressed by

$$\frac{s}{1+r} \times \{1 + (ABC)\},$$

and the second by $s \times (ABC)$;

whence the difference

$$s \left\{ \frac{1 + (ABC)}{1+r} - (ABC) \right\} = s \times \frac{1-r(ABC)}{1+r}$$

will be the value sought, which may be given in words as follow:

Illustrated
by example. 36. Multiply the value of an annuity on the given lives, whether they are joint lives, or on the longest of any given lives, or a single life, by the rate of interest on $1l.$ and subtract the product from unity. Divide the remainder by the amount of $1l.$ in one year, and the quotient multiplied by the given sum will be the present value sought; or the premium which must be paid to assure the sum under the proposed conditions.

Ex. 1. What sum ought a person, aged 30, to pay down to ensure 100*l.* to his executors at his death, taking interest at 5 per cent. and according to the Northampton tables?

The value of an annuity of $1l.$ on a life aged 30, at 5 per cent. is, by Table IX. 14.007:

$$\text{Mult. by } .05$$

$$1 - .70035 = .29965$$

Amount of $1l.$ for one year = 1.05 ; whence

$$100 \times \frac{.29965}{1.05} = 28.538, \text{ or } 28l. 10s. 9d.$$

Ex. 2. Let there be two joint lives, one of 30, and the other 30, to find the value of 100*l.* payable on the death of either: interest being allowed at 4 per cent. The value of an annuity on the two joint lives, at the given rate of interest, is, by Table X. = 11.873:

$$\text{Mult. by } .04$$

$$1 - .47492 = .52508$$

$$100 \times \frac{.52508}{1.04} = 50l. 9s. 9d.$$

PROBLEM II.

37. To find the annual payment that ought to be made during the joint continuance of any given lives, to ensure any proposed sum, when those joint lives fail.

Value de-
pending on
the ex-
tinction
of two
joint lives.

It is obvious that the present value of the sum, as determined in the last problem, is that to which we must refer in this determination; we have, therefore, only to ascertain what annual payment ought to be made as an equivalent for the present sum found as above; and this again is nearly the same as determining what annuity, on a given life, a given sum will purchase; the only difference being, that in this case, the payment is made at the commencement instead of the end of each year, as in questions of simple annuities; that is, the number of payments will be one more in this case than in that. And as the value of annuities, as exhibited in the tables, are the same as the number of years' purchase, the tabular annuity

being $1l.$ we have the following rule for determining the amount payment sought.

Divide the present value found, as in Problem I. by the value of an annuity on the given lives (as shown in the tables), plus 1, and the quotient will be the annual payment sought.

Ex. 1. A person, aged 30, wishes to ensure 100*l.* payable at his death. Required the annual payments that he ought to make, allowing 3 per cent. interest, and using the Northampton tables.

By Table IX. the value of an annuity of $1l.$ for such a life, and at the proposed rate of interest, is 16.922; whence

$$100 \times \frac{1 - 16.922 \times .03}{1.03 \times (17.922)} = 2l. 13s. 4d.$$

PROBLEM III.

38. To determine the present value of a given sum payable on the decease of A, provided that life shall be the first that fails, of two lives A and B.

Here, the chance of recovering the sum at the end of Value de- any one year, will depend on the happening of one or pending on of other of these two events; viz. first, that A dies in the ex- the extinction of one year, and that B lives to the end of it; secondly, of two given that both lives fail in the year, but that A's happen lives. first.

The probability of the first of these two events is

$$\frac{(a-a')b'}{ab};$$

the probability of the second is $\frac{(a-a')b-b'}{2ab}$;

and the sum of the two

$$\frac{ab}{2ab} - \frac{a'b'}{2ab} - \frac{a'b'}{2ab} + \frac{a'b'}{2ab}$$

is the whole expectation; which, therefore, multiplied by the present value of the proposed sum s , to be received certain at the end of the year; viz. $s(1+r)^{-1}$, will give us the value of the first year's expectation. Exactly in the same manner we find the value of the expectation for the second, third, &c. years: that is, we shall have the following series for expressing these successive values, viz.

$$1st \text{ year } \frac{s}{2} (1+r)^{-1} \left(\frac{ab}{ab} - \frac{a'b'}{ab} - \frac{a'b'}{ab} + \frac{a'b'}{ab} \right);$$

$$2d \text{ year } \frac{s}{2} (1+r)^{-2} \left(\frac{a'b'}{ab} - \frac{a''b''}{ab} - \frac{a''b''}{ab} + \frac{a''b''}{ab} \right);$$

$$3d \text{ year } \frac{s}{2} (1+r)^{-3} \left(\frac{a''b''}{ab} - \frac{a'''b'''}{ab} - \frac{a'''b'''}{ab} + \frac{a'''b'''}{ab} \right);$$

4th year, &c.

the sum of which will be the present value sought.

The sum of the first two of the vertical columns in the above expression, independent of the common multiplication $\frac{s}{2}$ is (employing here the same notation as in the preceding articles) obviously equal to

$$\frac{1-r(AB)}{(1+r)};$$

the third is equal to

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and the last equal to

$$\frac{-1 + (A'B)}{1 + r} \times \frac{a'}{a};$$

$$(A'B) \times \frac{a}{a'}$$

Introducing, therefore, the common multiplier, we have

$$\frac{a}{2} \left\{ \frac{1 - r (A'B)}{1 + r} - \left(\frac{1 + (A'B)}{1 + r} a - (A'B) \frac{a}{a'} \right) \frac{1}{a} \right\}$$

for the value sought.

Note. A denotes a life one year less than A, and a has a corresponding signification.

This result is given in words at length as follows:—

39. Let A' represent a life one year older than A, and A a life one year younger. Add unity to the value of an annuity on the two joint lives A'B; and multiply the sum by the number of persons living at the age of A'. Then divide the product by the amount of 1l. for a year, and reserve the quotient.

Multiply the value of an annuity on two joint lives A, B by the number of persons living at the age of A, and having subtracted the product from the above reserved quotient, divide the remainder by the number of persons living at the age of A.

Subtract this last quotient from the present value of 1l. payable on the extinction of the two joint lives AB, and the remainder multiplied by half the given sum, will be the value required.

Cor. To find the annual payments equivalent to this present sum, we must divide the latter by unity plus the value of an annuity on the joint lives of AB; for the same reason as that assigned for a similar determination in the last problem.

40. We shall not detain the reader with an illustration of this rule; it will be sufficient to observe that tables have been computed of all the most probable cases involved in the three last problems; of which those most commonly made use of are the three following; indeed, till very lately, none of the assurance offices in London employed any others; but within a short period new tables have been issued by some of the principal institutions of this kind, which are computed upon more liberal principles.

The tables to which we have referred, viz. Tables XII, XIII, and XIV, are all computed at 3 per cent. interest, and conformably with the observations made at Northampton. What data have been employed in the computation of the new tables we are not informed. We have before observed, that the only four principles upon which assurances can be established is that

adopted by the Amicable, and some other offices, viz. of making the assurers joint proprietors, and hence increasing their principal sum at stated periods, as the circumstances of the demands, and of the stock, are found to justify. It is then of comparatively small consequence whether assurances be made on high or low terms, because we are sure of deriving all the benefit from the transaction, that the state of the society will bear. When this principle is not adopted, there can be no doubt that more liberal scales of premiums ought to be employed than those shown in the following tables, a proof of which is, that in the Amicable assurance office, where not until lately these scales were adopted, the directors have been enabled to add, in some cases, 44l. per cent. to the principal sum assured; to others 27 per cent. 20 per cent. &c. according to the number of annual payments that have been made by the respective parties.

We have given, in the conclusion of this article, the tables issued by the above society, which will be found, in most cases, lower than the corresponding annual payments specified in the following tables.

41. The three last problems involve all those cases Remarks.

of assurances which most commonly occur; and it will not be expected that we can enter here into the more minute and intricate part of the doctrine. It is obvious that assurances may be effected under a great variety of circumstances and contingencies, the detail of which would extend this article to a length disproportionate to our proposed limits. We have, in what has been already done, indicated the principles upon which all such computations are founded; and given all the necessary tables for rendering these computations easy and practicable, even to such of our readers who may not be disposed to follow us in our analytical investigations, and those who are disposed to push their inquiries to a greater length, are referred to the works of the following authors.

Dr. Price, on Reversionary Payments, &c. first published in 1769; a fourth edition of which, very considerably augmented and improved, appeared in 1783.

Simpson's Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions, 1749; with a continuation in his Select Exercises, 1752.

Morgan's Doctrine of Annuities and Assurances, 1779.

Masere's Principles of the Doctrine of Life Annuities, 1783.

Bailey, on the Doctrine of Life Annuities and Assurances, 1813; a highly scientific and valuable performance; and lastly, to Milne's Treatise on the same subject, published in 1815.

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TABLE XIII.

Showing the value of an assurance of 100*l.* on a single life, in single and annual payments, deduced from the observations made at Northampton. 3 per cent. interest.

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Age.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.
8 to 14		1 879	28	467 372	9 554	42	55 172	3 583	56	65 392	5 504
15	39 834	1 920	29	47 261	2 612	43	55 839	3 683	57	66 182	5 700
16	40 481	1 983	30	47 800	2 671	44	56 517	3 787	58	66 980	5 908
17	41 113	2 033	31	48 353	2 735	45	57 208	3 896	59	67 792	6 133
18	41 710	2 083	32	48 913	2 797	46	57 913	4 008	60	68 611	6 367
19	42 272	2 133	33	49 486	2 854	47	58 632	4 120	61	69 438	6 617
20	42 802	2 179	34	50 072	2 921	48	59 366	4 234	62	70 277	6 887
21	43 291	2 225	35	50 666	2 992	49	60 117	4 392	63	71 126	7 179
22	43 756	2 267	36	51 273	3 067	50	60 886	4 533	64	72 007	7 492
23	44 229	2 312	37	51 898	3 142	51	61 663	4 675	65	72 901	7 837
24	44 710	2 354	38	52 530	3 225	52	62 440	4 821	66	73 804	8 204
25	45 202	2 403	39	53 180	3 308	53	63 086	4 979	67	74 713	8 604
26	45 703	2 450	40	53 841	3 396	54	63 784	5 142			
27	46 213	2 504	41	54 505	3 487	55	64 612	5 317			

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TABLE XIV.

Showing the value of an assurance of 100*l.* on two joint lives, either in single or annual payments, deduced from the observations made at Northampton. 3 per cent. interest.

Single Premium.			Annual Premium.			Single Premium.			Annual Premium.			Single Premium.			Annual Premium.			
Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Ages.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	
10	10	49 498	9 855	35	59 968	4 363	40	64 428	5 275	35	45	66 149	5 692	50	50	68 217	6 252	
	15	51 177	3 053	40	61 856	4 723	45	66 149	5 692		55	70 492	6 958					
	20	52 958	3 279	45	63 979	5 173	50	68 217	6 252		60	73 125	7 925					
	25	54 319	3 463	50	66 438	5 766	55	70 492	6 958		65	76 181	9 316					
	30	55 873	3 688	55	69 077	6 506	60	73 125	7 925									
	35	57 693	3 972	60	72 049	7 508	65	76 181	9 316									
	40	59 832	4 339	65	75 406	8 930												
	45	62 206	4 794															
	50	64 919	5 380															
	55	67 801	6 133															
15	60	71 012	7 135	25	45	58 106	4 040	40	65 736	5 538	40	45	67 274	5 988	55	50	69 154	6 530
	65	74 606	8 557	30	59 392	4 248	45	67 274	5 988	55		71 250	7 218					
				35	60 786	4 515	50	69 154	6 530	60		73 713	8 168					
				40	62 559	4 867	55	71 250	7 218	65		76 612	9 541					
				45	64 571	5 308	60	73 713	8 168									
				50	66 923	5 893	65	76 612	9 541									
				55	69 461	6 625												
				60	72 343	7 619												
				65	75 021	9 035												
20	15	52 731	3 949	25	45	68 611	6 367	45	50	70 278	6 887	60	55	72 164	7 531			
	20	54 388	3 473	50	70 278	6 887	55		72 164	7 531	60		74 494	8 476				
	25	55 641	3 653	55	72 164	7 531	60		74 494	8 476	65		77 134	9 835				
	30	57 063	3 874	60	74 494	8 476	65		77 134	9 835								
	35	58 783	4 154															
	40	60 799	4 517															
	45	63 047	4 969															
	50	65 634	5 563															
	55	68 395	6 303															
	60	71 485	7 302															
25	65	74 960	8 719	30	50	60 418	4 446	50	55	71 705	7 381	65	60	73 344	8 014			
				35	61 754	4 703	60		73 344	8 014	65		75 357	8 907				
				40	63 392	5 044	65		75 357	8 907								
				45	65 271	5 474												
				50	67 495	6 048												
				55	69 915	6 769												
				60	72 685	7 751												
				65	75 866	9 156												
30	20	55 923	3 686	35	62 944	4 947	55	40	64 944	5 147	70	45	67 846	6 347				
	25	57 065	3 871	40	64 944	5 147		45	67 846	6 347		50	69 899	6 948				
	30	58 390	4 087	45	67 846	6 347		50	69 899	6 948		55	72 000	7 509				
				50	70 000	6 948		55	72 000	7 509		60	74 151	8 070				
				55	72 000	7 509		60	74 151	8 070		65	76 352	8 631				
				60	74 151	8 070		65	76 352	8 631								
				65	76 352	8 631												

ANNUITIES.

645

TABLE XV.

Showing the value of an assurance of 100l. to be received on the decease of A, provided he dies before B; deduced (according to Mr Simpson's rule) from the observations made at Northampton, at 3 per cent. interest.

AN-
NUITIES.

Age of A.	Age of B.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age of A.	Age of B.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age of A.	Age of B.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.	Age of A.	Age of B.	Single Premium.	Annual Premium.
10	10	24 749	1 427	25	10	31 789	2 027	40	10	40 763	2 956	55	10	53 179	4 810
	15	24 198	1 444		15	31 093	2 042		15	40 093	2 974		15	52 454	4 834
	20	23 498	1 455		20	30 254	2 052		20	39 164	2 991		20	51 668	4 867
	25	22 531	1 457		25	29 053	2 060		25	37 969	2 954		25	50 896	4 896
	30	21 468	1 417		30	27 683	1 982		30	36 560	2 969		30	49 329	4 776
	35	20 317	1 399		35	26 198	1 946		35	34 888	2 857		35	47 629	4 721
	40	19 070	1 383		40	24 590	1 913		40	32 868	2 794		40	46 034	4 661
	45	17 696	1 364		45	22 819	1 876		45	30 501	2 715		45	43 800	4 583
	50	16 214	1 346		50	20 907	1 841		50	27 946	2 629		50	40 993	4 479
	55	14 631	1 324		55	18 866	1 799		55	25 218	2 555		55	37 357	4 303
15	60	12 925	1 299	30	60	16 667	1 755	45	60	22 278	2 468	60	60	33 092	4 060
	65	11 098	1 273		65	14 310	1 710		65	19 128	2 382		65	28 336	3 863
	70	9 153	1 246		70	11 803	1 662		70	15 776	2 296		70	23 370	3 656
	10	26 979	1 609		10	34 404	2 271		10	41 511	3 430		10	58 067	5 836
	15	26 365	1 622		15	33 694	2 287		15	43 766	3 450		15	57 403	5 863
	20	25 602	1 635		20	32 843	2 299		20	42 921	3 471		20	56 069	5 905
	25	24 549	1 612		25	31 640	2 266		25	41 753	3 433		25	53 675	5 863
	30	23 391	1 588		30	30 209	2 223		30	40 369	3 386		30	54 499	5 811
	35	22 136	1 564		35	28 589	2 177		35	38 735	3 333		35	53 103	5 755
	40	20 778	1 544		40	26 834	2 135		40	36 775	3 273		40	51 437	5 699
20	45	19 281	1 520	35	45	24 901	2 088	50	45	31 306	3 183	65	45	49 367	5 622
	50	17 666	1 497		50	22 815	2 044		50	31 432	3 080		50	46 777	5 529
	55	15 941	1 469		55	20 588	1 993		55	28 364	2 968		55	43 419	5 371
	60	14 083	1 439		60	18 188	1 939		60	25 057	2 854		60	38 923	5 117
	65	12 092	1 407		65	15 616	1 885		65	21 514	2 740		65	33 419	4 795
	70	9 973.	1 373		70	12 880	1 829		70	17 744	2 629		70	27 563	4 490
	10	29 461	1 524		10	37 375	2 573		10	48 705	4 044		10	63 510	7 285
	15	28 786	1 538		15	36 647	2 580		15	47 968	4 066		15	62 870	7 313
	20	27 961	1 548		20	35 794	2 604		20	47 144	4 091		20	62 203	7 367
	25	26 811	1 519		25	34 588	2 569		25	46 017	4 052		25	61 311	7 295
25	30	25 546	1 788		30	33 166	2 596		30	41 680	4 004		30	60 251	7 271
	35	24 176	1 759		35	31 472	2 474		35	43 101	3 950		35	58 900	7 213
	40	22 692	1 733		40	29 540	2 419		40	41 208	3 891		40	57 484	7 159
	45	21 038	1 703		45	27 413	2 350		45	38 846	3 807		45	55 620	7 085
	50	19 294	1 674		50	25 116	2 302		50	35 853	3 691		50	53 293	7 002
	55	17 410	1 640		55	22 664	2 237		55	32 353	3 535		55	50 302	6 858
	60	15 381	1 603		60	20 092	2 170		60	28 581	3 378		60	46 279	6 610
	65	13 206	1 564		65	17 191	2 102		65	24 540	3 224		65	40 576	6 270
	70	10 892	1 523		70	14 179	2 034		70	20 239	3 073		70	33 466	5 787

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ANNUITIES.

TABLE XVI.

TERMS OF ASSURANCE PROPOSED BY THE AMICABLE SOCIETY.

Tables of rates per cent. per annum.

AN-
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Age.	For One Year.	For Seven Years.	For the whole Life.	Age.	For One Year.	For Seven Years.	For the whole Life.	Age.	For one Year.	For seven Years.	For the whole Life.
8 to 14	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	34	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	54	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
15	0 14 6	0 18 0	1 14 6	35	1 9 6	1 11 6	2 15 6	55	2 11 6	2 18 0	5 0 0
16	0 15 0	0 19 0	1 15 6	36	1 10 0	1 12 0	2 17 0	56	2 13 6	3 0 0	5 3 6
17	0 15 6	1 0 0	1 16 6	37	1 10 6	1 13 0	2 18 6	57	2 15 6	3 2 0	5 7 6
18	0 16 0	1 0 6	1 17 6	38	1 11 0	1 14 0	3 0 0	58	2 17 6	3 4 0	5 11 6
19	0 16 6	1 1 0	1 18 6	39	1 11 6	1 15 0	3 1 6	59	2 19 6	3 6 6	5 15 6
20	0 17 0	1 1 6	1 19 6	40	1 12 0	1 16 0	3 3 0	60	3 1 6	3 9 6	6 0 0
21	0 17 6	1 2 0	1 20 6	41	1 12 6	1 17 0	3 5 0	61	3 4 0	3 12 6	6 3 0
22	0 18 0	1 2 6	1 21 6	42	1 13 0	1 18 0	3 7 0	62	3 6 6	3 15 6	6 10 0
23	0 18 6	1 3 0	1 22 6	43	1 13 6	1 19 0	3 9 0	63	3 9 0	3 19 0	6 15 6
24	0 19 0	1 3 6	1 23 6	44	1 14 0	1 20 0	3 11 0	64	3 11 6	4 2 6	7 1 0
25	0 19 6	1 4 0	1 24 6	45	1 14 6	1 21 0	3 13 0	65	3 14 6	4 7 0	7 7 6
26	0 20 0	1 4 6	1 25 6	46	1 15 0	1 22 0	3 15 0	66	3 18 0	4 12 0	7 14 6
27	0 20 6	1 5 0	1 26 6	47	1 15 6	1 23 0	3 17 6	67	4 2 0	4 17 6	8 0 0
28	0 21 0	1 5 6	1 27 6	48	1 16 0	1 24 0	4 0 0	68	4 6 0	5 4 0	8 10 0
29	0 21 6	1 6 0	1 28 6	49	1 16 6	1 25 0	4 2 6	69	4 13 6	5 13 6	8 19 6
30	0 22 0	1 6 6	1 29 6	50	1 17 0	1 26 0	4 5 0	70	5 1 6	6 4 0	9 0 0
31	0 22 6	1 7 0	1 30 6	51	1 17 6	1 27 0	4 8 0	71	5 10 6	6 17 6	9 19 6
32	0 23 0	1 7 6	1 31 6	52	1 18 0	1 28 0	4 11 0	72	6 1 0	7 14 6	10 10 0
33	0 23 6	1 8 0	1 32 6	53	1 18 6	1 29 0	4 14 0		6 13 0	8 16 0	11 2 0
	0 24 0	1 8 6	1 33 6		1 19 0	1 30 0	4 17 0				

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NUITIES.

TABLE XVII.

Showing the annual premium per cent. payable so long as two persons shall both live, for insuring the contingency of one of them surviving the other.

Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium per Cent.	Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium per Cent.	Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium per Cent.	Life to be insured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium per Cent.
		£. s. d.			£. s. d.			£. s. d.			£. s. d.
10	10	1 6 6	30	10	2 2 0	50	10	3 16 6	70	10	7 15 0
20	20	1 7 0	40	20	2 3 0	60	20	3 17 6	80	20	7 16 6
30	30	1 6 6	50	30	2 1 6	70	30	3 16 0	90	30	7 14 0
40	40	1 5 9	60	40	2 0 0	80	40	3 13 9	100	40	7 12 6
50	50	1 5 0	70	50	1 18 3		50	3 10 0		50	7 9 6
60	60	1 4 3	80	60	1 16 3		60	3 4 0		60	7 2 6
70	70	1 3 3		70	1 14 3		70	2 18 0		70	6 6 6
80	80	1 1 6		80	1 11 3		80	2 11 6		80	5 5 0
10	10	1 13 9	30	10	2 15 3	50	10	5 11 6	70	10	10 15 0
20	20	1 14 3	40	20	2 16 0	60	20	5 12 9	80	20	10 15 6
30	30	1 13 3	50	30	2 14 9	70	30	5 11 0	90	30	10 13 6
40	40	1 12 3	60	40	2 12 6		40	5 9 0		40	10 11 0
50	50	1 11 0	70	50	2 9 6		50	5 6 0		50	10 8 0
60	60	1 9 9	80	60	2 6 6		60	4 18 3		60	10 2 6
70	70	1 7 9		70	2 3 6		70	4 6 6		70	9 10 0
80	80	1 5 6		80	1 19 0		80	3 14 6		80	8 0 0

ANNUITIES.

647

TABLE XVIII.

Showing the annual premium per cent. payable so long as two persons shall both live, for insuring a sum to be paid on the death of either of them first dying.

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NUITIES.

Agas.	Premium.	Agas.	Premium.	Agas.	Premium.	Agas.	Premium.	Agas.	Premium.
£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
10 & 10	2 13 0	15 & 45	4 13 9	25 & 30	4 0 0	35 & 35	4 14 0	40 & 60	8 3 0
15 & 17	0	50	5 5 3	35	4 5 0	40	5 0 0	67	10 3 6
20	3 1 0	55	6 0 0	40	4 11 9	45	5 8 0	72	13 8 0
25	3 5 0	60	6 19 6	45	5 0 6	50	5 19 0		
30	3 9 0	67	9 2 0	50	5 12 0	55	6 13 0	50 & 50	7 1 6
35	3 14 6	72	12 6 6	55	6 6 6	60	7 12 0	55	7 14 0
40	4 1 9			60	7 6 0	67	9 14 0	60	8 11 9
45	4 10 6	30 & 30	3 9 6	67	9 7 0	72	12 18 6	67	10 11 6
50	5 2 0	25	3 13 0	72	12 13 0			72	13 15 6
55	5 16 6	30	3 17 0			40 & 40	5 6 6	55 & 55	8 5 6
60	6 16 3	35	4 2 6	30 & 30	4 4 0	45	5 14 3	60	9 1 3
67	8 19 6	40	4 9 6	35	4 9 0	50	6 8 0	67	11 1 0
72	12 3 6	45	4 18 0	40	4 15 6	55	6 18 6	72	14 5 6
		50	5 9 6	45	5 4 0	60	7 17 0	60 & 60	9 18 0
15 & 15	3 0 6	55	6 4 0	50	5 15 3	67	9 18 6	67	11 14 0
20	3 4 6	60	7 3 6	55	6 9 6	72	13 2 6	72	14 19 0
25	3 8 6	67	9 6 0	60	7 8 9				
30	3 12 9	72	12 10 0	67	9 11 3	45 & 45	6 1 6	67 & 67	13 7 6
35	3 18 0			72	12 15 6	50	6 11 9	72	16 10 0
40	4 5 0	25 & 25	3 16 0			55	7 4 9	72 & 72	18 14 0

AN-
NUITIES.

From the above, the reader will easily judge of the proportional premium for any intermediate age.—Insurances on other contingencies may also be effected at rates proportionate to the above. The sum of 10s. per cent. is to be paid by way of entrance money for the whole of life; but no entrance money is required when the insurance is for a term of years. An additional 10s. per cent. at the time of admission only, is charged when the party does not appear.

Illustration of the preceding tables.

Illustration
of the
tables.

42. The following examples will sufficiently explain the nature of the six last tables, and will show the different premiums required, according to the particular tables of mortality employed, and the rate of interest adopted.

Ex. 1. Let it be proposed to determine the annual payment to be paid by a person, aged 42, to insure 1,000 £ payable at his decease.

By Table XIII. annual payment per cent. £3.583

Mult. by 10

£35.83

20

£. 16 60

12

d. 7 20

By Table XVI. annual payment per cent. 34.9 s.

Mult. by 10

349. 10 s.

Difference between the two premiums 11 £. 6s. 7d.

Ex. 2. Two persons, aged 40 and 50, wish to insure their joint lives; viz. that the longest liver shall receive 1,000 £ on the death of the other, required the annual premium.

By Table XIV. we find opposite 40 and 50

Annual premium 1.6.530

l. s.

65-30=35 6

61. 5s.

10

69 10=62 10

Difference 2 16

By Table XVII. annual premium

Ex. 3. To persons, (A) aged 50, and (B), aged 40 wish to insure 100 £ payable to B, provided A dies first, required the annual premium to be paid while they both live.

By Table XV. the annual premium is £3.891=3 17 10

By Table XVII. do. do. 3 13 9

Difference 0 4 1

The difference in the above results shows, in some measure, the uncertainty of the data on which the value of assurances are computed; and the great propriety of that plan of assurances, which considers every insurer as a joint proprietor, and participator in the profits arising from the combined transactions.

ANNUL. **ANNUL', v.** Ad. nihil, to nothing. See **ANNIHILATE**. To render invalid, of no worth, or effect.

ANO- Truly the like *yo* has might to do good, and done it not, *yo*

DYNES. crown of worship will be taken from him, with shame shall they be *annihilated*.

Chaucer. Test. of Love, book iii. fo. 369. c. 1.

For the heithen kinges did regarde their acts lawes confirmacions and othes so highly that they were with them inalienable truth to be reckoned or *annihilated*, so highly regarded that constancie trade and faith in othes and promises.

Espousal of Daniel, by Jey.

Whereunto it was answered by *yo* Englyshe ambassadors that theyr comysyon stretchyd not soe farre, nor that theyr prynce had greyn vnto them any suche auctorite; wherefore all the former comysycation was reuokyd and *annihilated*, and they retourned into Englaunde without anye congreuous talyage.

Flygan, p. 443.

— This God-like act
Annuls thy doom, the death thou should'st have died,
In sin for ever lost from life.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book xii.

Tell me not of your engagements and promises to another: yow practices are signs of inconsideration at best; and you are bound to repent and *annul* them.

Swift's Advice to the Person of Dublin.

Do they mean to invalidate, *annul*, or to call into question, together with the titles of the whole line of our kings, that great body of our statute law which passed under those whom they treat as usurpers? To annul laws of inestimable value to our liberties.

Burke, on the French Revolution.

ANNULAR, s. } Annular, a ring. Applied to
ANNULARY. } that which is in the form or shape of a ring.

The first that I know of who observed the third cost of an artery to be a muscular body, composed of annular fibres, was Dr. Willis.

Ray, on the Creation.

ANNULET, in Architecture, called also lilies, and by Vitruvius, filets, small square members, in the Doric capital, placed under the quarter ground. Also a narrow, flat moulding, common to the base, capital, and other parts of the column.

ANNULUS, in Geometry, a ring whose area is equal to the difference of the areas of the interior and exterior circles; it may be found by multiplying the sum of their diameters by the difference of them, and the product by 7854.

ANODYNE, n. } From *an*, without, and *odyn*,
ANODYNE, n. } pain.

That which lulls, soothes, or mitigates pain.

For that tenderness of conscience which is the disease and soreness of conscience, it must be cured by *anodynes* and soft usages, unless they prove ineffective, and that the laicet is necessary.

Ep. Taylor's Ser. to the Irish Par. 1661. Ep. Ded.

(*o* who in sweet vicinitude appears
Of mirth and opium, rattle and tears,
The daily *anodyne*, and nightly dream,
To kill those fies to fair-ones, time and thought.

Pope's Moral Essays.

AN. I am easily comprehended, that no man upon earth ought to prize *anodynes* for the spleen, more than a man of fashion and pleasure.

Ep. Berkeley's Minute Philo.

Mr. Wilkes is universally given up; and if the ministers themselves do not vouten to raise difficulties, I think they will meet with none. A majority of two hundred is a great *anodyne*.

Clarendon's Let. vol. xii.

A man is fallen indeed who he is thus flattered. The *anodyne* draught of oblivion, thus drugged, is well calculated to preserve a galling wakefulness, and to feed the living ulcer of a corroding memory.

Burke, on the French Revolution.

ANODYNES, in Pharmacy, medicines which relieve pain, and generally applied to those which are given with a view to procure sleep; including such as have

been otherwise called hypnotics, narcotics, and opiates; paregorics, and antalgics. See **MEDICINE**, **Div. ii.**

ANOINT', v. } Lat. *laungere*, Ungere, unctum.
ANOINTED, } Fr. *Oindre*. (To oint, to Oigner,
ANOINTING, } Menage). To oint, to anoint.
ANOINTMENT. } Unguo, Vossius informas us, is by
some considered to be *anum ago*, because in *unguentis* different substances are united into one (quia in *unguentis* unumvar diversis). The application is

To rub, smear with oil, or any oily, greasy substance.

When he came to that, he three
He sat hym on his knees down straight,
And his carrete, as he was taught,
He rud, and made his sacrifice,
And ather *anoints* hym in that wise
As Medes hym hath brde. *Guerc. Cos. A. book v.*
His bed was balled, and shone as any glas,
And eke his face, as it hadde ben *anoint*,
He was a lord ful fat and in good point.

Chaucer. The Prioress's, v. l. p. 9.

For verrill croode and ponce pilat with hebene nio and peplis of israel came togidre in this cite agens this hooch child thes who thos *anointist* to do the things that this hooch and this consoil dempny to be don.

Wright. The Dedes of Spence, c. 4.

For of a truth, agens this holy childe *anoint* (who's last *anointed*) both Herode and also Pontius Pilate, with the Getyis and the people of Israel, gathered thesowles together (in this cite) for to do whatsoever thy hande and thy counsell determined before to be done.

Bible, 1539.

The *anointing* of priests and kings, them to preche, and thes to so theis doctrine observed, the *anointing*, preachers, prefigured the *anointing* of cryst with the spirit and him to be bothe kinge and priest.

The Exposition of Daniel, by Jey.

And the women *anoint* as it was lawfull to works, prepared their *anointments* with all diligence.

The Whole Worker of Tyndall, &c. fol. 261. c. 1.

AN. With the juice of this I'll streak her eyes.

Take thou some of it and seek through this grove.

A sweet Athenian lady is in love

With a disdainful youth; *anoint* his eyes.

But do it when the next thing he espies

May be the lady.

Shakespeare's Mid. N. Dream, act. ii. s. 2.

Kings were *anointed*, with Gildes, not of God's *anointing*, but such as were cruellest; and soon after as inconsiderately, without examining the truth, put to death, by their *anointers*, to set up others more fierce and proud.

Milton's History of England.

Were that true, which is almost false, that all kings are the Lord's *anointed*, it were yet absurd to think that the *anointment* of God should be as it were a charm against law, and give them privilege, who punish others, to sin themselves unpunished. The high priest was the Lord's *anointed* as well as any king, and with the same consecrated oil; yet Solomon had put to death Absalom, had it not been for other respects than that *anointment*.

Id. Ethnolatrie.

The number, the presumption, and the abilities of those who take connect together against the Lord and against his *anointed*, should not dishearten, but rather excite and encourage us to stand in the gap.

Ep. Hervey's Sermons for the Pro. of the Gospel.

Our blessed Lord himself, who united in his own person the three-fold character of king, priest, and prophet, was distinguished by the name of the Messiah, which in the Hebrew language, signifies the *anointed*.

Peterson's Lectures.

ANOLYMPIADES (*ανολυμπιαδες*), in Antiquity, i.e. unlawful Olympiads, a name given by the Elians to those Olympic games which had been celebrated under the conduct of the Arcadians and Pisceans, as in the case of the 104 Olympiad; and which were omitted, with the names of the victors, in the Elian annals.

ANOMALY, n. } *ἄνωμαλον*, from *an*, not, and

ANOMALOUS, } *ἁρμολον*, plain, smooth, even.

ANOMALOUSLY. } Unevenness, irregularity.

Contrariety to rule or order.

ANO-

DYNES.

ANO-

ANOMA-

LY.

ANOMA-
LY.
—
ANON.

These [Serpents with the head at each extreme] are monstrous productions, beside the intention of nature, and the statutes of generation, neither begotten of like parents, nor begetting the like again, but irregularly produced, do stand as *anomalies* in the general book of Nature.

Now the novel being a part, not precedent, but subsequent unto generation, nativity or parturition, it cannot be well imagined at the creation or extraordinary formation of Adam, who immediately issued from the article of God; nor also that of Eve; who was not solemnly begotten, but suddenly framed, and *anomalously* proceeded from Adam.

The poetical dialect, consisting chiefly in certain *anomalies* peculiar to poetry; in letters and syllables added to the ends of words; a kind of licence commonly permitted to poetry in every language.

Louth's Irish, Preliminary Dis.

Were there no uniformity in human actions, and were every experiment, which we could form of this kind, irregular and *anomalous*, it were impossible to collect any general observations concerning mankind; and no experience, however accurately digested by reflection, would ever serve to any purpose.

Hume's Essays.

ANOMALY, in Astronomy, is the angular distance of a planet at any time from its apheion, or apogee. This is called the *true anomaly*: *mean anomaly* is the angular distance from the same point at the same time, supposing the body to have moved uniformly, with its mean angular velocity.

Hence we have the *anomalous year*, which is sometimes used by astronomers to denote the time from the sun leaving its apogee till it returns to it again.

Now the motion of the sun's apogee is $1' 29''$ every year in longitude, or, as referred to the equinox; therefore, the progressive motion of the apogee will be $11' 75''$; and hence, the *anomalous* must be longer than the sidereal year, by the time the sun employs in moving over $11' 75''$ of longitude at its apogee; whence the length of the *anomalous* revolution, as determined by Lalande, is 365 d. 6 h. 14 m. 23 sec.

ANOMIA, in Conchology, the name of a large genus of bivalves, found on the sea-shore in all parts of the world; two species in a fossil state are occasionally met with in this country.

ANOMOEANS (from *a priv.* and *anomos*, like), in Ecclesiastical History, a name applied to the pure Arians of the fourth century, who denied any resemblance between the essence of the Father and the Son.

AN'OMY, *anomia* (a word of common occurrence in the Septuagint and New Testament), from *a*, not, and *nomos*, law.

A transgression of the law, iniquity.

If we have respect unto the infinite mercy of God; and, to the object of this mercy, the penitent and faithful heart, there is no sin, which to borrow the word of *Providence*, is not venial; but, in respect of the *anomy*, or disorder, there is no sin which is not worthy of eternal death.

Ep. Hall's Polirical Works.

ANON', ad. On *An*; i. e. On or in one or one (i. e. instant, moment, minute).

Immediately, instantly.

To his fellows he wende anon, & bad hem hardi be;

So hit he Bejournes wote up he port to be.

Arring, our kyng's brother, wende fast anon þere.

And dide on þe kyng's armys, hym sell as yt were.

R. Gloucester, p. 64.

Right now the bright window blow:

And anon after that ben low.

Goethe, Can. A. The Prologue.

But this that is sworn on the sunny light: this it is that herith the word of god, and anon with joie taketh it.

Wiclif, Matthew, cap. xlii.

And ever and anon, when none was ware,

With speaking loud, he close embrace bore,

He ro'd at her, and told his secret care;

For all that art he learned had of yore.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iii. c. ix.

He was perfumed like a milliner,
And 'twixt his finger and his thumb he held
A pouncet-box; which ever and anon,
He gave his nose, and took't away again.

Shakespeare's 1st p. Henry IV. act I.

Land, houses, movables, my money, mine to day, his own,
Whose to-morrow?

Barrow's Anatomy of Melancholy.

I had rather that a father should be busy with his children, so
he be appeared anon, than slow to anger, and as hard to be pleased
again.

Holland's Plutarch's Morals.

Here ye seen the morning sky,
When the dawn prevails on high,
When anon, some purply ray
Gives a sample of the day,
When, anon, the lark, no wing;
Strives to soar, and strains to sing?

Phillips's Happy Swain.

ANONYMOUS, *a.* } *a*, not, and *onyma*, a name: }
ANON'YMOUSLY, } Without a name; nameless.

"Hence," says the historian (Diogenes Laertius), "it has come to pass, that to this present time may be found in the borough of the Athenians *anonymous* altars: a memorial of the expiation then made." These altars, it may be presumed, were called *anonymous*, because there was not the name of any particular deity inscribed upon them.

Lardner's Jew, and His Testimonies.

I would know whether the edition is to come out *anonymously*.

Swift's Works.

ANOREXIA, or *ANOREXY* (from *a priv.* and *orexy*, I desire), in Medicine, loathing of food and loss of appetite. This disease seldom exists independent of others; but is a general attendant on many.

ANOSMIA (from *a priv.* and *osm*, to smell), in Physiology, an entire privation of the sense of smelling. Culmen arranges this disease in the class *Locales*; and order *Dysæsthesiæ*.

ANOSSE, *ANOROKIZARA*, or *CARCAUSOI*, in Geography, once a province of some importance, on the S. E. of the island of Madagascar, and partly in the possession of the French, who have had a settlement at Fort Dauphin since the year 1642. It lies between 23°, 19', and 26° S. lat. and is separated by the river Manderei from the territory of the Ampatres, including several peninsulas and islands ranged along the sea-coast; and is very fertile in pasture, and fruit trees. Aloes formed, at one time, an important article of exportation to the settlers, and gold and iron mines are said to have been found in the interior. Rice flourishes well in the district; and sometimes two harvests may be obtained from one sowing. Wines also are made here from sugar canes and from honey. The intolerance of the natives, however, prevents them from improving their great natural advantages, and to themselves, principally, the province has, of late years, been abandoned. The French describe the inhabitants as exceedingly licentious in their morals; and their religion as consisting of the mixed worship of an evil and good spirit.

The principal towns are Ambonnetanah, Andranoule, Cocombes, Fanangshan, Franchere, Imaahil, Imour, Maromamon, and Marufontons. Fort Dauphin, the French garrison of the province, was built by direction of Captain Rivault, in 1611, on an eminence, 170 feet from the level of the sea, near a capacious bay, and about six miles from the mouth of the principal river, Ruanvout, or Tranour. Between eleven and twelve years afterwards (1655), it was destroyed by fire, on occasion of saluting a new governor, and not re-established until 1663. The walls were at this time built of a strong mixture of sand and flint, over-

ANON,
—
ANOSSEL

ANOTHER.
—
ANOTHER.
—

laid with cement. The early French governors attempted various methods of improving their influence with the natives, but, on the whole, treated them very capriciously. One of the first superintendents of the colony, a M. Prouis, married the daughter of a native chieftain, and obtained considerable confidence with the islanders, until internal dissensions in the garrison, and the pressure of a famine, caused the French settlers to revolt from him. On his release, he ventured to seize some of the natives as slaves, whom he sold to the Dutch at Mauritius; and, to appease the inhabitants of the province, was obliged to be recalled. During subsequent wars with the natives, Fort Dauphin has resisted the attack of 10,000 men. Another French governor, after its re-erection, married into a native family, and possessed greater influence over the inhabitants than ever the French had exercised; but in the close of the seventeenth century, the settlers were driven entirely away. In 1725, a M. Robert projected a new settlement here, which was not, however, carried into effect until 1768, from which time to the present the colony has dwindled away, and an authentic accounts of it have lately reached Europe.

ANOTHER, *c.*
ANOTHER-GAINS. } Another is found in com-
ANOTHER-GATES. } position with Gains, Gates,
ANOTHER-GUESSES. } Guess. See GAINS, &c.
And wo so aneher moone's god byjnyne wole myd varyty,
Myd ryghe be may fye ove lese, xyl ge glouceder ay be myste.
R. Glouceder, p. 195.

For who so will another blame,
He seeketh off his own shame,
Whiche els might be right still. *Gower, Conf. A. book ii.*
For if he that cometh preacheth another crist whom we prechiden
not, or if he taken a nether spyryt whom he tooken not, or a nether
gospel which he resseyeyden not, rightli he schuld be suffre.
Wyclif. 2 Cor. ch. xi.

For yf he that cometh, preacheth another Jesus, the him whom we
preached: or yf ye receive another apyte, then that which ye have
received, either another gospel then yf ye have received, ye might
right well have been cōdēt. *Bible, 1539.*

When he had ceas'd his ill-reounding noise,
Another flap-mouth'd murrain, black and grim,
Against the welkin rolled out his voice;
Another and another swore him.

Shakespeare's Venus and Adonis.
For stature one doth seem the best way to hear;
Another for her shape, and to stand beyond compare;
Another for the fine composure of a face:
Another short of these, yet for a modest grace,
Before them all prefer'd.

Drayton's Polythick, Song xxvi.
I tell you true, said she, whatsoever you think of me, you will one
day be as I am; and I, simple though I am here, thought once my
penury as good silver as some of you do: and if my father had not
played the hasty fool, it is no lie I tell you, I might have had another-
gains husband than Dauntus. *Solitary's Address.*

And 'twas agreed
By storm and onslaught to proceed.
This being resolv'd, in comely sort,
They now drew up t' attack the fort;
When Hindmarsh, about to enter
Upon another-gate's adventure,
To Ralph call'd aloud to arm,
Not dreaming of approaching storm.

Rutler's Hindmarsh, pt. I. can. iii.
If you are bent to wed, I wish you another-gain wife than Soeremus
had; * * * And as I wish you may not light upon such a Xan-
thippe, so I pray that God may deliver you from a Wife of such a
generation, that Strowd our Cook here at Westminster sold his
wife was of.

Hewitt's Letters.
One man can no more discern the objects of his own understanding,
ing, and their relations, by the faculties of another, than he can see

with another man's eyes, or one ship can be guided by the helm of
another. *Wicliffe's Religion of Nature.*

Though the image of one point should come but a small lesson
of this universe, another, and another, and another stroke must in
their progress cease a very great one, until it arrives at last to the
highest degree. *Barth, on the Soldier and Beautiful.*

It is one thing to hear the language of a friend, whose heart is
pure as water, and another to hear the words of a base dissemler.
See Wm. Jewell's Mitigation.

ANOTTO, ANOTTO, ARNOTTO (the Roucou of the
French), in Commerce, a red dye prepared in the West
Indies from the seed capsules of the Bixa Orlanense,
a tree of South America. The seeds are contained in
a pod, similar to a chestnut, enclosed in a pulp of a dis-
agreeable siccant and bright red colour. When sepa-
rated from the outer husk, they are put into water to
ferment for eight or ten days, during which time they
are agitated with wooden paddles, and the kernels being
carefully separated from the pulp, the liquor is strained,
and boiled. In the course of the latter operation, the
colour rises to the top as a thick red scum; it is then put
into vessel towel, when it is shaped into balls, or long
rolls, weighing from two to three pounds, and packed
for sale, each ball being enclosed in the leaf of a tree.
These, when fit for use, are rather hard and dry, of a
brown colour on the outside, and a dull red within.
The English, at one time, had a manufactory of an-
otto at St. Angelo, but the preparation of it is now
entirely in the hands of the Spaniards. It is much used
in the dairies of England and Holland to colour cheese
and butter. Amongst the poor it is a substitute for
saffron, and was formerly used in the composition of
chocolate. The Spanish Indians use it medicinally,
and it is supposed to be an antidote to the poisonous
juice of manihot, or cassava. It will not dissolve in
water, but merely tinges it of a pale brown colour. It
is soluble in alkaline salts, which do not change its
colour, and is used in varnishes and lacquers, to give
the orange cast, also in dying wax vermilion. Silk
and wool will receive a dye of bright orange from it, which
will not change by acid or alum, but is discoloured by
exposure to the air, or the use of soap.

ANSÆ, ANSÆ (Lat. handles), in Astronomy, those
projecting parts of the planet Saturn's ring, which are
visible in its opening, and have the appearance of
handles attached to the planet. It was first given by
Huygens.

ANSARS, ENSYRIANS, or NASSARIN, in Geogra-
phy, the name of a people of Syria, who possess the
chain of mountains which extends from Antakia to the
river Nahr-el-Kabir. They are divided into different
tribes, or sects: the Kudmouia, who reverence women,
and practice the most licentious amusements during
the course of their nocturnal assemblies; the Kelbia,
who pay their adorations to the dog; and the Shamsia,
or worshippers of the sun. The doctrine of metempsy-
chosis or transmigration of souls, is an article of belief
among many of the Ansarians; others reject the notion
of the immortality of the soul; but their opinions are
either very fluctuating or ill-ascertained by Europeans.
The country of the Ansarians is divided into three
principal districts, cultivated by their chiefs, who are
denominated mukadimins, a title annually acknow-
ledged by the pacha of Tripoli, on the payment of
a stipend. The mountains inhabited by the Ansar-
ians are not so steep as those of Lebanon; and, of
course, are better adapted to the purposes of cultiva-
tion and pasturage; but they are unfortunately more

ANOT-
—
ANSARS.

ANSARS. exposed to the marauding expeditions of the Turks than their neighbours: and, though the territory of **ANSARS** produces great abundance of olives, tobacco, and wine, it is much more thinly inhabited than the provinces of the Druzes and Maronites.

ANSER, in Astronomy, a star of the fifth or sixth magnitude, first brought into order by Hevelius, situated between the Swan and Eagle, in the milky way.

ANSERES, in Ornithology, the third order of birds, according to the Linnæan classification. See ZOOLOGY, Div. II.

ANSERINA, is Botany, wild tansey, or goose-grass, which was formerly used medicinally. See *Potentilla*, Botany, Div. II.

ANSERMA, SANTA ANNA DE, a city of the province and government of Popayán, 50 leagues N. E. of Popayán. It is situated in the district and jurisdiction of the audience of Quito, and the vicinity abounds in gold and salt mines. The climate is very hot in its temperature, and is subject to storms, which are frequently accompanied by balls of fire, and do serious mischief.

ANSIBARI, **AMPRICARI**, or **AMPRYARI**, in Ancient Geography, a people of Germany, who, being driven from their own territory by the Chauci, in the time of Nero, took possession of some land occupied by the Frisians, which had belonged to the Romans; and were not permitted to enjoy it, but were compelled to wander about in search of a place to receive them, until they became extinct. *Tacit. Ann. xiii. 53—55.*

ANSIKO, ANIKO, or **MICOOCO**, in Geography, a kingdom on the western coast of Africa, situated almost under the equator, and bounded on the N. by the deserts of Nuhia, on the S. by Sonda and Songó, two districts of Congo, on the E. by the river Zambe, or Vambre, which discharges its waters into the great river Zambe, and on the W. by the kingdom of the Amboes. The country that constitutes Anisko extends, according to the natives, from the kingdom of Nuhia to Casago. The natives, in general, are in the most barbarous state, practising indiscriminate warfare on other tribes, and preferring a wandering life. They are characterized by a fearless desperation; and, according to the Portuguese accounts, by an unequalled rapacity and cannibalism. So familiarized are they to blood, and so entirely free from the usual sympathies of our nature, that they will even expose human flesh for sale in their shambles or markets. They fatten their slaves, it is added, for their tables, and torture them with such continued cruelties, that the unhappy victims very readily hail death as a deliverance from further persecution.

M. Dapper, in his *Description de l'Afrique*, gives an affecting account of these atrocities; and observes, that the father will feast without horror on the body of his son, the son on his father, and brothers and sisters on each other. The females too, in this quarter of the globe, appear to have lost all the ordinary feelings of nature: they are handsome in their persons, but readily abandon their offspring, and sometimes even kill them with their own hands.

The Jagos, or Gingos, are the principal inhabitants of this province, and are more relentless in their disposition than the original natives. They are dispersed throughout the regions of the interior; and are supposed to have come from Sierra Leone, and to have ravaged the whole coast, as far as the kingdom of Benguela. Their

descendants, however, are now principally confined to Anisko, and the S. E. quarter of Angola. In their religion, the natives are idolaters: they pay their adorations to the sun and moon, the former of whom they personify under the figure of a male, and the latter of a female; they also practise the Jewish ceremony of circumcision. On any emergency, such as an irruption of their neighbours into their territories, amongst the preparations for battle, they are accustomed to offer up numerous sacrifices at the shrines of their tutelary deities. The king of Anisko is pompously styled the Great Micooco; he reigns over 13 districts, or kingdoms, and is conjectured to be one of the most despotic sovereigns of Africa.

The exterior badge of distinction among the inhabitants of Anisko is a red or black cap, made of Portuguese velvet; the lower orders of people are naked from the waist upward, and are compelled to walk barefooted, in token of inferiority. The natives frequently anoint their bodies with a curious composition of palm-oil and white sandal-wood. For arms, the Aniskos make use of small bows, which are fabricated from a tough wood, and ornamented with the skins of serpents. They are considered very dexterous archers; and, though implacable to their enemies, are faithful and honourable allies. Their battle-axes are used as instruments of aggression and defence, and answer every purpose of a shield; in addition to this, they wear a sort of dirk, or dagger, which they attach to their bodies by belts of ivory, and encase in serpents' skins.

Anisko is celebrated for its copper-mines, and a red and white sanders' wood that it produces in abundance. It teems with wild beasts of almost every description, particularly lions and rhinoceroses, said to have been originally brought from Congo.

The simbas, or zimbi, is the current coin of the country, which consists of a shell, imported from Loando, in Angola. Latterly, these tribes appear to have become more commercial, and conduct a great proportion of the trade between Congo and the interior.

ANSLAUGHT, *n. or* A. S. On-slaught. *Impactus.* *ONSLAUGHT*. Dashed or beaten against; past tense of oo-slaught, to dash or beat against.

LAU. Your worship knows, I ever was accounted
The most debauch'd, and please you to remember,
Every day drunk too, for your worship's credit,
I broke the butler's head too.

SEN. No, base Palliard,
I do remember yet, that *anslaught*, thou wast beaten,
And fledst before the butler; a black jack
Playing upon thee furiously, I saw it.
I saw thee scatter'd, rogue.
Beau-mont and Fletcher, Mena. Thomas, act II. sc. 2.

That done, awhile they made a halt
To view the ground, and where 't'assault:
Then call'd a council, which was best,
By *sen* or *anslaught*, to invest
The enemy; and 'twas agreed
By storm and *anslaught* to proceed.

Butler's Medley, part I. can. iii.

ANSON, a county of North America, in North Carolina, Fayette district. On the N. is Mecklenburgh county, on the E. Bladen and Cumberland counties.

ANSPACH, a district in Franconia, now, for the most part, included in the circles of the Rezat and the Upper Danube. It was, formerly, a distinct principality, governed by a margrave; but the recent geo-

AN-
SPACH.
—
ANSTRU-
THER.
WESTER

ographical and topographical changes that have taken place on the continent have entirely altered its original divisions and bailiwicks, of which there were fifteen. In the year 1791 the last margrave retired to England, and the principality became an integral part of the kingdom of Prussia. Since that time it has repeatedly changed its masters. In 1806 Buonaparte gave it to Bavaria; and subsequent treaties have confirmed its annexation to that kingdom; an indemnity having been given to Prussia elsewhere. According to its original extent, it contained a surface of about 1,900 square miles, with a population of 252,395 inhabitants; of whom, from 8,000 to 9,000 were Jews. The established religion is the Lutheran.

Christian Frederic, the last margrave, rendered this district a very great service, by the introduction of various agricultural and other improvements; particularly in the breed of horses, having been intermixed with the English breed, and oxen and cows with those of Switzerland. Great numbers of fat oxen are annually exported to Alsace, and other places; and immense quantities of corn to various parts of Europe. Fruit, wine, and hops, are cultivated here with considerable advantage; and there are several flourishing manufactures in the different towns of which the district is composed.

The capital, or chief town, also called **ANSPACH**, or **ANSBACH**, is situated on the Lower **Reizt**, about 30 miles from **Nuremberg**; and contains a population, including the adjacent communes, of about 12,000 inhabitants. It has, within these ten or eleven years, been created the capital of the circle of the **Reizt**, and **Bayraria**, and at the same time the head of a district, which contains 126 square miles, and 14,000 inhabitants. This city is said to owe its origin to **Gumbrecht**, son of **Duke Gotsbert I.**, who founded here a monastery of **Benedictine** monks, which was secularized in 1563. During the existence of the monastery, from those causes which were the means before the reformation of laying the foundation of many towns, **Anspach** gradually advanced in extent and population. Houses rose in succession round the convent, till the town was purchased by the margrave of **Nuremberg**. There are still some interesting objects to be seen in this city. The principal of the prince's castle and garden, the church of **St. John**, in which are the remains of the church of **St. Arthur**, an orphan-school, and an hospital. There is also an academy, consisting of six classes, with an inspector, three professors, and five other teachers. The prince's library is very valuable, containing upwards of 15,000 volumes. It had also a collection of medals, but these have been removed to **Berlin**. The town has a respectable manufactory of woollen and cotton cloths, besides those of earthenware, white lead, and playing-cards, and is, upon the whole, a well-governed place.

ANSTEY, a small township in the county of Leicester, about four miles from that city, and 100 from London.

ANSTRUTHER EASTER, a royal burgh and parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, 10 miles from St. Andrew's, containing a population of about 1,000 persons. It is remarkable chiefly for its harbour, which is deemed the finest on the E. coast of the country.

ANSTRUTHER WESTER, a borough, parish, and seaport of Scotland, in the county of Fife, 23 miles from Edinburgh, on the N. shore of the Frith of Forth. To

this parish is annexed the Isle of May; and the borough, in conjunction with Anstruther Easter, Crail, Pittenweem, and Kilenreny, returns one member to parliament. The inhabitants, about 393 in number, export lobsters to various parts, particularly to London, Edinburgh, and Glasgow. They also catch white fish in abundance.

ANSWER, v. } A. S. *Andsprian*: of un-
ANSWER, n. } settled etymology. *Asa* in
ANSWERABLE, } Gothic appears to have had
ANSWERABLY, } the force of the Latin. *Con-*
ANSWERABLENESS, } *tra*. *Swarian*, I doubt not
ANSWERS. } (says Thwaites), signified pri-
mitively, to speak.

To speak in return or opposition to any thing before spoken: to any thing before affirmed or required, or demanded.

To reply to in speech or writing; and so—to account for, to excuse, or justify. And also

To satisfy the expectations or demands, to serve, or accomplish the aims, purposes, or intentions.

To be or act in return to any thing, in compliance with, in accommodation, gratification, or relation to.

þo þe kyng of France berde þis, he answered þer to,
þat he hadde hym self lond y now, and tresour al so.
R. Gloucester, v.

He went to þe kyng of France, & schewed him his reson,
þorgh þer urdenaunce þer dunepers gaf respons.
Elsif Sir William þe dunepers gaf answer.

Florent howe so thou be to write
Of Branchus death, men shall respite
As now to take augmentation,
Be as thou stonde in iudgement
Upon certaine condicium,
That thou vnto a question,
Whiche I shall aske, shalt answer.

Genew. Co. A. book 1.

That thou shalt stie vpon this moldie,
That all women leauest wilde
He soveraine of mans love.
For what woman is so chaste,
She hath as who saith, all his will,
And ellies maie she nought fulfill
What thinge were his leauest haue.
With this answer thou shalt see
Thy selfe, and other wic sought.

Our holy living must agree with so holy a profession. You must needs be answerable unto your lie prince, and his laws, in your conversation. *Udall. Paul to the Hebrews, v. 21.*

This profession is of hygh excellencye, but to frame thy self aw-
suerably like unto it, thou hast neede much diligently to watche
about thee. *Id. Pref. to Timothe. c. vi.*

And thus as I told you, concerning this peece of good abearing: this good *answerer* hath here borne himself as wel, y^e som part he *answereth* with y^e truth, som part he *answers* it a great deale more the half, & som part *seuer* a deale. If we be content to take this fashion for *answering*: let us not make the against me as many bookes as he wyl, & put in what matter he list, & I shal neuer neede to studie much for an *answerer*, but mai make *answers* to the al shortly & shortly inough, and *answer* a leg boe in space of one paper leafe.

PrINCE. The man, I do assure you, is not here,
For I my self at this time have imploy'd him :
And therefore, I will engage my word to thee,
That I will by tomorrow dinners time,
Send him to answer thee, or any man,
For any thing he shall be charged withall.
And so, let my content com, leave the house.

FRANCE. It may be so : if he have robb'd these men,
He shall be answerable : and so farewell.

ANSWER.

ANT.

Exceeding wrath threat was Blamdenour,
And gan this bitter answer to him make;
"Too foolish Paridell! that sayest thoue
Wouldest gather false, and yet so paines wouldestake:
But not so easie will I her forsake.
This hand her wronge, this hand shall her defend."

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iv. c. 2.

Answerable whereunto was that herolde determination of Lother, who, after his engagements, against all threats and dissuasions, would go into the city of Worms, though there were as many devils in it as tiles upon their houses. *Ep. Hall's Booke of Good.*

The three kinds of ancient hunting, which distinctly require bettiness, acuteness, and strength, are completely performed in this country by a breed of hawks, which are *answerably* qualified.

Faith's Worthies, Lincolnshire.

And he came, and shode in a city of Galilee, called Nazareth, that, in the very place of his dwelling, there might be an allusion to that style or title, which is frequently given to him of the prophets, by whom he is called Netzar: so as, out of this ground, the appellation which is given him of a Nazarene, however it be, objected to him, by way of reproach, is rather a notable proof of his *answerableness* to that prediction of the prophets.

Ep. Hall's Paraphrase on Matthew.

If ever any design was so comfortably executed, it must be that of this *answerer*, who, when he would have it observed, that the author's wit is one of his own, is able to produce but three instances, two of them are mere trifles, and all three manifestly false.

Swift's Apology.

Think upon your last hour, and do not trouble yourself about other people's faults, but leave them those where they must be answered for.

Mason, on Self-Knowledge.

When a man asks me a question, I have it in my power to answer, or be silent; to answer softly or roughly, in terms of respect, or in terms of contempt.

Beattie's Essay on Truth.

The windows *answering* each other, we could just discern the glowing horizon through them—a circumstance which, however trivial in description, has a beautiful effect in landscape.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

If I pay money to a banker's servant, the banker is *answerable* for it; if I pay it to a clergyman's or a physician's servant whose usual business it is not to receive money for his master, and he embroyles it, I must pay it over again.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ANT, n. } Ant or Emmett; contracted and
ANTHILL, } corrupted from the A. S. *Emmet*,
Emet. Skinner. In Ger. *Amels*, *Amelisse*, so called
(says Wachter), a fugado, because it is never idle;
from *incise*, *idleness*; and A. prefixed "otium negat."
In A. S. *Amet*, is, instructive, furnished, provided, from
the verb *Ametan*.

You might have sent them throng out of the town:

Like *ants*, when they do spoil the king of corn,
For winter's dired, which they bear to their do:
When the black swarms creep over all the fields,
And thwart the grass by strait paths drag their prey:
The great grivins then soon on their shoulers trune,
Some *déris* the troupe, some *chassie* eke the show:
That with their travell chafed is eke paine.

Surrey's Arcadia, book iv.

On ev'ry side are seen descending down,
Thick swarms of Southerly loodes from the Town.
Thou, in Battalia, march embold'd *Ants*,
Fiercely of Winter, and of future Wants,
T'invade the Corn, and to their Cells convey
The plunder'd Forrage of their yellow Prey,
The subtle Troops, along the narrow Tracks,
Scarce hear the wrightly Bortlers on their Backs:
Some set their Shoulers to the post'rous Grain;
Some guard the Spoil, some lash the lagging Train;
All ply their several Tasks, and equal Toil sustain.

Dryden.

If a man meditate upon the universal frame of nature,—the earth with men upon it, the dirtiness of souls excepted, will not seem much other than an *ant-hill*, where some *ants* carry corn, and some carry their young, and some go empty; and all to and fro a little heap of dust.

Bacon, on Learning.

ANT, in Zoology, the popular name of the Formice of Linnaeus. There are various species of this destructive insect; the most curious of which appears to be the termes fatale. They are all equally detrimental to the farmers; and various modes have been from time to time suggested for their destruction. See Acanthace and ENTOMOLGY, Div. II.

ANT EGGS, a name generally applied to little white balls, found in the nests of ants; and supposed to be their own. These are at first of very small dimensions, and bear a striking resemblance to maggots; but as they increase, a silken species of skin appears completely to envelope them. Partridges, pheasants, and other birds consider them excellent food, and destroy an infinite number. See ENTOMOLGY, Div. II.

ANT HILLS are the little hillocks which are thrown up by the ants, and in which they brood to the amount of many thousands; sometimes occupying a large portion of pasture lands. See as above.

ANTA. See ANANTA.

ANTA, in Ancient Architecture, a pilaster or square column placed at the corners of the walls of temples, and other buildings. M. Perrault derives their name from ante, before, because placed in front of walls, and quoins of buildings, for security. The anta made a projection from the wall equal to one-eighth of its face, except an ornament projected forward, in which case the projection of the anta always equalled that of the ornament. Vitruvius calls those angular anta, which have but two faces out of the wall, to distinguish them from those placed at the end of walls or porticos which have three faces. Festus confines the use of anta to the porches of gates or doors.

ANTAB, or ANTICUTTE, in Geography, a town of Syria, 130 miles S. W. of Dairbek, and 40 N. of Aleppo. It lies in E. lon. 37°, 25', N. lat. 36° 42'; and is supposed by some to have been the *Antiochia* of Tacitus of the Romans. The town is about a league in circumference, and possesses a singular appearance, being built on two hills, and the interjacent valley; on the former of which the dwelling-houses are erected, in the latter the shops. These have flat roofs, and the stranger perceives the people wandering beneath him in the covered streets, while he imagines himself walking on the ground. The river Sejour, which is conveyed by means of aqueducts to the more elevated parts, waters the whole town. The principal manufactures consist of coarse stamped calices, and bows and arrows, which form an essential article of commerce. Antab is guarded by a strong castle, which is built on a round hill, and is environed by a deep moat, cut out of the solid rock. Several medals, bearing stamps of the Cappadocian and Syrian monarchs, are occasionally to be met with at this place.

ANTACIDS, in Medicine (from *anti*, against, and *acidus*, sharp or acid.) is a term applied to those antidotes which repel or annihilate stomachic acids.

ANTACRIDA, or ANTACRIBIS (from *anti*, against, and *acer*, sharp,) in Medicine, an antidote similar to the above, being calculated to remove any pernicious affection, which has been generated either in the whole corporeal system, or in particular parts of it.

ANTEOPOLIS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Egypt, in the Thebaid, E. of the Nile, so named from Antemus, who was conquered by Hercules. After the age of Constantine, the Thebaid became two provinces,

ANT.

ANT.EO.

POLIS.

ANT.EO.
POLIS.ANTAN-
DROS.

and Antaeopolis was the chief city of the first, and a bishopric. It had a noble temple in honour of Antaeus, the portico of which remains. The columns were 30 feet long, and five wide. The colours of the ceiling, which was painted azure and gold, retain their original beauty. It is now occupied by the Turks as a stable for their herds, and there is a wretched town built on the site of the old one, called Gana el Rebir. *Savary's Travels*, vol. i. p. 560.

ANTÆUS, in Fabulous History, a giant of Libya, the son of Terra and Neptune. He affirmed that he would build a temple in honour of his father with the skulls of his antagonists, whom he had defeated, in consequence of his prodigious strength, in wrestling. In a combat with Hercules, the latter had the advantage; but his mother communicated fresh vigour to Antæus whenever he touched her, which Hercules perceiving, raised him completely from the ground, and encircling him in his arms, crushed him to death. *Strat. vi., Juv. iii. 88.*

ANTAGONY, n.

ASTAGONIA,

ANTAGONISTICK.

Struggle against, opposition, resistance.

An apostate idolater, whether husband or wife seducing, was to die by the decree of God, *Deut. xiii. 6, 9*, that marriage therefore God himself disjoins: for others have idolatry, the moral reason of their dangerous keeping, and the incommunicable antagonism that is between Christ and Belial, will be sufficient to enforce the commandment of those two inspired reformers Ezra and Nehemiah, to put an idolater away, as well under the gospel.

Milton's Dec. and Div. of Divorce.

Fair daughter, and then son and grandchild both,
Have given to be the rule
Of Satan (for I glory in the name,
Antagonist of Heaven's Almighty King.)

Milton's Par. Lost, book x.

As the contrivances on every subject grew daily warmer, men united themselves more intimately with their friends, and separated themselves wider from their antagonists.

Hume's History of England.

PRÆ. His valour will take cold, put on your doublet.
CON. His valour will keep cold, you are deceived;
And relish much the sweeter in our ears;
It may be too, in the ordinance of nature,
Their valours are not yet so combated.
Or truly antagonistic, as to fight.

Ben Jonson's Meg. Lady, act iii. sc. 4.

Sir Francis Bacon observes, that a well written book, compared with its rivals and antagonists, is like Moses' serpent, that immediately swallowed up and devoured those of the Egyptians. *Spectator*, No. 10.

ANTAGONIST MUSCLES (from *anti*, against, and *agonistês*, I contend), in Anatomy, are muscles which operate in direct opposition to each other.

ANTALKALINES, in Medicine, remedies which are made use of in order to neutralize alkalis.

ANTANACLASIS, in Rhetoric, (from *anti*, against; and *anaclasis*, reverberation, I reverberate, strike again,) a repetition of the same word, in a different signification, as, "Let the dead bury their dead." "Live while you live, the epicure will say." It also means a return to the same matter, at the conclusion of a long parenthesis.

ANTANDROS, APOLLONIA, ASSOS, CIMMERIS, or EPOXIA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Troas, in Asia Minor. According to Strabo, it was the arsenal of the Cimmerians for upwards of a century. Near this place, after the destruction of Troy, Æneas built

his fleet. Servius affirms that the people of Andros, during their revolt, were driven from that island, and built Antandros. In its vicinity is Alexandria, the hill where Paris is supposed to have sat and adjusted the difference between the three contending goddesses respecting their pre-eminence in beauty. Some authors fix a town of this name at the bottom of Mount Ida, and give its name to a chain of mountains, extending from Troy to the sea coast.

ANTARCTICK, *adj.* } *Anti*, against, and *Apostro*,
} the Bear.

And of this world so round within that rolling case,
Two points there be that never move, but firmly keep their place.

The tone we see away, the totter stands oblect,
Against the same, denuding just the ground by line direct;
Which by imagination, drawn from the one to the other
Toucheth the centre of the earth, for way there is none other;
And the one be called the poles, describe by stars not bright
Arise the one northward we see, antarkic; thither bright
Wynat, p. 308.

See he had search'd and had,
From Eden over Pontus and the pool
Maotis, up beyond the river Ob;
Downward as far antarkic.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

To you who live in chill degree,
As map informs, at fifty-three,
And do not much for cold atone,
By bringing thither fifty-one.
Methinks all climes should be alike,
From triple e'er to pole arise,
Since you have such a constitution
As no where suffer diminution.

Dryden's Epistle vii.

Some plough drops the restless waves when shed,
And new fresh their wing of eddies spread;
Advance, or cross the broad Pacific deep;
Obliquely north the floating squadrons sweep;
Still circle ply to reach the frozen pole,
Now hurry'd on Samathan tempests roll.

Brooks's Unit. Beauty, book iv.

ANTARCTIC POLE, in Geography (of *anti*, contra, and *apostro*, ura, bear,) being opposite to the arctic pole, denotes the opposite end of the earth's axis, or the south pole. The stars near this pole are not visible in our horizon.

The ANTARCTIC CIRCLE is one of the smaller circles of the sphere, parallel to the equator, and distant from the south pole 23°, 30'.

ANTARES, in Astronomy, the Scorpion's heart, a fixed star of the first magnitude, in the constellation of Scorpion. See ASTROLOGY, Div. ii.

ANTATO, or ANTALOS, a town of Abyssinia, capital of the province of Enderbi, and containing about 10,000 inhabitants. It is but a poor place, as far as relates to its houses, which are mere tents; but is the residence of the Ras, whose palace is respectable.

ANTAVARE, or ANTAVART, in Geography, a province of the island of Madagascar, lying in S. lat. 21°, 30', and bounded by the province and cape of Manoul. It is well cultivated, and produces a vast quantity of rice; which, were it not for the natural unhealthiness of the climate, would prove an invaluable article of commerce. Bananas, honey, sugar cane, and yams, may be added to the natural productions of Antavare. The slave trade is still exercised here in all its cruelty; and the unfortunate victims are principally brought from the island of Comoro. The river Mananzari, which rises in the mountains of Ambohitamene, runs through the province in a S. E. direction.

ANTAN-
DROS.—
ANTAVARE.

ANTAXI-
MES.
—
ANTE-
CEDE.

ANTAXIMES, a province on the S.E. coast of Madagascar, which was formerly much resorted to by Europeans, but has of late been neglected by them, on account of the badness of the roadstead. Antaximes is watered by a great many fine streams; but the inland navigation is hazardous. The principal productions are rice and cattle; and the country is said to be more free from miasmas than most other parts of Madagascar.

ANTE, or ESTE, in Heraldry, pieces engrafted into each other, in the manner of dove-tails, swallow-tails, or the like.

ANTEAMBULONES, in Antiquity, state servants employed to walk first to clear the way for persons of rank.

ANTECEDE', v.

ANTECEDENCE,

ANTECEDENT, n.

ANTECEDENT, adj.

ANTECEDENT, adv.

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ANTECEDENT, adv.

Ante, before, and cedo, to go.
To go before, in space or time. The more common verb is, to precede.

You say that every episcopate grants a new right and taketh away the ancient title; yet you say before this episcopate neither grants nor can give any right, which conclusion is manifestly repugnant to the antecedent, therefore you must be answered thus, if nothing be given, nothing is taken away.

Hall, *King Henry F.* fo. 73.

And the antecedent shall you find as true when you ride over my letter as himself can say nay, but that the consequence is formal.

See *Thos. More's Works*, fo. 1115. v. 2.

Wherefore Lewis, King of France, desirous of that province, which of late dayes belonged to his antecedents and progenitors, sought barely the wayes and means to have this little Richard under his tyranny and gydyage.

Fulken, p. 187.

Such things as do not at all depend upon external circumstances neither, nor are caused by things natural antecedent, but by some supernatural power; I say, when such future events as these are foretold, and accordingly come to pass, this can be ascribed to no other but such a Being as comprehends, ways, and governs all; and is, by a peculiar privilege, or prerogative, of its own nature, Omnipotent.

Codsworth's *Intellectual System*.

Let him then learn perfectly the right parts of speech, let him then learn the right joining together of substantives with adjectives, the noun with the verb, the relative with the antecedent,

Arham's *School-master*.

I have proved from Scripture, and because I have attested it with the Catholic testimony of the primitive fathers, calling Episcopate, the Apostolate, and Bishop successors of St. Peter in particular; and of all the Apostles in general in their ordinary offices in which they were superior to the LXVII. the antecedents of the Presbyterate.

Faylor's *Episcopacy Asserted*.

Many tribes of animals, acknowledged to be all of the same species, derive from nature a much more remarkable distinction of genius, than what, antecedent to custom and education, appears to take place among men.

Smith's *Wealth of Nations*.

When antecedents, concomitants, and consequents, causes and effects, signs, and things signified, subjects and adjuncts are necessarily connected with each other, we may infer the causes from the effects, and effects from causes, the antecedents from the consequents, as well as consequents from antecedents, &c.; and thereby be pretty certain of many things both past, present, and to come.

Watts's *Logic*.

The salvation of men by the coming of Christ, is and ought to be ascribed primarily to the antecedent love and original essential goodness of the Father Almighty.

Clarke's *Sermons*.

When we were enemies [saith St. Paul], we were reconciled unto God by the death of his Son: Wha we were enemies, that implies

God antecedently to any man's conversion to have been appeased, and become favourably disposed toward all men.

Burrow's *Sermons*.

He [Lord Curzon] ended his days in Durham-house, in the Strand, near London, on the 14th Jan. in sixteen hundred thirty and nine, and was buried in the church of Cosmo Pabst, on the first of March following, after he had enjoyed the dignity of lord keeper about 15 years, if it be not more proper to say, that dignity had enjoyed him so long. His front and presence did bespeak a venerable regard not inferior to any of his antecedents.

Wood's *Allen. Oves*.

ANTECEDENTIAL CALCULUS. See ANTECEDENTIAL ANALYSIS.

ANTECEDENTIA, in Astronomy. A planet is said to move in antecedentia when it appears to proceed westward, contrary to the usual course or order of the signs, as from Taurus to Aries; and it is said to move in consequentia, when it proceeds forward or eastward from Aries towards Taurus.

ANTECURSORES, in Antiquity, a party of horse sent before an army to select the best roads, fix upon a place for encamping, and gain any intelligence that might be useful.

ANTEDATE, v. } Ante, before, and datum,
ANTEDATE, n. } given; from do, to give. See DATE.

To date before the time, to anticipate.

So we win of doubtful Fate;

And if good due to us meant,

We that good shall antedate;

Or if ill, that ill prevail.

Andrew Marvell, in *Edm.* v. iii. p. 287.

SERN. To do, to do,

It worse than to have lost; and to despair,

Is but to antedate those miseries

That must fall on us.

Montaigne's *Duke of Milan*, act i. sc. 3.

Ignorantly thankful creature! thou beg'st in such a way, that by what would appear an exalted gratitude, if it were not a despicable action, the manner of thy petitioning, beforehand, rewards the grant of thy request.

Dugli's *Occasional Reflections*, sec. 1. reb. 1.

He [Mr. Murray] got a WARRANT to be an earl, which was signed at Newcastle. Yet he got the king to antedate it, as if it had been signed at Oxford, to get the precedence of some whom he hated; but he did not pass it under the great seal during that king's life; but did it after his death: so his warrant, not being passed, died with the king.

Barnet's *own Times*.

Andromache! my soul's far better part,

Why with untimely sorrows heaves thy heart?

No hostile hand can antedate my doom,

'Till fate condemn me to the silent tomb,

Fix'd is the term of all the race of earth.

Pope, *Died 6th*, p. 624.

ANTEDATE, in Commerce, is to date letters, or a bill or note, prior to the actual transaction taking place, which is sometimes of serious consequence to business. In France, it was once customary to endorse bills of exchange merely with a name on the back, so that they could be antedated at pleasure, which caused much inconvenience in case of failures, and was put an end to in 1683, by the regulations for commerce, which enacted, that signatures without dates on the back of bills of exchange, should not be considered as orders; and antedates are liable to the same punishment as forgeries.

ANTEDATE, is also used in Law, to express a false date prior to the real one being affixed to a bond, writing, act, deed, or bill.

ANTE-
CEDE.
—
ANTE-
DATE.

ANTEDILUVIANS.

ANTEDILUVIAN.

ANTEDILUVIAN, *n.*

ANTEDILUVIAN, *adj.*

ANTEDILUVIAN.

their signification.

Ante, before, and *diluvium*, a deluge, from *diluo*, to wash away.

Before the flood, or deluge.

Ante, before, and *lucio*, to shine, to be light.

Before the light of day.

When the day of desolation shall come upon the city and temple of Jerusalem, the inhabitants will be as thoughtless and unconcerned, and as unprepared for it, as the antediluvians were for the flood in the days of Noah. *Parson's Lectures.*

The sinners of the antediluvian world, abusing the long space of one hundred and twenty years which he allowed for their repentance, perished at the end of it without mercy. *Id.*

ANTEDILUVIANS (of *ante*, before, and *diluvium*, a deluge), the general name that has been given in history to that portion of mankind which existed before the Noachian flood. In our Historical Division, vol. ix. p. 1, &c. we have given the only authentic chain of events belonging to this period, from the Mosiac narrative. A few particulars illustrative of the religion, polity, longevity, and chronology of the Antediluvian world, may not be unacceptable to the reader in this place, and will enable us to notice some of the more recent contributions to this obscure part of human history.

Religion.

The religion of the Antediluvians can, at no period, be regarded as purely natural, or that of unassisted reason. Although it soon presented the same important distinction between that which was revealed, or preserved in its revealed state, and that which was corrupted by tradition, which has been seen in the history of all succeeding ages, it supplies no proof of the existence of any true religion amongst men, which was not of divine origin, and sustained by the observance of God's own appointed means. If the ritual of the true religion was at this time simple, so is that of the far more perfect dispensation of Christianity. On the other hand, though "violence" and evil passions abounded amongst the degraded Cainites, and finally produced universal corruption, we have no authenticated instances of idolatry before the flood.

Sacrifices.

Upon the principle that all is vain worship which God has not enjoined (Mark vii. v. 7), many learned men have contended that the account of the sacrifices of Cain and Abel, furnishes strong proof of the divine institution of that rite. It is certain, that it contains the only formal instance of Antediluvian worship; and the conduct of Abel is brought forward as having evinced his faith in God, &c. Heb. xi. 4. In which place he is said to have offered "a more excellent," or, according to Wickliffe's Testament, which correctly expresses the original phrase, "a much more sacrifice" (or much more of a sacrifice) than Cain. Warburton, with his characteristic warmth for his own hypothesis, has remarked, that the two principal observances of the Jewish ritual, being those of the sabbath and the sacrifices, as the sacred

historian is careful to impress us with the divine origin of the former, so he would unquestionably have recorded that of the latter, had it been equally a fact. To this it has been well replied, that the one is, perhaps, as explicitly recorded as the other. That God rested from the work of creation on the seventh day, and blessed or hallowed it, is the reason for its observance, assigned Exod. xx. 11.; and that God in some peculiar, but well known way (probably by fire from the shekinah which hovered over Eden), blessed, and "had respect" unto the offering of Abel, is as distinctly said. But nowhere have we any express command, for the posterity of Adam to observe the seventh day as holy until the Mosiac law was given; nor have we, on the other hand, any thing like those traces of its continued observance which we have of the practice and acceptability of sacrificial rites. Kennicott and others, after Fagius, contend that in the opening of the history of Cain and Abel's sacrifices, *והקריב* ought not to be rendered generally "in process of time," but "at the appointed time or season." (See this subject very fully pursued by Dr. Magee, in his 2d volume of discourses on the Scripture Doctrines of "Atonement and Sacrifice.")

That the sabbath was observed by the pious Antediluvians, we think is clear, from the familiarity with which it is introduced into the Jewish law, and the incontrovertible circumstance of a septennial division of time having obtained over various ancient nations, totally unconnected with the Jews, and coeval with them in their origin as nations. Thus there appear to have been appointed means and appointed times of divine worship.

Perhaps also we have a pretty clear indication of the "presence of the Lord," being more distinctly manifested in some particular place or places than others, in the lamentation of Cain, and the remark of the sacred historian, Gen. iv. 16; while the fact noticed at the end of the same chapter, "Then began men to call themselves by the name of Jehovah," would argue both a social and public profession of their religion. But Maimonides, and some other critics, consider this to have been a profane calling on the Lord.

Social religion.

The civil polity, or government of the Antediluvian world, appears to have been, in the first instance, purely patriarchal, or under the dominion of the respective fathers of its different tribes; so far, at least, as any public government can be supposed to have been exercised before any notions of separate property could have been entertained, or any other social distinctions were in existence, than those which arose out of the greater manual strength or skill. And these distinctions, in the aggregate of numerous families, would be pretty well equalized. The longevity of this period, too, would strengthen the ties of kindred, and the claims of this kind of authority. To be an outcast or vagabond from such society, we see was a formidable part of Cain's punishment. But the "mighty ones," or tyrants, that are stated to have arisen in the latter part of the Antediluvian history, hastened

ANTEDILUVIAN.

Sabbath.

ANTEDILUVIAN.

on the work of sin and slavery, until the Judge of all the earth interfered in the awful visitation of the flood. There seems to be no correct idea of these "men of renown" afforded us in the common translation of the Bible (Gen. vi. 4, 5), although Moses appears to be anxious to give us a correct impression of their character, by the several epithets under which he names them. 1. נִפְלְאִים Nephilim—naphal—fallen ones; apostates from the true religion: נִפְלְאִים, according to the LXX, literally earth-born. 2. גִּבּוֹרִים Gibborim—gabar—victorious, heroes or conquerors, 3. אֲנָשִׁים אֲנָשִׁים—men of name; deriving surnames from their unworthy deeds; men not content with the simple family distinctions of their ancestors. These are represented as "filling the earth with violence," and greatly instrumental in the final ruin of their race.

Arts.

The attainments of the Antediluvians in the arts, appear to have been considerable. The smelting of metals is mentioned, and a sort of community (as we understand the sacred historian), when, in the time of Tubal-Cain, the seventh in descent from Adam, were artificers in brass and iron (Gen. iv. 22.) At the same period, and in the same family, we read of a remarkable proficiency in the science of music, and the terms used are probably generic; the one which we render "harp," meaning all stringed instruments, and the other rendered "organ," all wind instruments. Cain himself is said to have built a city, which he named after his son; and, as he had been peculiarly "cursed" in his former occupation, on account of the murder of Abel, though we can form no notion of the dimensions of this place, it is not improbable, that an aversion to agricultural pursuits would partly impel him to cultivate the other arts and attainments for which his family so soon became noted. Josephus has some learned fables on the skill of Seth in the science of astronomy; hieroglyphic pillars of his erection being, as that historian states, extant in his own time. Certain it is, that of all the sciences, astronomy appears to have been early known in great perfection. The astrology of the Chaldeans was the daughter of the true science, we cannot doubt, if its other parent were superstition; and the Hindoo observations which have been recently known to us, argue a considerable and very early acquaintance with the heavens. The most unequivocal proof, however, of the state of Antediluvian science, is found in the celebrated work of Noah, the building of the ark. This vessel, reckoning 18 inches only to the cubit, by which it is described (it has been conjectured by some authors, as we have seen, vol. ix. p. 8, to have been equal to 22 inches), would be of the enormous burden of 42,413 tons, equal to about the burden of 18 of our first-rate men-of-war. Now, though the command to construct such a vessel in the heart of a continent might well be, as it was, divine, and some directions were appended to the command respecting its size and structure, we apprehend that no person who has not been professionally accustomed to ship-building, in our own times, would very successfully engage in the task of the patriarch, upon his instructions; and we have no reason to suppose there was any thing supernatural in his skill. In this vessel, as well as the "vast and intricate" of the mechanism, several other sciences would naturally be called for, to ventilate, enlighten, and render it manageable. Whether the term "my translated" window, do not refer to some luminous

or transparent substance, the learned are by no means agreed. The ark, it must be remembered, rode the most awful storm the world ever knew, and though divinely guarded, it is perfectly analogous to the ways of God in supposing that the builder was left to develop all his own judgment and resources by way of foresight and prudent care.

Of the manners of the Antediluvians we have various pictures in Scripture, and in the traditions of the east; encouraging only in the original and universal happiness of the early period of their history, and in the general licentiousness that ultimately prevailed. We have seen, however, the awful instance of human depravity exhibited at a very early period of Antediluvian history, in the murder of Abel by his brother Cain; after which, a sense of what was right amongst men, seems to have been feared by him equally, perhaps more, than his malediction from God. "Every one that findeth me," says he bitterly, "shall slay me." The same mixed scene continues to be exhibited to us in Scripture. Lamech, the fifth in descent from him, introduces polygamy; and his whole character is, at least, as questionable as that extensive ancient and modern custom has been pernicious to human happiness. But his grandson dwelling in tents, and surrounded by a class of successful shepherds or agriculturists, devoted to those pursuits that Cain at first abandoned, and cheered by the musical inventions of their family, is at least a relieving picture; the progress of the useful arts would extract many a thorn from their lot, and in their direct application to the implements of husbandry, peculiarly relieve their circumstances as connected both with the curse of Cain's and Adam's sin. We find the posterity of Seth remembering the latter at a much later period, Gen. v. 29, and anticipating the talents of Noah, with a view perhaps to similar objects.

The greatest moral fact in the history of Antediluvian Final manners, has excited much controversy among biblical critics. It is that recorded, Gen. vi. 1, 2. After tracing the posterity of Cain to Lamech (Gen. iv.), the historian abandons that line of the family of Adam, and details in the next chapter the children of his third son Seth to Noah. Thus completing as much of the literal history of this period, as God thought proper to perpetuate, he enters at once upon the moral history of the later ages, in the circumstance alluded to. "The sons of God," mentioned in this text, were thought by the fathers, almost unanimously, to intend either angels or the demons of the heathen world (see the article ANGELS in this division), who were represented by Socrates as the fathers of the heroes (apud Platon. Cratyl.) and as "all of them born from love either of a god with a mortal woman, or of mortal men with goddesses." What the priests had thus introduced into the grossest parts of the pagan system, and the philosophers were prepared to support and justify, the Jews, in later ages, it is well known, endeavoured to prove consistent with the Mosiac account; and the fathers rather exceeded than came behind them in this disposition. Later writers, among whom is the learned Dr. Wall, have imagined, that when men began to multiply on the earth, the chief men took wives of all the handsome poor women that they chose, and "powerful men," having "unlawful intercourse with inferior women," the children of this illicit commerce were the heroes and gods of antiquity! Most modern critics

ANTE-
LUVIAN.

concur in understanding the passage in question to describe a gradual degeneracy of the pious race of Seth arising from their matrimonial connections with the family of Cain, or with the profane part of mankind, and thus derive a useful but neglected lesson to the church and the world. From this period, the decline of religion and virtue was awfully accelerated—the corruption was universal so it was individual and almost without exception: it appears to us to have been peculiarly of a sensual character, “they were eating and drinking, marrying, and giving in marriage, to the day that Noah entered into the ark.” And the principal cause of this degeneracy was the wrong exercise of their own choice. “They took them wives, of all which they chose.” Idolatry and more refined rebellion against God seem to have been the offspring of the greater maturity of the world. Eutyphius perpetuates several traditions of the grossness of Antediluvian licentiousness.

Longevity.

The longevity of the Antediluvians has excited some attention of late years, in connection with the question of the population and chronology of the world at this period. We have noticed an absurd attempt to consider the scriptural year to have been lunar and not solar in another part of this work (Hist. Div. vol. ix. p. 7)—whatever they were, and we see no reason to doubt their being of the ordinary length,* they were prolonged to our feeble race throughout the Antediluvian history in undecaying and remarkable vigour; for while Adam, who introduces this period of human history, died at 930, Noah, who closes it, reached 950 years! There can be no question that this great peculiarity of those times bore materially on the first benediction of mankind (Gen. I. 28), on the transmission of knowledge of every kind, and on the strength of the social union.

Transmission
of knowledge.

That the transmission of knowledge would be materially aided by such extraordinary longevity, may be made to appear very distinctly in considering the probable channels of sacred knowledge throughout the Antediluvian period, and to the times of Moses, the first sacred historian. Taking the ordinary calculation of the Bible chronology, Adam, who died in the year of the world 930, would be contemporary with Lamech, the father of Noah, fifty-six years; and Shem, the son of Noah, would be contemporary with Isaac fifty years. Isaac was contemporary with Levi fifty-three years (dying at 188, in the year of the world 2288), and Levi, probably the longest-lived of Jacob's sons, was the great grandfather of Moses. Thus, through the whole period of Antediluvian history, whatever knowledge was communicated to our first parents, would have to travel but through one single person, Lamech, to Noah.

Population.

Burnet, in his ‘Theory of the Earth,’ has supposed that the first human pair might have “left, at the end of 100 years, or of the first century, ten pair of breeders (which is no hard supposition, he says), and there would arise from these, in 150 years, a greater number than the earth was capable of; allowing every pair to multiply in the same decuple proportion that the first pair did.” He finally, therefore, suggests a quadruple multiplication only, and then exhibits the following table of increase during the sixteen centuries which, according to Archbishop Usher's Chronology, preceded the flood.

Century

I.	- - - - -	10
II.	- - - - -	40
III.	- - - - -	160
IV.	- - - - -	640
V.	- - - - -	2,560
VI.	- - - - -	10,240
VII.	- - - - -	40,960
VIII.	- - - - -	163,840
IX.	- - - - -	655,360
X.	- - - - -	2,621,440
XI.	- - - - -	10,485,760
XII.	- - - - -	41,943,040
XIII.	- - - - -	167,772,160
XIV.	- - - - -	671,088,640
XV.	- - - - -	2,684,354,560
XVI.	- - - - -	10,737,418,240

ANTE-
LUVIAN.

This is one of the most moderate calculations that has ever been made on the subject of the population of the world at the period of the deluge, and yet is far above the highest calculation of the present number of mankind, which has never, we believe, been supposed to exceed from 800 to 1,000 millions. But what could the learned author mean by the first pair having “left” only ten pair of marriageable persons at the end of the first century; and by omitting all their other children? Adam lived, as we have seen, nearly a thousand years; and other of the Antediluvian patriarchs had children, at regular intervals, after the age of 500; we can hardly, therefore, suppose the first parents of mankind to have had children only during so short a period of their lives. This consideration alone alters the whole basis of his reckoning. Wharton and Cockburn have entered into similar calculations, widely differing in their result: but with so many essential data wholly wanting, as 1. A settled epoch at which the deluge took place. 2. A knowledge of the periods of puberty, gestation, and nursing among the Antediluvians. 3. The proportion of habitable land to water on the globe, and the general condition of the earth's surface before the deluge; we apprehend that all such estimates must be too vague for any scientific or useful purpose. We particularly observe, that all the calculators in question are continually adjusting their results by a comparison with the present condition and resources of the globe; and abandon the most characteristic parts of their theory to arrive at some probable number.

It may be worth remarking, that the accuracy of the common epoch of the deluge, upon which every calculation of the final number of the Antediluvian world must first be formed, has been thrown of late into at least still greater doubt than ever, by the laborious work of Dr. Hales, on Chronology. Having produced 130 different opinions respecting the epoch of the Mosiac cosmogony, and reviewed the most celebrated systems of chronology, ancient and modern, this author finally suggests the year n. c. 5411, as the period of the formation of the world; and that of n. c. 3155, as the epoch of the deluge. The authors of the Universal History had previously rejected the Usherian period, and preferred that of the Samaritan Hebrew text, which adds 650 years to the common date; but the principal opinions brought together by Dr. Hales, in the following table, will be seen to differ in their extremes almost to the amount of the entire era of the Antediluvian world according to that date.

* This is well ascertained by Dr. Hales, and others, to have been reckoned at 360 days in all parts of the ancient world.

ANTEDI-
LUVIAN.

Epochs of the Deluge.

	A. C.
Septuagint Version	3216
Jackson	3170
HALES	3155
Josephus	3146
Persian	3103
Hindoo	3102
Samaritan	2998
Howard	2698
Playfair	2362
Usuk and English Bible.	2348
Marshall	2344
Petavius	2329
Struchius	2293
Hebrew	2288
Vulgar Jewish	2104

Dr. Hales, it will be seen, approaches much nearer to the Septuagint than the Hebrew calculation, which latter, is the foundation of the Usherian chronology. But he founds the basis of his chronological system on the harmonized chronology of Josephus and Theophilus, bishop of Antioch, A. D. 168; fixing his *pene-tam aetate* in the birth of Cyrus, A. C. 599, which led to his accession to the Persian throne, A. C. 559; of Media, A. C. 551; and of Babylonio, A. C. 536; "Far from these several dates," he adds, "carefully and critically ascertained and verified, the several and respective chronologies of these kingdoms branched off; and from the last especially, the destruction of Solomon's temple by Nebuchadnezzar, A. C. 586, its correcter date, which led to its foundation, A. C. 1627; thence to the Exode, A. C. 1648; thence to Abraham's birth, A. C. 2153; thence to the reign of Nimrod, A. C. 2254; thence to the Deluge, A. C. 3155; thence to the creation, A. C. 5411."

The line of the Antediluvian patriarchs,
I. According to the Hebrew text, is

	Began his life in the year of the world	Had his son in the year of his life	Lived after his son's birth, years	Lived in all, years	Died in the year of the world
Adam - - -	1	130	800	930	930
Seth - - -	130	105	807	912	1042
Enos - - -	235	90	815	905	1140
Cainan - -	325	70	840	910	1235
Mohalaleel -	395	65	830	895	1290
Jared - - -	460	102	800	902	1422
Enoch - - -	622	65	300	365	987
Methuselah	687	186	782	979	1656
Lamech - -	874	182	595	777	1651
Noah - - -	1056	500			

II. According to the Samaritan text.

	Began his life in the year of the world	Had his son in the year of his life	Lived after his son's birth, years	Lived in all, years	Died in the year of the world
Adam - - -	1	130	800	930	930
Seth - - -	130	105	807	912	1042
Enos - - -	235	90	815	905	1140
Cainan - -	325	70	840	910	1235
Mohalaleel	395	65	830	895	1290
Jared - - -	460	102	785	847	1307
Enoch - - -	522	65	300	365	687
Methuselah	587	67	653	720	1307
Lamech - -	654	53	600	653	1307
Noah - - -	707	500			

ANTEDI-
LUVIAN.

III. According to the Septuagint version.

	Began his life in the year of the world	Had his son in the year of his life	Lived after his son's birth, years	Lived in all, years	Died in the year of the world
Adam - - -	1	230	700	930	930
Seth - - -	230	305	707	912	1042
Enos - - -	435	190	715	905	1340
Cainan - -	625	170	740	910	1535
Mohalaleel	795	165	730	895	1690
Jared - - -	960	102	800	902	1982
Enoch - - -	1122	165	200	365	1467
Methuselah	1287	187	782	969	2256
Lamech - -	1474	188	565	753	2227
Noah - - -	1662	500			

Dr. Hales has shown, with considerable force of argument, that there could be originally no difference between the Hebrew and Greek chronologies; that the computation of Josephus was, in his time, conformable to both; and, consequently, that the chronology either of the original Hebrew, of the Greek version of the Scriptures, or of the writings of Josephus, must have been

ANTEDILUVIAN.

since adulterated. On the authority of Ephraim Syrus, who died in the fourth century of the Christian era, he confidently alleges, that a great and designed alteration has taken place in the Hebrew text. A traditional prediction being current, that the Messiah should certainly appear in the sixth millenary of the world, Ephraim affirms, that "the Jews subtracted 600 years from the generations of Adam, Seth, &c. in order that their own books might not convict them upon the point." According to Dr. Hales, therefore, the patriarchal lives of this period stand thus:

	Began his life in the year of the world	Lived after the birth of his son, years	Had his son in the year of his life	Lived in all years	Died in the year of the world
Adam - - -	1	230	700	930	930
Seth - - -	280	205	707	912	1442
Enos - - -	435	190	715	905	1240
Cainan - -	625	170	740	910	1534
Mahalaalee	795	165	730	895	1690
Jared - - -	960	162	800	962	1922
Enoch - - -	1122	165	200	365	1487
Methuselah	1287	187	782	969	2256
Lameca - -	1747	182	*595	*777	*2251
Noah - - -	1656	500	1565	1753	12227
Deluge - -	2256	600	* Heb. † LXX.	* Heb. † LXX.	* Heb. † LXX.

The confirmation which the sacred narrative receives from the traditions and profane writers of antiquity, is principally confined to the testimony of Berosus, a Chaldean historian, who first conveyed the astrology of his country into Greece, and fragments of whose writings are preserved in Josephus, Tutilan, and Eusebius; and Sanchoniathon, who is said to have composed a history of the Phœnicians, the first book of which only is extant, in Eusebius. Berosus pretends to give us an account of ten kings who reigned in Chaldea before the deluge, and who evidently correspond with the ten patriarchs of the Mosiac account. The first of them he calls Alorus, and the last Xisuthrus, whom he states to have received revelation, in a dream, that mankind would be destroyed by a flood. That he

ANTEDILUVIAN.

was commanded, after this, to build a ship for his own preservation, that of his friends, and of certain fowls and four-footed beasts: which he was to furnish with suitable provisions. That the flood came, and being survived by Xisuthrus and his companions, they sent out some birds on its abating, who at first returned quickly to the vessel; shortly after they were sent out a second time, and came back with mud on their feet; but being let go a third time, they returned no more. Understanding from this, that the earth was appearing above the waters, Xisuthrus is said to have taken up some of the planks of his vessel, and to have found that it had grounded on a mountain. Sanchoniathon, extolled as he is by Porphyry, and commented upon at great length by Bishop Cumberland, has nothing equal to the distinctness of this short account. After a rambling cosmogony of the creation, he tells us that all mankind were the descendants of Protenus and Eon, the latter of whom discovered the food that may be gathered from trees. Their children were Genus and Geuen, who introduced the worship of the sun, calling him Beelsamen, the lord of heaven, on account of a memorable drought. Their offspring were Phos, Phor, and Phlox, or Light, Fire, and Flame, who first discovered the use of fire by rubbing two pieces of wood together, and had sons of vast stature, who gave their names, to Mount Cassius, Libanus, Antilibanus, and Brathys. The children of these giants were, Memramus, Hysarunius, and Usous; Hysarunius, being the inventor of huts made of reeds and rushes, and Usous the first worshipper of fire and wind. In the days of these latter chiefs, women first became licentious in their manners. The inventions of buotting, fishing, forging and working iron, are traced to various of their descendants, until we come to Chrysor, who introduced all descriptions of fishing tackle, and first ventured out in a boat to sea, for which exploit he was deified. He goes on to trace the history of this family until he comes to Misor, the father of Thoth or Tamutis, the Mercury of the Egyptians, whom he notices to be eleven generations in descent from Protenus; Moses makes twelve from Adam to Misraim, whom he places at the head of that nation. Sanchoniathon makes no other mention of the flood than the exploit of Chrysor may be supposed to contain by way of an allusion. We have already noticed the classical distinction of the ages of the world (see the article Aor, p. 216 of this vol.), the first of which, the golden age, clearly describes the paradisaical state of mankind; the peaceful early state of the Antediluvians may well be called, in various respects, a silver age; while their gradual declension, and increased depravity, as well, perhaps, as the inventions of different periods, were set forth by the brazen and the iron age. The opening of Ovid's Metamorphoses has also met our attention in the Historical part of this work, and is in most striking coincidence with the sacred history.

ANTEN-
NÆ.ANTEN-
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ANTENNÆ, in Entomology, a name for what in common language are called horns or feelers of insects.

ANTENNARIUS OF COMMERSON, in Zoology. See Lophius.

ANTENNULARIA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Polypt. Order Vaginali. Generic character. Crust, plant-shaped, horny, with tubular articulated branches surrounded with piliferous ramusculi. These are arranged in whorls, and beset with little cup-shaped teeth, which contain the animal.

This genus has been separated from the Linnean Sertularia, from the species of which, in general, it differs remarkably, in having the cells which contain the inhabitant polyptus, placed only on the little whorled fillets or ramusculi, whereas in the true Sertularia, the cup-shaped cells are always arranged along the stem and branches. Lamarck *Anim. sans Vert.* vol. ii. p. 193.

ANTEON, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Hymenoptera, of the family Proctotrupi. Generic character. Antennæ of the male with two articulations. Abdomen depressed, ovate with a distinct abrupt peduncle. Upper wings with a large, perfect, triangular areola, occupying the base, stigma broad. LATREILLE.

ANTEPENULT, from ante and penæ ultimam, the third syllable of a word, reckoning from the latter end.

ANTEPRÉDICAMENTS, in Logic, something required to be known previous to the doctrine of the predicaments. Such are the definitions and axioms prefixed to certain works.

ANTEQUERA, in Geography, a town of Grenada in Spain, containing 13,000 inhabitants. It is 26 miles north west from Málaga.

ANTEPRIOR, } Lat. from ante, before. Before,
ANTERIORITY, } either in time or space.

Among the many evils that have been devised against the demonstrated existence of a first, intelligent, self-existent Cause of all things, this has been one; that things known must be anterior to knowledge.

Hobbes's Essay on Human Knowledge.

Round his head is the nimbus or glory; an addition that was as posterior to his marriage, as the painter seems to intimate the queen's fruitfulness was anterior to it.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

But our poet (Homer) could not have seen the prophecy of Isaiah, because he lived 160 or 150 years before that prophet; and this anteriority of time makes this passage the more observable.

Pope's Iliad, xix. note on line 93.

ANTEROS, in Mythology, the son of Venus and Mars, one of the two Cupids who were the chiefs of the deities of that name. Anteros is represented at the foot of the statue of Venus de Medicis, with a heavy sullen look, agreeably to Ovid's description of him, as the cause of sickness in lovers. The other Cupid was called Eros.

ANTERIDES, in ancient Architecture, the buttresses erected to strengthen a wall. They are sometimes called *antes*, and sometimes *crinæ*.

ANTESIGNANI, in the Roman armies, a kind of soldiery posted before the legions and near the ensigns. The *antesignani* are distinguished from the *subsignani*, who were ranged in the same line with the ensign, and from the *postsignani*, who were placed behind

VOL. XVII.

them. The name was also given to those inferior officers who drilled the troops.

ANTES, in Architecture, pillars of large dimensions which support the front of a building.

ANTEVERTI, Lat. Anteverti, from ante, before, and verto, to turn.

To turn round before, so as to prevent or hinder.

Doubtless to prevent some enormous act, which may follow upon our silence, or upon the urging of lawful authority, when we are called to give evidence concerning a fact questioned, or to *antevert* some great danger to the public, to ourselves, to our friends, we may and must disclose our knowledge of a close wickedness.

Bp. Hall's Cases of Conscience.

Be the judgment never so good, yet if passion run before it, and be precipitate upon the first and sudden apprehension of the thing proposed or objected, and so *antevert* the use of deliberation, and the ripening of the judgment, there must necessarily, or at least ordinarily, follow either mistake or disorder.

Hall's Contemplations.

ANTHEDON, in Ancient Geography, a town of Bœotia. It is placed by Pausanias a little to the north of mount Messapius, and was celebrated for a temple of the Cabiri.

ANTHEDON, a town in West Palestine, upon the sea coast; the name was changed by Herod into Agrippias, in honour of Agrippa.

ANTHELIA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Polypti, order Tubiferi. Generic character. The common substance extended over marine bodies in a thin fastened mass, polypi not retractile, slightly prominent, erect, occupying the surface of the mass. Tentacula eight, pectinated.

M. Savigny, who established this genus, particularizes but one species, *A. glauca*, a native of the shores of the Red Sea, though he states that he is acquainted with five or six. Lamarck *Anim. sans Vert.* vol. ii. p. 407.

ANTHELION, from *anti*, against, *heli*, sun, denotes a meteor, which is not very common, of an appearance resembling the sun, but much larger. For an account of this phenomenon, see *Phil. Trans.* vol. llii. Part I.

ANTHELMINTHICS, (from *anti*, against, and *elmu*, a worm) in Medicine, substances which procure the evacuation of worms from the stomach and intestines.

ANTHEM, Antiphon (see in Du Cange), AS. Antefa. Fr. Antienne. It. and Spao. Antiphona. Gr. *Antiphona*. Uttering a voice or sound in return.

And when that I myself should forcé,
To me she came, and bad me for to sing,
This anthem verily in my dying,
As ye has herde.

Chaucer. The Prioresse's Tale, vol. ii. p. 58.

Pope Celestine the first appointed that the Psalmes of David should be song in manner of an *anthem* of all ye people before the sacrifice which was not wont to be done.

Barnes, in. 357, c. 2.

Then came our sophisters with an *antithem* of half an inch, out of whence some of them drew a threede of ix dayes long.

The Whale Works of Tyndall, &c. fo. 166, c. 1.

Whilst then I spake, behold! with happy eye
I spyde where at the isles feet apart
A bevie of fayre dametels close did lye,
Wapping when as the *antithem* should be sung on lye.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. iv. c. 2.

There let the pealing organ blow,
To the full-voic'd quire below;

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ANTES.

ANTHEM.

ANTHEM.

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ANTHE-
MIS.

In service high and anthem clear,
As may with sweetness, through mine ear,
Dissolve me into ecstasies,
And bring all heav'n before mine eyes.

Milton's *R. P. Psalms*.

The floods ambitious to his glories rise,
And seek their source throughout his ambient skies;
Thence in united congregations fall,
And tune their anthems o'er the warbled ball.

Brough's *Universal Beauty*, b. lii.

The he [Wyllyam with the lege herde] made unto thes revocacions or exortacions, and toke for his antelme, "Hanc igitur aquam i gaudio de fidebus saluatore." that is to meane, ye shall drewe i joy waters of ye wellys of our sayvors.

Fabyen, p. 306.

In Ecclesiastical History, all singing from side to side, alternately, after the manner of the chaunts in our cathedral service, was called *anthems*; and according to Socrates, the ecclesiastical historian, St. Ignatius, a disciple of the Apostles, was the inventor of these *antiphonal hymns*, ἀντιφωνοὶ ὕμνοι. But in our church service, the name is appropriated to certain portions of the psalms or other parts of Scripture set in florid counterpoint, and adapted to one or more voices. They are distinguished by the names of solo, bass, or full anthems. The former, in our service, have frequently symphonies for particular stops on the organ. In bass anthems there are solo parts for voices of different compass, and from different sides of the choir. A full anthem is in constant chorus, except at the leading off a figure or new point of imitation. In the Romish church solo anthems are called *motets*. A collection of our best cathedral music, from the reformation to the middle of the last century, in three large volumes fol., was published in 1760, 1768, and 1773, by Dr. Boyce, which work has since been continued by Drs. Arnold and Dupuis. Anthems were first introduced into the reformed service of the English church, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth.

ANTHEMIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Syngenesia, order Polygamia Superflua. Generic character. Receptacle convex, chaffy. Seeds crowned with a membranous border or pappus. Calyx hemispherical, its scales nearly equal, their margins scariose.

This genus contains many species, of which the following deserve particular notice.

A. NOBILIS (common chamomile) leaves bipinnate, the segments linear-subulate, a little downy; scales of the receptacle membranous, scarcely longer than the disk.

This is a perennial plant, native of the south of England, but cultivated for medical use. The flowers only are used in medicine; they have a strong but not unpleasant aromatic smell, and a nauseous bitter taste. Their active constituents are bitter extractive matter, and essential oil. The properties chiefly reside in the yellow part of the flower, viz. the florets of the disk; for this reason, the wild flowers when they can be procured, are most eligible for medical purposes, since by cultivation the florets of the ray become multiplied at the expense of the disk.

Chamomile acts on the stomach as a stimulant and tonic; but when given largely, in the form of warm infusion, it proves emetic.

The preparations of this plant in the shops, are an infusion, an extract, and the essential oil; it forms also a principal ingredient in most of the decoctions used for external application, as fomentations.

A. PYRÆTHRUM (Pellitory of Spain). Leaves tripinnate, the segments linear, stem decumbent, branches axillary, single flowered.—*Botanical Magazine*, 463.

This plant is a native of the south of Europe and the Levant; it is perennial and flowers in June and July. It is easily cultivated in this country. The root is very hot and pungent, particularly when dried; it is employed as a masticator, for relieving tooth-ache, and other painful affections of the head and face, and is recommended in cases of palsy or debility of the tongue. It appears to excite the secretion of saliva, but perhaps its good effect in relieving pain, is principally to be imputed to the counter irritation which it produces.

Another species of this genus, the *A. Cotula*, or Stinking May-weed, was formerly used in medicine, but is now disregarded, being very inferior to the *A. Nobilis*. It is a very common plant in this country by road sides, and in waste lands.

ANTHERA. See BOTANY.

ANTHERICUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Hexandria, order Monogynia. Generic character. Corolla of six petals, spreading. Capsule ovate.

This is an extensive genus of lilaceous plants, most of the species are natives of warm climates, as the Cape of Good Hope. Several are found in Europe; and one, the *A. Serotinum*, has been met with in Wales.

ANTHESPIORIA, in Classical Antiquity, a feast celebrated in Sicily in honour of Proserpine; similar feasts were also celebrated at Argos in honour of Juno; it seems to have been something of the same nature as the *harvest home* in this country.

ANTHETERION, in Ancient Chronology, the sixth month of the Athenian year. It contained twenty-nine days, and answered to the latter part of our November, and to the beginning of December.

ANTHIA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera, and family Carabici. Generic character; corselet, nearly heart-shaped; the head not narrowed behind; no obvious neck, palpi filiform, labrum oval, and projecting to the base of the last articulation of its palpi. Carabus 10-guttatus of Linnaeus belongs to this genus, and is the *Anthia decem-guttata* of Fabricius, &c.

ANTHIAS (from ἀντίς, a barber) a name given by Aristotle and Elian to a fish, which, they say, had so much cunning as to cut the line or net where it had been once caught, by means of its dorsal fin.

Bloch has made use of it as a generic term, but it is not allowed by Cuvier or Lacépède.

ANTHIDIUM, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Hymenoptera; family Apiarie. Generic character; second articulation of the labial palpi not longer than the first; maxillary palpi with only one joint; abdomen of the female below very hairy, above convex, incurved, the base broadly truncate; mandibles broad, many toothed. The extremity of the abdomen in the males of this genus is always furnished with spines.

ANTHIBIUM MANICATUM of Fabricius, (*Apis Manicata* of Linnaeus, Kirby, &c.) is the only British species known. Its nest is built in hollow trees, and is constructed in a very curious and beautiful manner, consisting of several oval cells, each having an external coat of wool, which is formed of the down of Stachys

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Germanica, *Agrostemma coronaria*, or some other woolly plant. This the female strips off with surprising industry with her strong maxillæ, rolling it up at the same time with her feet into a ball. The external coating envelopes a membranaceous cell, covered by little masses of a substance apparently made of pollen and honey, to which the woolly covering adheres: this membranaceous cell has a little orifice at the top like a chimney, and contains within it another, which is strong, coriaceous, and of a brown colour, the inner surface having somewhat of a metallic lustre. Kirby "*Monographia Apium Angliæ*," vol. i. p. 173.

ANTHOCERCIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, consisting of one species found in New Holland. Brown's *Prodromus*, 448.

ANTHOLGY, } Gr. *Ἀνθολογία*, from *ἄνθος*, a
ANTHOLOGICAL, } flower, and *λέγω*, to gather, to
choose. Commonly now applied to a selection of
flowers or beautiful pieces of poetry.

There is in the Greek *Anthology*, a remarkable mention hereof [meaning] in an epigram upon one Proclus.

Brown's *Falsæ Erroneæ*.

He (Robert Stafford) published a geographical and anthological description of all empires and kingdoms, both of continents and islands in this terrestrial globe, &c. Wood's *Athe. Græc.*

ANTHOLOGION, a sort of breviary or mass book belonging to the Greek church, and containing offices addressed to our Saviour, the Virgin, and the principal saints.

ANTHOLYZA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Triandria, order Monogynia. Generic character. Spatha 2-valved. Corolla tubular, rimbus ringeot, irregular. Stigma 3, simple. Seeds rugulose.

An African genus, of the lily tribe, containing several species.

ANTHOMYIA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Diptera; family Muscides of Latreille. Generic character; antennæ shorter than the head; head hemispherical, transverse; vertex inclined, body not much elongated. The *Anthomyia Pluvialis*, a British insect, is often seen in crowds dancing in the air, especially a short time before rain. It inhabits woods.

ANTHONY'S FIRE, ST. See *ERTSIPELAS*.

ANTHONY'S, ST. island, the most northern of the Cape Verde Islands. Topazes are found in one of its mountains, and it is said to contain mines of gold and silver. See *CAPE VERO*. The inhabitants are about 550, chiefly negroes.

ANTHONY, ST. a cape on the coast of the province of Buenos Ayres. It forms the south point of entrance into the Plata. There are three other capes of the same name, one of which forms the western extremity of the island of Cuba. Long. 84° 56' W. lat. 21° 54' N.—Another on the coast of Todos Santos in Brazil. Long. 38° 37' W. lat. 13° S.—Another on the coast of the straits of Magellan, between the bay of Arenas and the bay of Santa Catalina.

ANTHONY, ST., in Menage, in the East Division of the Hundred of Kerrier, County of Cornwall; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £4. 15s. 10d.; Patron, the King. The resident population of this parish is 351. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £63. 7s. 11d., at 2s. 10d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles S. by W. of Falmouth.

ANTHONY, ST., in Roseland, to the West Division of the Hundred of Powder, County of Cornwall; a Chapel to the Rector of Gierance; Patron, Lord Falmouth. The resident population of this parish is 163. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £100. 7s. 3d., at 2s. 5d. in the pound. It is 11 miles S. W. by S. from Tregony.

ANTHONY, WEST, is the South Division of the Hundred of East, County of Cornwall; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £12. 17s. 4½d.; Patron, R. P. Carew, Esq., Church dedicated to St. James. The resident population of this parish is 1,795. The money raised by the parish rates, in 1803, was £263. 9s. 2d., at 2s. 1½d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles S. W. from Saltash.

ANTHOPHORA, a genus of insects of the order Hymenoptera; family Apirine. Generic character; mandibles unidentate within; maxillary palpi, with six articulations.

ANTHOPHORA RETUSA, (Apis retusa of Linneus and Kirby) is a British insect, and builds its nest in hard banks of clay or gravel, and even, according to Ray, in stone walls; it contains several cells, of an oval shape, lined with a thin white membrane, each about three quarters of an inch long, and less than half an inch in diameter. "I was once very much amused," says Kirby, "at seeing a female of this species one sunny morning, very busily employed upon a brick wall, and exerting all her might to pull the mortar from between the bricks; but whether this was to prepare a place for a cell, or only a sheltered cavity to pass the night in, according to the observation of Rossi, I could not ascertain." Kirby "*Monographia Apium Angliæ*," vol. i. p. 168.

ANTHOPHYLLUM, in Natural History, a species of *Madrepore*, found in the Mediterranean.

ANTHOSPERMUM, in Botany, a genus of plants class Diocia, order Tetrandria. Generic character Male; calyx 4-partite; corolla none. Female, calyx 4-partite; corolla none. Germen inferior; styles 2 reflexed. The amber tree, a native of the Cape of Good Hope, is the best known species of this genus.

ANTHOSANTHUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Diandria, order Digynia. Natural order, Gramina or Grasses. Generic character. Calyx, gluma of two valves, one flowered. Corolla, gluma double, each of two valves; external awned, internal small, awnless.

There is only one European species of this genus, viz. the *A. Odoratam*, or Sweet-scented Vernal Grass, so well known as the grass which gives the delightful odour to new-mown hay.

ANTHRACOLITE, in Mineralogy. See *COAL*.

ANTHRAX, in Surgery. See *CARUNCLE*.

ANTHRAX, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order Diptera; family Anthracii. Generic character; palpi received into the cavity of the mouth; proboscis short, scarcely protracted.

ANTHRENUUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order Coleoptera; family Byrrhii. Generic character: antennæ shorter than the thorax; club short; palpi filiform, short; body orbiculatoovate; scutellum very minute. These insects are found on flowers: when touched, or in apprehension of danger, they contract their legs, and antennæ, and appear dead

ANTHO-
NY, ST.
—
ANTH-
RENUUS.

ANTHRE-NUS. The larvæ are found in skins and other dried animal substances, and are very destructive to museums.

ANTHRIBUS. In Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order Coleoptera; family Bruchelæ. Generic character; antennæ elavate; the elin orate, abrupt, incusated; eyes not emarginated; elytra covering the extremity of the abdomen; body short, oval, thick; thorax transverse, broader behind, lobated; rostrum short.

ANTHROPOLITES, a term denoting petrifications of the human body, as those of animals are called Zoölites.

ANTHROPOLOGY, from *ανθρωπος*, man, and *λογος*, a discourse, signifies any treatise upon human nature. In Theology, the term is used to denote a way of speaking of God, after the manner of men, by attributing to him human passions and affections.

ANTHROPOMORPHITE. } From *ανθρωπος*,
ANTHROPOMORPHITISM. } man; *μορφη*, form, shape. One who believes God to have members, shape, and countenance, similar to those of man.

The doctrine of the *Anthropomorphites*, and the *Euchites*, . . . proceeded from the literal sense of some texts of scripture.

Taylor's Palm. Discourses.

1. We are not to conceive of God as having a body, or any corporeal shape or members. This was the gross conceit of the *Anthropomorphites* of old, and of some Socinians of late, which they ground upon the gross and literal interpretation of many figurative speeches in Scripture concerning God, as where it speaks of his face, hand, and arm, &c. But we are very unthankful to God, who condescends to represent himself to us according to our capacities, if we show this condescension to the blame and reproach of the divine nature. If God be pleased to stoop to our weakness, we must not therefore level him to our infirmities.

Tillotson's Sermons, s. 2. b. 73.

But because I know you are not much swayed by names and authorities, I shall endeavour to show you, a little more distinctly, the inconveniences of that *Anthropomorphism*, which you have embraced.

Hume's Dial. concerning Nat. Religion.

In ecclesiastical history, *Anthropomorphites* were a sect of ancient heretics, who imagined God to be formed in the shape of a man. Locke seems to think that this prejudice is almost inherent in the mind: It was entertained by the whole sect of the Stoics, and examples of its influence may easily be traced, not only in the writings of many of the fathers, but also among modern divines. Other writers, however, have fallen into the opposite extreme; and supposed, that God is not only a stranger to human affections, such as pity, love, joy, &c., but that even the ideas of wisdom, justice, mercy, are different in the divine mind from what they are in our conceptions, not merely in degree, but even in kind. This opinion was embraced by Mr. Hume, and admitted by Archbishop King, though on different principles of reasoning; and has latterly received the sanction of a learned and able writer of the present day. If we consider wisdom and justice merely as affections of human nature, like pity, and joy, and love, it is undoubtedly easy to suppose that they are different, or even that they do not exist in the Divian mind. But if we refer them to the nature of things, and to the abstract principle of right and wrong, which is the commonly received standard, in that case the supposition is difficult, and would be of dangerous consequence: for it seems to admit the possibility, that the actions of men may hereafter be tried by laws, of which they could not be previously informed.

ANTHROPOPATHY, in Theology, a word of the same import as *Anthropology*, except that its sense is more restricted: from *ανθρωπος*, man; and *παθος*, passion.

ANTHROPOPHAGI, *ανθρωποφάγοι*, man; and *φαγω*, to eat. Man eaters.

Such was my procence,
And of the cannibals that each others ate,
The *Anthrophagous*, and men whose heads
Grew beneath their shoulders.

Shakespeare's Othello.

For when the scandal got fast, and ran abroad, the Theatians spared not to call the Christians Cannibals, and to impute to them *Anthrophagy*, or the devouring humane flesh, and that they made Thyestes's feast, who by the procurement of Atreus eat his own children.

Taylor's Palm. Discourses.

SUP. Marry Sir, I come to speak with Sir John Falstaff from M. Shrewsbury.

HOST. There's his chamber, his house, his castle, his standing-bed and tuckle-bed: 'tis painted about with the story of the Prodigall, fresh and new: go, knock and call; he'll speak like an *Anthrophagist*, unto thee: knock, I say.

Shakespeare's Merry Wives of Windsor. Act v. s. 3.

Whereas it is imputed unto *Anthrophagy*, or the eating of man's flesh; that cause hath been common to many other countries, and there have been cannibals or man-eaters in the three other parts of the world, if we credit the relations of Ptolemy, Strabo, and Piny.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The eating of human flesh appears to have been a custom, which has always prevailed among different nations of the globe, though not always from the same incentive. M. Petit has written a learned dissertation, in which he discusses the history and origin of man eating. According to him, the reasonableness of the custom was maintained by the whole body of Stoical philosophers; and Sextus Empiricus conceived, that to prohibit the practice of it, was the original cause of the institution of laws. Usually, this practice has been exercised by nations upon the bodies of their enemies. The Massageti, however, as described by Herodotus, killed and ate those who were weak with age: but they hurried their dead in the case of such as died from sickness. Garcilasso de la Vega mentions a people in Peru, who made canuchs of their children, in order to fatten them for the table; and Herrera speaks of the markets in China as being regularly supplied with human flesh, which was considered as a delicacy, and only fitted for the rich. The history of Milan furnishes an extraordinary instance of *Anthrophagy*. A woman was broken on the wheel, and burnt in that town in the year 1519, whose crime was a long continued practice of enticing children into her house, whom she killed and salted.

ANTHYLLIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dindelfia, order Decandria. Generic character. Calyx ventricose, 5 toothed, enclosing a small roundish legumen, which contains from one to three seeds.

This genus contains many species, most of which are natives of Europe. The *A. Fulvularia*, Kidney Vetch, or Lady's Finger, is frequently met with, in elevated situations, both in England and Scotland.

ANTIBACCHIIUS, in ancient poetry, a foot, consisting of three syllables, of which the two first are long, and the third short.

ANTIBES, a sea-port of France, in the department of Var. The harbour is small. N. lat. 43° 50'. E. long. 7° 9'.

ANTICARDIUM.

ANTI-CHRIST.

ANTICARDIUM, in Anatomy, the part of the body just under the breast, called the pit of the stomach: from *anti*, against, and *cardes*, the heart.

ANTI, **ANTI-CHRIST**, **ANTICONSUBSTITUTIONAL**, **ANTIPRINCIPAL**, &c. &c. the Greek and Latin, but without altering their signification.

My life son, the last our is, and as ye can herd, that *anti*-christ cometh, now many *anti*-christers be mad, wherefore we wite, that is the last our.

Wiclif, 1 Jon. ch. 2. p. 140.

Lytell chyldren, it is the last tyme, and as ye have heerde how that *Antichrist* shall come, even now are there many begonne to be *Antichristes* already, whereby we knowe, y^e is the last tyme.

Bdale, 1539.

If once that *anti-christian* crew
Be crush'd and overthrown,
We'll teach the nobles how to crouch,
And keep the gentry down.

France Queller in *Ellis*, v. 3. p. 123.

S. Paul saith, that *Antichrist*, the man of sin, shal sitte in the Temple of God: whereby no doubt he meane the Church.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

By the help of Sergius and the rest, in contempt of the Olde and New Testament, he made his *Antichristian* Alcham, wherein he forbade the belief and use of Holy Scriptures, commanding them to continue circumsion, and stierly to abhorre hogsties.

Stow's Chronicles.

These lies become the basis of impious theorems, which are certainly attended with ungodly lives; and then either Athelism or *Antichristianism* may come, according as shall happen in the conjunction of time and other circumstances.

Taylor's Apology for Authorized and Set Forms of Liturgy, Pref.

Had he gratified, he thinks, *antipapal* faction with his consent, and sacrific'd the church government and revenues to the fury of their covetousness, &c. an army had not his raised.

Milton's Ans. to Eik. Basilike.

That pretended friends to the government, and real enemies to this constitution, no matter whether they are such by principle, or become such by their crimes, will get into superior power, in some future time, and under some weak or wicked prince: and when ever this happens, the subversion of our constitution, and of our liberty by consequence, will be the most easy enterprise imaginable; because nothing can be more easy, than the creation of an anticonstitutional dependency of the two houses of parliament on the crown will be in that case.

Bolingbroke. On Parties.

Nothing can be more reasonable than to admit the nominal division of constitutionists and anticonstitutionists, or of a court and a country party, at this time, when an avowed difference of principles makes the distinction real.

Bolingbroke. On Parties.

When the *antichristian* powers attack religious establishments by the sword they may and must be defended.

Horsley's Sermons.

ANTI-CHRIST, in Theology, is a word that frequently occurs in the New Testament; according to the different senses in which the Greek preposition is sometimes used, it may either signify *Christi ricarius* one who put himself in the place of Christ, or else, one who acts in opposition to Christ. In this last sense, in 1 John c. ii. v. 18, the word is applied to all false teachers; the Apostle says, "even now there are many Antichrists;" and in the 23d verse of the same chapter, we are told that whoever denies "the Father and the Son," is Antichrist.

In the book of Revelations, however, the individual spoken of as the Antichrist, and who is doubtless the same as the man of sin, mentioned by St. Paul, 2 Thess. c. ii., seems to be described as a person who

would not merely oppose Christ, but usurp his seat. The Bible seems to speak of him as of a single individual; but most interpreters, both Protestant and Papist, appear to have understood the prophecy as pointing out some corruption in the Church, exhibited in the usurped power of a long series of individuals; and this they infer from the nature of the actions and effects attributed to him.

Who this individual, or this series of individuals is, or is to be, is a question about which the opinions of Theologians has been much divided. The general persuasion among Protestants has always been, that it is the Pope of Rome, who is the object of this celebrated prophecy; but the Papists themselves, interpret it of the persecutions which the church endured under the dominion of Imperial Rome.

Besides these two, which are respectively the popular opinions among Protestants and Papists, there are several other interpretations that are, in some degree, peculiar to individuals.

Some have supposed that Antichrist is the devil, others that he is to be begotten of the devil; others again, (and this has not been an uncommon opinion) that he is to be a Jew of the tribe of Dan.

Le Clerc, in his exposition of St. Paul 2 Thess. c. ii., appears to believe that Simo, the son of Gioras, (mentioned by Josephus), and the rebel Jews who followed him, were to be considered as Antichrist. Dr. Hammond contends, that Simon Magus, and his disciples the gnostics, were the Antichrist. See his *Paraph. and Annot. on 2 Thess. c. ii.* The belief of Dr. Whitby was, that we must look to the Jewish nation, and to the Sanhedrim for the interpretation of this prophecy. Lightfoot thinks that Antichrist consists of three branches; and that the term may justly be applied to Judaism, Pagan Rome, and Popery. *Opera. tom. II. p. 122.* The newest opinion is that of Faber; who, in his dissertation on the prophecies, regards revolutionary France, as the true object of this prediction. It may here be noticed, that among the early fathers, it is often stated that a peculiar mark of Antichrist was to be, that while he subverted the true worship, he would yet not lead the world into idolatry, *one est eubolusian ager ecclesie, all antichristus sui caris*. "it will be some person, who will not lead men into idolatry, but will nevertheless be an enemy to God." Chrys. *Hom. III. in II. ad Thess. de Antichristo.* Theophylact in *II. ad Thess.* uses nearly the same words. Cyrilus says in like manner, *μὴ λείπῃ τὴν εὐδοκίαν τὴν ἐν Ἀντιχριστῷ*,—"Antichrist will hold idolatry in version." Jun. *Catec. Illum xi.* Accordingly, some have supposed that the prophecy looked to Mahometanism, which many think to be upon the whole, as no objectionable an interpretation of the words of Scripture as any that have been named.

ANTICHTHON, a term used by the Pythagoreans to denote a supposed earth on the opposite side of the sun, invisible to us from the interposition of that luminary.

ANTICHTHONES, in Geography, are those nations who inhabit countries diametrically opposite to each other.

ANTICIPATE, } Anticipo, from *ante*, before, and
ANTICIPATION, } *capio*, to take.
ANTICIPATORY, } To take beforehand, by fore-

ANTI-CHRIST

ANTICIPATE.

ANTICIPATION.

ANTICIPATION.

thought or prejudice; by forecasts, or presentiments.

To preposess, to prejudice, to prevent, to preclude.

The Erls of Merche and Warwick, and other beyng at Calice, had knowledge of all these doynges, and secrete convelities: wherefore to anticipate and prevent the Dukes purpose, they sent thence Dinkane the salmant esquire, with a small number of men, but with a multitude of courageous hartes, to the toun of Sandwyche, whiche suddenly entered the same, and took the Lord Rivers in his bedde, and his son also.

Hall. Henry VI. fo. 176. c. 1.

Some clown's coarse lunge will poison thy sweet flower,

If by the careless plough it shall be sown;

And many Herods lie in wait each hour,

To murder thee as soon as thou art born.

Nay, force thy head to blow, thy tyrant breath,

Anticipating life, to hasten death.

Sir Richard Fenchurch, in Ellis, v. iii. p. 221.

This payment was called an anticipation, which is to say a thing taken or a thing coming before his time or season. This term was new to y^e commonalty, but they paid well for their learning, for their money was paid out of hand w^out delay.

Hall. Henry VIII.

AGA. Here art thou in appointment fresh and fair,

Anticipating time. With starting courage,

Give with thy Trumpet a loud note to Troy

Thou dreadful Ajax, that the appalled air

May perceive the head of the great combatant,

And hear him kill.

Shakespeare's Troilus and Cressida.

It must therefore be your part, or offering, and you accepting the league, to begin with them, and to anticipate plotting, rather than to counterplot against them.

Hobbes's Thyrtydiden.

Prophery, being an anticipatory history, is sufficient that it speak according to the usual language of historians.

Mor, Seven Churches, Pref. a. 5.

To light created in the first day, God gave no proper place or fashion; and therefore the effects named by anticipation (which was to separate day from night) were precisely performed, after this light was congregate and had obtained life and motion.

Raleigh's Hist. of the World.

I would not anticipate the relish of any happiness, nor feel the weight of any misery, before it actually arrives.

Spectator, No. VII.

In reflexion there is a repetition of what is past, and an anticipation of that which is apprehended as yet to come.

Wallenstein's Religion of Nature.

If I were to believe, with some authors, that my mind is perpetually changing, no so to become every different moment a different thing, the remembrance of past, or the anticipation of future good or evil, could give me neither pleasure nor pain.

Bentley's Essay on Truth.

ANTICIPATION, in logic, is used to denote a preconception; in the Epicurean philosophy, it signifies the first idea or definition of any thing; in medicine, it is used to express the appearance of symptoms at an early period of disease, which in the regular course of it would have appeared later; in music, a sound is said to be anticipated, when a composer wishes a note to be heard before its time to plain counterpoint; in rhetoric, anticipation is the same figure as prolepsis. This word, however, is used by some writers, and particularly by Lord Bacon, as synonymous with hypothesis; and one principal object of his celebrated work, the *Novum Organon*, was to expose the utility of this method of philosophy, and to substitute a better, which he calls the Interpretation of Nature, in its stead. The effect of Bacon's writings in bringing men to a more sober spirit in the prosecution of scientific researches, was strikingly exemplified in the rapid progress which was made in almost every kind of knowledge, as soon as philosophers had em-

braced the advice, which is so eloquently and powerfully urged on this subject, in his *Instauratio Magna Scientiarum*. It is therefore no derogation from the wisdom of his remarks, that there are upon record, several remarkable exceptions to his general assertion, that "if all the wits of all ages were to meet in one, and confer their endeavours, never could any great progress be made in science by anticipation," 1. 30.

The circulation of the blood was anticipated by Hartley, previous to the actual discovery of that great fact; and to advert to instances of smaller moment, the combustibility of the diamond was anticipated by Newton; who, having found that media which are inflammable, have a remarkably high refractive power; and observing that a diamond refracted much more than in proportion to its density, was led to conjecture that its substance would be found to be combustible, as has since been demonstrated by experiment. A similar conjecture, and founded upon the same analogy, was formed by Newton respecting water, which he predicted would be found to contain some inflammable ingredient; which likewise has been completely confirmed by the discoveries of modern chemistry. One of the most remarkable proofs, however, that discoveries in natural philosophy, may sometimes be rightly anticipated, will be found in Bacon's own works; in which not only is the doctrine of gravitation plainly anticipated, but the very experiment recommended, by which the truth of the fact might be, and has been ascertained. It is necessary, he says, that heavy bodies tend to the centre of the earth, either by their own nature, or else that they be drawn and attracted, (*attrahuntur et rapiuntur*), to the great mass of matter in the earth, by some secret sympathy or consent. If this should be true, he goes on to observe, it will needs happen, that the further bodies are removed from the earth, the more slow will be their motion towards it; so that, if they could be raised to a sufficient height above the earth, they would at length remain posseile and motionless. In order to ascertain the fact, he directs us to take a clock, whose motion depends upon a weight, and to place it on some high mountain, or other elevation; then having watched its rate of motion, to take it into a mine; if it goes slower in the former case than in the other, it will be clear, he says, that the cause of weight, is the attraction of the great mass of matter; *recipitur pro causa ponderis, attractio a massa corporum terræ*. *Nor. Org. lib. ii.*

ANTICIPATE, *v.* Probably Anticipate. To have the odd-
ANTICIPATE, *n.* dity, the singularity of that which is
ANTICIPATE, *adj.* antique.
ANTICIPATE, *v.* To resemble, to imitate, to assume
ANTICIPATE, the odd forms or shapes of the antique. And then, To be odd, singular, fantastic.

At the entering into the palace before the gate, on the plain green was builded a fountain of embowed work, gyte with fyne golde, and hie, engrayned wyth *antique* workes, the olde god of wyne called Bacchus beryng the wyne, which by the complaynt in the earth ranne to alle people plentifully with red, white, and claret wyne.

Groffius, v. 2. p. 303.

Gentle lords let's part,
Vn we have burnt our cheeks. Strong Enobarbe
Is weaker than the wine, and mine own tongue
Speakes what it speaks: the wilde disquiet hath almost
Antickt us all.
Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleo.

ANTICIPATION.

ANTICIPATION.

ANTICK.
—
ANTICY-
RA.

Much sayer than the former was that roome,
And richlier, by many parts, array'd;
For not with arras made in painefull loome,
But with pure gold it all was overlay'd,
Wrought with wilde antickes which their follies playd
In the rich metall, as they living were.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, b. lii. c. 12.

Behold distraction, frenzy, and amaze,
Like witless antickes one another meete,
And all cry Hector, Hector's dead: O Hector!

Shakespeare's Troy and Cress.

He charme the ayre to give a sound
While you performe your antique roud;
That this great king may kindly say,
Our duties did our welcome pay.

Shakespeare's Mucheth.

This towne [Renchester] is farre more ancient than Hereford, it standeth on the same side of the river Wye, and three miles or more above Hereford, and was in the Romans' time, as appeareth by many things, especially by antike many of the Caesars very often found within the towne, and in plowing therabouts, the which, the people there callith dwarfis money.

Stow's Chronicle.

Name not those living death-heads unto me,
For these not ancient but antique be:
I hate extremes: yet I had rather stay
With tombs than cradles, to wear out the day.

Dante's Elegies.

But let my due feet never fall
To walk the staidous choyseless pale,
And love the high embowd roof,
With axie pillars massy proof,
And storied windows richly dight,
Gazing a dim religious light.

Milton's Il Penseroso.

ROM. And 'tis believed how practice quickly fashioned
A port of humorous antickness in carriage,
Discourse, demeanour, gestures.

Ford's Fancies, act iv. s. 2.

In Shrove-tide, 1556, sir Thomas Pope made for the ladie Elizabeth all at his own costes, a great and rich masquing in the great halle at Hatfield; where the pageants were marvellously furnished. There were thir twelve maistris antickly disguised; with forty-six or more gentlemen and ladies.

T. Warton's Life of Sir T. Pope.

In painting and sculpture, the word *antike* is used to signify any figures, whether of birds, fishes, or flowers, that have no existence in nature: in Architecture, any figures placed as mere ornaments of a building are called by this name.

ANTICLIMAX, from *avri* against, and *κλιμαξ*, gradation, in Rhetoric, is a figure to signify the progress of a discourse or description from great to little. In serious writing, it is commonly a fault in composition; as in these lines of Waller:

Under the Tropics in our language spoke,
And part of Planders had received our yoke.

Considered, however, as a figure of rhetoric, the proper use of it is to render something small more strikingly so by contrast; as in Horace, "parturiunt montes, nascitur ridiculus mus."

ANTICOSTI, in Geography, a barren island near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, frequented for its woods, and for the abundance of eod that is found on its shores.

ANTICUM, in Architecture, a porch before a door, also that part of a temple which lies between the body of the temple and the portico, called the outer temple.

ANTICYRA, in Ancient Geography, now Aspro Spitia, a city of Phocis, on the Gulf of Corinth, celebrated for its heliote, for which it was resorted to

by sick persons; hence the adage "Naviget Anticyrum," Hæc.

ANTICYRA was also the name of a town of Thessaly, near the mouth of the Spurchius, and said by Strabo to have produced better hellebore than that of Auticym in Phocis.

ANTIDESMA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dioclea, order Pentandria. Generic character. Male. Calyx 5-leaved; corolla none; antheræ bifid. Female. Calyx 5-leaved; corolla none; stigmas 5; berry cylindrical one-seeded.

This genus is principally confined to the East Indies. ANTIDICOMARIANITES, from *antidico*, an adversary, and *maris*, a sect in Ecclesiastical History, who believed that the Virgo Mary, after the birth of our Saviour, was the mother of several children.

ANTIDOSIS was an institution of Solon; the object of which was to relieve those who considered themselves as unequally affected by the public burthen. There were certain charges in the Athenian commonwealth, called *λετουργιαι*, the expense of which devolved wholly upon wealthy individuals. If any person appointed to undergo one of these *λετουργιαι* or duties, could find another citizen of better substance than himself, who was free from any similar burthen, in that case the complainant was excused. But in case the person thus substituted in the other's place denied himself to be the richest, then they exchanged estates; which was effected according to certain prescribed forms. The word comes from *avri* and *δωσις*, I give.

ANTIDOTE, *a.* *Antidotum*, from *avri*, against, *δωσις*, given, from *δωσις*, to give.
ANTIDOTAL, That which is given against, or
ANTIDOTALLY, as a remedy or preventive.

MAC. Canst thou

With some sweet oblivious antidote,
Churne the stuff'd boom of that perilous stuff
That weighs upon the heart?

Shakespeare's Macbeth, v. 3.

Particular discontents and grievances are either of body, mind, or fortune, which, as they wound the soul of man, produce this melancholy, and many great inconveniences, by that *antidote* of good counsel and persuasion may be eased or expelled.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

The last queer remanue, of the virtue of this [unicorn's] horn, which some exalt so high, that it is not only *antidote* to several venomes and substances destructive by their qualities, which we can command ourselves to believe; but also that it resisteth poisons which kill by second qualities, that is, by corrosion of parts.
Faller's Worthies, London.

This [the tooth of a sea-horse] in northern regions is of frequent use for heds of lunacy, or hells of swords, and being burnt becomes a good remedy for feares; but *antidote* used, and exposed for unicorn's horn, it is an insufferable delusion.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

To wake thy dead devotion was my point;
And how I bless night's consecrating shades,
Which to a temple turn an universe;
Fill us with great ideas, full of heaven,
And *antidote* the poetical earth.

Young's Complaint. Night is

To say that, without a vicious luxury, the labour would not have been employed at all, is only to say, that there is some other defect in human nature, such as indolence, selfishness, insatiation to others, for which luxury, in some measure, provides a remedy; as one poison may be an *antidote* to another.

Hume's Essays.

Hail thou, ye sons of Eve! th' merrying guide
The sovereign grant receive, sin's *antidote*;

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ANTI-
DOTE.

ANTIENT
—
ANTILE-
GOMENA.

A cure for all our griefs! So hear'ly truth
Shall well display her captivating charms,
And peace her dwelling fix with human race.
Jago's Labour and Griefs.

ANTIENT. See ANCIENT.

ANTIGUA, an island in the West Indies, 21 miles long, nearly about the same in breadth, and 50 miles in circumference. It contains 59,838 acres of land, of which about 34,000 are appropriated to the growth of sugar, including those which are annexed as pasture grounds. The other principal staples are cotton, wool, and tobacco, and in favourable years great quantities of provisions are raised. The island contains two different kinds of soil, the one a black mould on a substratum of clay, which is naturally rich, and when not checked by excessive droughts, to which Antigua is particularly liable, very productive. The other is a stiff clay, on a substratum of marl. It is much less fertile than the former, and abounds with a kind of grass, which it is found impossible to extirpate, and which has overrun many estates formerly profitable, and so impoverished them, that they are either entirely abandoned, or converted into pasture lands. Exclusive of these tracts, and a small part of the country wholly unimprovable, every other part may be said to be under cultivation. Antigua has not a single spring or rivulet of fresh water in it, and this inconvenience, as it rendered the country uninhabitable to the Caribbs, deterred for some time European adventurers from settling on it. It being discovered, however, that the water preserved in cisterns is very pure, light, and wholesome, a few English families settled in the island in 1632, and began the cultivation of tobacco. In 1696 the settlement was nearly destroyed by an attack of the French. But it was so far recovered from this calamity, that in 1699 it furnished a quota of 800 men for an attack on the French settlements. In 1774 the white inhabitants amounted to 2,500, and the enslaved negroes to 37,908. Since this period the population, according to Edwards, has rather decreased. It is difficult to furnish any average account of the crops of sugar produced by this island, as they vary to so great a degree, that the quantity of sugar exported some years is five times greater than in others. In 1779 there was shipped only 3,382 hogheads. In 1782 the crop was 15,000 hogheads, and in the years 1770, 1773, and 1774, there were no crops of any kind, all the canes being destroyed from a long continuance of dry weather, and but for the provisions brought by American vessels, the negroes must have perished for want of food. The official value of the imports and exports were,

	Imports.	Exports.
In 1809 - - -	£198,121	£216,000
1810 - - -	285,458	183,393

In 1817 the number of white inhabitants amounted, according to a return made to the House of Commons, to 2,102, exclusive of the troops stationed in the island; the free people of colour to 1,747, the free black persons to 438, and the slaves to 31,452; being an increase of 1,170 since the year 1807, when the Slave Trade was abolished by Parliament. Antigua lies between long. 61. 38. and 61. 53. W., and between lat. 17. and 17. 19. N.

ANTILEGOMENA, a word in Scripture Criticism, which is found in Eusebius, denoting those books the

authors of which have been disputed. See TUBEROLOGY.

ANTILIBANUS, in Ancient Geography, a chain of mountains in Cælo-Syria, running parallel to the other chain called Libanus; but in Scripture they are both of them called by the name of Lebanon. These mountains are now inhabited by those half-christians, known by the name of Druses.

ANTILLES, a cluster of islands in the West Indies, situated between the 18th and 24th degrees of north latitude, extending in the form of a crescent, from the coast of Florida to the coast of Brazil. They are distinguished into the Windward and Leeward islands, and into Greater and Less. The Greater comprehend Cuba, Hispaniola, Jamaica, and Porto Rico; and the Less, Antigua, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Guadeloupe, Martinico, Granada, Trinidad, St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, Dominica, St. Vincent, Tobago, St. Lucie, &c.; an account of which will be given under their respective titles.

ANTILOGARITHM, the complement of the logarithm of a semi tangent or secant; it is found by beginning at the left hand, and subtracting each figure from 9, and the last figure from 10.

ANTILOGY, signifies, *contrary sayings*; Tirinus has published a large index of such seeming contradictions in the Bible, which he reconciles and explains in his comments.

ANTILOPE (derivation uncertain; it is supposed to be a corruption of *ανελπον* or *αντολοτο* a word used by Eustathius, to signify an animal which had the horns long, and notched as if with a saw.) Fall. Gmel. Cuv. Illiger. Antelope Pen. in Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family Cavicornia, order Ruminantia, class Mammalia.

Generic character. Horns hollow, supported on solid bony processes, curved, annulated, and not deciduous; eight broad incisor teeth in the lower jaw, but none in the upper; the inside of the ears marked lengthways with three feathered lines of hair; limbs light and elegant.

This genus was originally included by Linnæus in that of Capra; but Pallas first noticed that it differed very materially from the goat tribe, on which account he separated it, and named the new genus, Antelope. This arrangement has been followed by succeeding writers, among which is our countryman Pennant, who considers the antelopes as forming "an intermediate genus, a link between the goat and deer; agreeing with the former in the texture of their horns, which have a core in them, and are never cast; and with the latter in elegance of form and swiftness."

The Antelopes form a very large genus; the greater number of which, however, have been discovered but of late years; for it seems probable that none were distinctly known to the ancients, except the African Antelope, or Antelope Cervicapia, and the Cervine Antelope, or Antelope Bubalis.

"They inhabit," says Pennant, "two or three species excepted, the hottest part of the globe; or, at least, those parts of the temperate zone that lie near the tropics, so as to form a doubtful climate. None therefore, except the Saiga and the Chamois are to be met with in Europe; and notwithstanding the warmth of South America is suited to their nature, not a single species has yet been discovered in any

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LOPE.

part of the new world: their proper climate seems therefore to be those of Asia and Africa, where the species are very numerous."

"They are (says the same author) of an elegant and active make; of a restless and timid disposition; extremely watchful, of great vivacity, remarkably swift and agile, and most of their boundings so light, as to strike the spectator with astonishment. What is very singular is, that they will stop in the midst of their course, gaze for a moment at their pursuers, and then resume their flight."

"The fleetness of the Antelope," he continues, "was proverbial in the country it inhabited even in the earliest times: the speed of Asahel (2 Sam. li. 18.) is beautifully compared to the Tzebi; and the Gadites were said to be as swift as the Antelopes (translated Roes) upon the mountains. The sacred writers took their similes from such objects as were before the eyes of the people to whom they were addressed. There is another instance drawn from the same subject. The disciple raised to life at Joppa was supposed to have been called Tabitha, or Dorcas from the beauty of her eyes; and to this day, one of the highest compliments that can be paid to female beauty in the eastern region, is *Aine el Gazel*, you have the eyes of an Antelope."

They live in large herds of two or three thousand, or in small parties of five or six, and generally in hilly countries, browsing like goats, and living on the tender shoots of trees. They are elegantly formed, active, restless, shy, and uncommonly swift, running with vast bounds, and leaping with surprising agility. The chase of them is a favourite diversion in the east, where they are not only hunted with the greyhound and hunting leopard, but also with the falcon, which is trained for that purpose. M. Pallas, in his *Travels through Russia and the North of Asia*, has given a very interesting account of the mode of hunting the Antelope among the Tonguses, who inhabit the heaths of Daouria beyond the lake Baikal. See Pallas's *Travels* vol. i. p. 402.; vol. iii. p. 204. The pursuit of the Chamais, which belongs to this genus, is a favourite diversion of the Swiss: and the fatigue and dangers they undergo in that chase are well known.

The horns of the antelope genus are composed of solid bony processes attached to the os frontis, similar to those of the deer kind, but covered with horn, and not deciduous: in other respects they are similar to that genus; generally, though not always having the lacrymal fosse, or tear-pits.

For further particulars as to their anatomical structure and classification, see COMPARATIVE ANATOMY and ZOOLOGY.

They have been divided into sections from the form of their horns, both by Pennant and Cuvier: the division of the latter is adopted here.

a. Horns annulated, having a double or triple curve, and pointing forwards, downwards, or upwards.

A. Dorcas Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Dorcas Lin. Algazel Buff. Ghazal of the Arabs, *Asper* Elliot. Barbary Antelope, Pen.—This animal is in height and form like the reuckuck (*Cervus Capreolus*) i. e. about three feet nine inches from nose to tail, and two feet four inches high. The horns are twelve inches long, of a cylindrical form, incline backwards, bend in the middle, and revert forwards, and are marked with thirteen rings

VOL. XVII.

The animal is of a bright reddish brown colour, with a white breast, and brown stripe along each flank; it has a tuft of hair on each knee, and a deep pouch in the groins. It inhabits, India, Persia, and the north of Africa, living in large troops, which, when attacked, form a ring, and present their horns to their adversary; they are easily tamed, and their habits furnish numerous images to the sprightly poetry of the Arabs: var. *A. Corinna* Pall. Gmel. le Corine Buff. Corine Antelope Pen., a variety of the preceding from which it differs only in having the horns more slender.

A. Kevella Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Kevell Buff. Flat-horned Antelope, Pen. Is very similar in form and colour to the *A. Dorcas*, but has the horns flattened on the sides, and the rings on them more numerous. Cuvier says, that he knows no difference between this animal and the *Abu de Kämpfer*, and the *Tseiran* of the Persians and Turks, (*A. Subgutturans* Gmel.) except that the latter has a slight protuberance under the throat.

A. Pyrgæa, Pall. Gmel. Whitefaced Antelope, Pen. Is very similar to the preceding, but larger: like that, its horns are flattened; but those of the female are said to be smooth. The face is white, the cheeks and neck of a bright bay; the tail is covered with hair, which extends several inches beyond the end.

A. Gutturans, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Hoang yang and Whang yang, or Yellow Goat of the Chinese, *Desero* of the Mongol Tartars, Chinese Antelope, Pen. As large as the stag, its horns and skin similar to the *A. Dorcas*; the female has no horns: the neck is very prominent opposite the larynx, or upper part of the windpipe, in consequence of that organ being very large: it has also a large pouch under the belly: they live in herds in the deserts of Asia, and are so fearful of water, that they will not enter it, though hunted to its edge by dogs, to save themselves.

A. Euchære, Forster, Cuv. la Gazelle à bourse sur le dos Buff. Spring Bock of the Cape, Springer Antelope, Pen. Larger than the Gazelle; has a remarkable white line extending from the tail half way up the back: which, when frightened, it has the power of expanding into a circle, and when the alarm is over, returns it to the original lineal form. Mr. Masson says, that they make periodical migrations in seven or eight years, in herds of many hundreds of thousands, from the north, as he supposes, from the interior part of Terra del Natal, to which they are compelled by the excessive drought in that region: in their course they desolate Caffria; and it is observed, that those which arrive first at the Cape are very fat, the next less so, and those which come last very poor and lean, in consequence of the havoc their predecessors have made: they continue in the neighbourhood of the Cape for a few months, and then collecting, go off in large herds to the interior, where they are quite fearless of man, and will not make way for him unless he compel them with a stick. When taken they can be easily tamed.

A. Stigma, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Stigma Buff. Colns Strabo, Scythian Antelope, Pen. As large as a stag; its horns are like those of the *A. Dorcas*, but yellow, semitransparent, and strongly annulated. The skin is brown in summer, but becoming greyish white in winter: it has a large prominent muzzle divided longitudinally

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by a small furrow, with very open nostrils; the tail is naked below, but covered with upright hairs, terminating in a tuft above. They live in the deserts between the Dnieper and Danube and the river Irtysh, in herds of many thousands; one of them watches whilst the rest sleep, and is relieved by turns, &c. They are very timid, and extremely swift, but cannot run long without stopping to take breath. They are hunted with dogs or eagles, (the black eagle of Pen.) trained for that purpose, for the sake of their skins.

A. Cervicapra, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Cervicapra Lin. Gazella Africana Ray, Antelope des Indes Buff. Linnæe of the Arabs, Common Antelope Pen. This animal is rather smaller than a fallow deer; the horns about sixteen inches long, are black, distinctly annulated, and have three curves. "Their form," says Pennant, "when on the skull is not unlike that of the ancient lyre, to which Pliney compares those of his Streptaceros. The brachia, or sides of that instrument, were frequently made from its horns, as appears from ancient gems." The animal is of a reddish brown above, and white below; around the orbits of the eyes is white, which is continued into a white patch on either side of the forehead; the muzzle is black. The female is known by having no horns, and by a white stripe on the flanks. The horns of the Antelope are employed in the east as offensive weapons, being bound together for that purpose.

Though one of the most common species, the habits of this animal are but little known; it inhabits Africa and India.

A. Senegalensis, le Koba on Grande Vache brune Buff. Senegal Antelope, Pen. Horns close at the base, bending outwards and backwards above; the head large and clumsy; the animal is of a reddish brown colour, with a stripe of black from the horns to the nose, and another down the hind part of the neck; the rump dirty white, hoofs small, tail covered with coarse black hairs.

A. Lervia, Gmel. le Koh ou petite Vache brune Buff. Gambian Antelope, Pen. Of this animal nothing is known saving the horns, "unless," says Cuvier, "it be the same as the Pallish of Daniels (African Scenery) for then it would be most like, the Gazelle, except being larger."

b. Horns annulated having a double curve, differing in direction from the preceding section, and having the points turned backwards.

A. Bushella, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Dorcas Lin. Vache de Barbarie Mém. de l'Acad. le Bushella Buff. Bekker el Wash of the Arabs, Hartbeest of the Dutch, Cervine Antelope, Pen. This animal is larger and more clumsy than the other species of Antelope, partaking of the stag and heifer, with a large head, broad thick nose, and a reddish brown coat, except at the tip of the tail, which is furnished with a tuft of black hair; the horns bend outwards and backwards, then forwards and again backwards. This animal was described by Dr. Caius in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, under the name of Baselaphus. It is common in Barbary, and the northern parts of Africa.

A. Casima Cuv. Cape Stag of the Dutch, Casima Antelope. Very like the preceding, but has the curve of the horns more angular; the coronet of the horns, the line at the base of the forehead, the line on the

neck, and a longitudinal stripe on either leg, and the tip of the tail all black. They are very common at the Cape.

c. Horns annulated and straight, or but slightly curved.

A. Oryx, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Gazella, Lin. le Pasan, Buff. Cape Chamois of the Dutch, Egyptian Antelope, Pen. The history of this animal has been well detailed by Dr. Forster and Mr. Klockner. It is as large as a deer; the horns slender, straight, round, and pointed, about three feet in length, and annulated near the base, but smooth above; those of the female much smaller; its coat is greyish, but the head is white, and marked with black bars, and another extends along the spine and on each flank; the shoulders and thighs are marked with a patch of chestnut, continued down the front of the leg in form of a stripe, which again expands some distance above the feet; the tail is long and black, and the hair along the ridge of the spine rough, and directed towards the nape of the neck; the hoofs and horns are black. It lives in pairs and not in herds, and is found in Egypt, Arabia, about the Cape of Good Hope, &c. This singular animal is the Oryx of Elian, and one of them having been caught which had lost a horn, gave rise to the notion of an unicorn, about which there has been so much dispute.

Of this species there are two varieties.

Var. a. A. Leucoryx, Pall. Gmel. White Antelope, Shaw, Leucoryx Antelope, Pen.

b. A. Gazella, Pall. Gmel. Capra Bezoartica, Lin. Algalzel Antelope.

Pen. From this animal the finest bezoars are taken.

A. Oreotragus, Schreber, Gmel. Cuv. le Klippspringer, Buff. Klippspringer Antelope, Pen. Inhabits the Cape and has short straight horns.

A. Grinnia, Pall. Schreh. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Grinnia, Linn. le Grimme, Buff. Goinea Antelope, Pen. Is only eighteen inches high, according to Pennant; the horns short and thick. It is of a light yellowish or tawny brown colour; the tail is loose haired; the lachrymal sinuses very conspicuous. The animal is remarkable for an upright pointed tuft of strong black hair rising from the top of the forehead, about two inches and a half high between the horns. It lives among the brush wood, in that part of Africa between Guinea and the Cape of Good Hope.

A. Pygmaea, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Chevrotaïn de Guinée Buff. Royal Antelope Pen., is not more than nine inches high, its horns are strong, short, sharp pointed, and perfectly black, the female has none; its colour is a bright bay, paler beneath and on the insides of the limbs; the legs are scarcely thicker than a quill; being occasionally tipped with gold, they have been used as tobacco stoppers. They inhabit the hottest parts of Africa, and are said to be so active as to be able to leap over a wall twelve feet high.

A. Scoparia, Schreh. Cuv. Ourebi Buff. Ourebi Antelope Pen. Dr. Shaw thinks this perhaps only a variety of the Ritbok.

A. Duiker, Cuv. Plunging Stag of the Cape, also belongs to this section.

d. Horns annulated with a single curve, the points turned backwards.

A. Leucophaea, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Blue Goat of the

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Cape, Blue Antelope Pen. larger than a deer, both sexes have large horns curving regularly backwards, and bearing at most twenty rings; it is of an ash blue colour, but the belly, insides of the legs, and the tip of the tail are white, with a large white spot beneath each eye. It has been improperly named Gazelle Tzeiran by Buffon. It is found north of the Cape.

A. Equina Cuv. Equine Antelope, about the size of a horse, of a reddish grey colour, with a brown head, and a white badge below each eye, and a mane on the neck.

c. Horns annulated, and baving a single curve pointing forwards.

A. Dama, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Nanguer Buff. Dama? Pilo. Swift Antelope Pen.; about two feet eight inches high, and three feet eight inches long; the horns round and black, of a tawny brown colour, the neck, belly, and rump white; it inhabits Soergal, is the swiftest of the genus, and can be but rarely taken. This animal was probably known to the ancients by the name Dama.

A. Redunca, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Nagor Buff., Red Antelope Pen., very similar to the preceding, but the hair is stiff, long, glossy, and does not lie close to the skin.

A. Arundinacea, Shaw Cuv. l'Antelope de roseaux Buff. Rietheeboc, or Roebuck of the Reeds, of the Cape, Rithock Allam. Pen. This animal gets its name from living in reedy places; it is about two feet and a half high, of an elegant pale grey hue, has no line of separation along the sides of the body as the other Antelopes have; the tail is long, flat, and covered with white hairs. Mr. Allamand says, that this animal is called by the Hottentots *é, é, é*, each syllable being pronounced with a kind of clacking of the tongue, not easily described or imitated by a European.

A. Eleotragus, Scrb. Cuv. Cinereous Antelope Pen. Similar to the preceding, the horns marked with a spiral wreath. Cuvier considers both this species, and the *A. Arundinacea* probably to be the same as the *A. Lerwia* or Kob of Buffon, of which we have only the horns.

f. Horns surrounded with a spiral wreath.

A. Oreas, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Canna, Buff. Cape Elk of the Dutch, Indian Antelope, Pen. This animal has been improperly called Coudous by Buffon, the name properly belonging to his Condama, says Pennant; It is as large as a horse, has strong straight conical horns, around which a prominent spiral wreath is wound; it is of greyish colour, has a kind of dewlap or pendant tuft of hair under the oock, o short coarse black mane running down the whole length of the back, and the tail terminating in a long black tuft. It lives in herds on the mountains north of the Cape.

A. Scripta, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Gnib, Buff., Bonte Boek, or Spotted Goat of the Cape, Harnessed Antelope Pen.; measures about two feet high, and is of a chestnut colour, its body is marked by two white longitudinal stripes, which are crossed by two descending bands; the rump is also marked with two white stripes; the horns point backwards, and are marked by two spiral wreaths.

A. Sylvatica, Sparman, Gmel. le Bosbock, Buff. Forest Antelope, Pen., very similar to the last, but marked with several white spots, the body being

brown; the female is said to have no horns. The voice of this animal resembles the barking of a dog.

A. Strepsiceros, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. le Condama Buff., le Coudous Cuv., Striped Antelope Pen. Has been wrongly named Condama by Buffon; it is as large as a stag, of a reddish grey colour and striped with white; it has a small beard under the chin, and a mane extending along the spine, the tail terminates in long floppy hairs; the male alone bears large smooth horns, having a slightly spiral longitudinal prominence, and a triple curve, they are about four feet long. These animals are very active, and leap in an extraordinary manner; Dr. Forster says, he saw one leap a fence ten feet high. It lives north of the Cape.

g. Horns smooth.

A. Picta, Pall. Cuv. le Gau, Gmel., Bos Gnou Zimmerman, le Nil Gaut Buff., Nyl Ghan Hunter, White footed Antelope, Pen.; four feet high to the top of the shoulder, the horns short, pointed, smooth, and of a blackish colour, bending a little forwards; the hair greyish, and have a large patch of white beneath the throat; the feet, just above the hoofs, marked by two white bands in the male, and three black, with two white ooes in the female; a slight mane of black hair traverses the neck, and a larger tuft of a similar colour is situated on the breast; the female has no horns, is smaller, and of a pale brown colour. It inhabits the interior of India. Dr. W. Hunter has described this animal in the Philosophical Transactions.

A. Tragocamelus, Pall. Gmel. Indostan Antelope Pen. Is not of so elegant form as the other species, but seems to resemble the Camel, having a strong bending neck, with a large protuberance above the shoulders, which is covered with long hair; the breast has a dewlap like the cow; the hind quarters are much smaller than the fore; the tail is nearly two feet long. Dr. Parsons says, that the animal he saw was thirteen feet high. In its manner and habits of laying down and getting up, it resembles the Camel, they say; and that its voice is hoarse and croaking. It is a native of India. Cuvier considers this as belonging to the species *A. Picta*.

A. Rupicapra, Pall. Gmel. Cuv. Capra Rupicapra Lin. le Chamois Buff. Rupicapra Plin. Chamois Antelope Pen. "Is the only ruminating animal of the west of Europe," says Cuvier, "which can be compared to the Antelope;" it has, however, some peculiar characters; it is about the size of a common Goat, of a rufous brown colour, with the cheeks, chin, throat, and belly of a yellowish white, and a streak of black passing from the eye down to the muzzle; its horns, which are straight, have their points suddenly curved back, like a fish hook; behind the ears is a bag, which opens outwards by a small aperture, its use is not at present understood.

This is a very timorous animal, it lives in small troops, in the middle regions of very high mountains, skipping with great activity over the steep rocks; it feeds chiefly early in the morning and evening, during which time a sentinel is on the watch, who alarms the herd by a shrill cry. The chase of them is very laborious.

A. Gnu, Sparm. Gmel. Cuv. le Gnou or Niou Buff. Gnou Antelope Pen. This animal differs from the Antelope, even more than the Chamois, and at first

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presents to the eye a monster made up of the parts of different animals; its body and hind quarters are similar to those of a small horse, covered with brown hair; the tail is furnished with long white hairs, also like the Horse; and on the neck is a fine straight mane, which is white at the roots but black at the edge; its head is large, and the mouth square like the Ox, the lips covered with short stiff bristles, and from the nose up the forehead runs an oblong square brush of stiff bristles; round the eyes grow several radii of strong white bristles; it is said to have only one false hoof behind each foot instead of two, and the foot is marked just above the hoof with a dusky bar; the horns, like those of the Cape Buffalo, are near each other at their base, and very thick, they dip downwards and curve upwards at their point; though the form of the head is heavy, yet the limbs are light like those of the stag. Both sexes are horned, and the horns of the young are said to be straight. It is a fierce and dangerous animal, living in large herds in the mountains north of the Cape. Cuvier thinks it was known to the ancients under the name of *Catoblepas*.

Mr. Hamilton Smith has described in the 13th volume of the *Linnean Transactions*, what he considers some new species of Antelopes, but some of them are very doubtful, the names he gives them are *Antelope Furcifer*, *Palomata*, *Mazama*, *Lemmainzama*, and *Lanigera*.

Linnaei *Systema Naturæ curd Gmelin*—Pallas *Spicilegium Zoologicum*—Pennant's *History of Quadrupeds*—Buffon *Histoire Naturelle*—Schreber *Histoire des Mammifères*—Shaw's *General Zoology*—Cuvier *Règne Animal*—Illiger *Prodromus Systematis Mammalium et Avium*.

ANTILYPUS PULVIS, in Medicine, reckoned useful in preventing *rabies canina*.

ANTIMETABOLE, in Rhetoric, a figure by which two things are transposed and placed in opposition to each other, from *anti*, against, and *μεταβολή*, I change: an example of this occurs in the celebrated apophthegm of Musonius: *ἂν τι προσῆκε καλὸν μὲν πᾶσι, ὃ καὶ πόσις ἀγέρας, τὸ δὲ καλὸν μόνον ἐν τῇ σωτηρίᾳ ἀσχετὸν μὲν ἦτορ, τὸ αὖ καλὸν ἀγέρας τὸ ἐν ἀσχετίᾳ πόσις.* "If you perform an honourable action with pain, the pain is soon over, and the honour remains." If you perform a dishonourable action with pleasure, the pleasure is soon over, and the dishonour remains."

ANTIMONY. The word Antimony is always used in commerce to denote a metallic ore, consisting of sulphur with the metal which is properly called antimony. Sometimes this sulphuret is termed crude antimony, to distinguish it from the pure metal, or regulus, as it was formerly called. According to Prof. Proust, the sulphuret contains 26 per cent. of sulphur. Antimony is of a dusky white colour, very brittle, and of a plated or scaly texture. Its specific gravity, according to Brissou, is 6.7021, but Bergman makes it 6.86. Soon after ignition it melts, and by a continuance of the heat it becomes oxidized.

ANTIMONY, in Pharmacy. From the sulphuret of antimony, or erude antimony of the shops, several preparations are directed to be made by the London Pharmacopœia. The oxide (*antimonii oxydum*), the antimonial powder (*pulvis antimonialis*) an imitation of

the nostrum termed James's Powder. The emetic tartar (antimonium tartarizatum), the antimonial wine (liquor antimonii tartarizati) and the golden sulphuret of antimony (antimonii sulphuretum precipitatum.)

These preparations when given in small doses, act as diaphoretics; in large doses they excite nausea and vomiting, and occasionally act on the bowels. The tartarized antimony, or emetic tartar, is the most certain in its operation, and may, in fact, supersede all the other preparations. From half a grain to three grains may be given for an emetic, and from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ grain as a diaphoretic.

ANTINGHAM, in the hundred of North Erpingham, County of Norfolk: a village in which are the following consolidated parishes, viz.

Parish of	Value in the King's Book.	Patron.	Rebblers' Tithe, 1000.	Money paid by Pa. for Rates, 1000.	Rate in the Pound.
St. Margaret, adchurche Rec.	£ s. d. 5 6 8	The Bishop of Norwich Sir Wm. Harbo d, Bart.	201	202 6 5	4 11
St. Mary, a discharged Rec.	6 3 11				

It is 3 miles N. W. from North Walsham.

ANTINOMY, *Antiprosopon*, from *anti*, against, and *νόμος*, law. A law against; particularly applied to a law against a law, the opposition of law or rule to another law or rule.

For humility, poverty, meanness, and wretchedness, are direct antinomies to the lusts of the flesh, the lusts of the eyes, and the pride of life.

Taylor's Great Exemplar, p. 50.

If He once will'd adultery should be sinful, and to be punish with death, all his Omnipotence will not allow him to will the allowance that his holiest people might as it were by his own *antinomy*, or counter-statute, live unrepented in the same fact as he himself esteem'd it, according to our common explanations.

Milton's Diet. and Lib. of Divorce.

ANTINOMIANS, in Religion, are those who deny the obligation of the moral law, and hold that men are saved by the merits of Christ alone, and without any demerit on their part, and that the wicked actions of those who are in a state of grace, are not really sinful, and will not deprive them of the divine favour. The origin of this sect is stated in the life of Luther. This first reformer was on one occasion preaching to the people upon the necessity of believing and trusting in the merits of Christ for salvation, and inveighing against the papists who represented eternal happiness as the fruit of mere legal obedience, abstracted from faith; as he was proceeding, he was interrupted by John Agricola (a divine of some eminence in that day) who took an opportunity of carrying the great reformer's doctrine to an opposite extreme by declaring against the moral law altogether, as a covenant which had been totally abolished by the sacrifice of Christ; and the dispute which afterwards arose between him and Luther on this subject, threw the first seeds of the sect which appeared in England, during the time of the troubles, and which was known by the name of Antinomianism. The dangerous notions of this sect are not even yet, it may be feared, altogether exploded in this country. For further particulars concerning its history, see Neale's

ANTI-
NOMY.
—
ANTINO-
MIANS.

ANTI-
NOOPOLIS.
—
ANTI-
OCH.

Hist. of Paritans, vol. 4. s. 7. Mosheim *Ch. Hist.* vol. 5. p. 411.

ANTINOOPOLIS, (in Coptic *Antinoou*), the metropolis of the Antiochian nome, on the eastern bank of the Nile; anciently celebrated as the seat of the oracle of Besa or Bisa; afterwards consecrated to Antinous by Hadrian, from whom it was sometimes called *Hadrianopolis*. The oracle continued till the time of Constantius. This town is now commonly called *Sheik Abadeh*, from the shrine of a Christian saint interred there. Its Arabian name is *Is'ada*, and it belongs to the modern province of *Oshmuneen*. Ersch and Gruber's *Encycl.*

ANTINOUS, in Astronomy, the name of a constellation in the northern hemisphere.

ANTIOCH, an ancient city of Syria, now called by the Turks *Aotaki*. It is situated on the river Orontes, about 31 miles from the place where it falls into the Mediterranean. It was built by Seleucus Nicator, 300 years before the birth of Christ; who named it Antioch, in honour of his father Antiochus. This city is still one of the most remarkable in the east, it has however greatly fallen away from its ancient grandeur. It was formerly the third city in the world, but its present population is under 20,000, of which four-fifths are Mahometans.

The principal remains of antiquity which it now exhibits, are the walls, which include a space of ground very much larger than is occupied by the present city, and which are described by Pocock as exhibiting, in some places, very remarkable specimens of the excellency of ancient masonry. Antioch has been visited, in various ages, by so many and such very severe earthquakes, that very few ancient buildings are now standing within the city; the principal exception are the ruins of aqueducts; but even they do not appear to possess any remarkable character.

The present city is ill-built, the houses low, with only one story above the ground; the streets are narrow with raised foot paths, and the general appearance of the buildings melancholy and monotonous. The governor here has the title of *Waiwode*, and is under the Pasha of Aleppo, but is appointed from Constantinople. But though Antioch has little to excite the admiration of a modern traveller, yet the celebrity which was once possessed, by this "Queen of the East," as it was once called, still renders it an object of interest and curiosity. It was the residence of the Macedonian kings of Syria, for several hundred years, and afterwards of the Roman governors of that province; and here it was, we are told in the Acts, that the disciples of our Saviour were first called Christians. This city was also the seat of the kingdom erected in Syria by the Crusaders in the 11th century. Its first king under this new dominion was Boemond, prince of Tarento, who was taken prisoner by the Turks in 1101; and the city continued in the possession of the Christians until 1268, when it was captured by Bendochars, or Bilebs, sultan of Egypt; soon after which it was finally incorporated with the Turkish empire. Previously to this period, the churches of Antioch were said to be the finest in the world; there are only four of which even the ruins can now be traced. Among these is the church of St. John, which is indebted for its preservation to the circumstance that it is hewn out of a rock, being,

as Pocock describes it, a sort of grotto, open to the west. There was, in the time of that traveller, no altar in it, but the Christians who performed service in the church every Sunday, used to bring an altar with them; the ground immediately about it was appropriated as a place of burial. Distant 6 miles from Aleppo, W. long. 35° 17' E. lat. 36° 6' W.

ANTIOCHIAN SECT or ACADEMY. See BIOGRAPHY, Art. ANTIOCHUS.

ANTIOCHIAN EPOCH, in Chronology, the period of the proclamation of liberty to the town of Antioch, about the time of the battle of Pharsalia.

ANTIOCO, ST. ISOLA DI, a small island, or rather peninsula on the southern side of Sardinia; anciently called *Malibodes*, *Enosina*, now also *Plombia*, on account of its lead mines. Its population has been estimated at upwards of 2000. It has salt works near the sea, and contains some remains of the ancient Carthaginian town *Sulci*.

ANTIOPIA, in Palestine, was once a principal city belonging to the tribe of Naphthali, between Tyre and Bethsaida.

ANTIPAROS, a small island in the Archipelago, placed, as its name indicates, exactly opposite to Paros, from which it is separated by a strait not a mile broad. It is nearly of an oblong shape, and about 16 miles in circumference, and lies in lat. 36° 38' N. long. 25° 4' E.

Towards the middle of the island there is a pretty large village, at a small distance from the sea. The ground to the north and east is flat and sandy, but it rises to the south and west; and near the summit of one of the highest hills in that direction is the entrance to the celebrated grotto, of which Tournefort and other travellers have given a description. On one side of a pretty large area, which appears as if it had been hewn out of the hill, is a perpendicular face 15 or 20 feet high, which is nearly filled with columns of stalactite; a passage leads behind them to a low opening through which the traveller passes, and after descending by a very steep path for a few yards, comes to a descent of some feet nearly perpendicular. When he has been let down by a rope through that space, he proceeds by an extremely sloping path to another and deeper descent, as nearly perpendicular as the former one; and, when he has cleared it, is landed upon a small projection of the rock which affords footing enough to enable him, by clinging to the side of the cavern, to pass round into the principal chamber, the floor of which is tolerably level, and where free from fragments of stalactite, extremely smooth. The loftiest part of this chamber is of a very considerable height; its roof is ornamented with innumerable stalactites of various sizes and shapes depending from it, and its walls are, for the most part, formed of clusters of such columns; when not exposed to the action of the air they are of a brilliant whiteness. There is, more particularly, a large mass which divides this chamber from an adjoining one, and which is remarkable for the lightness and variety of its tapering columns with round embossed heads, giving the place, when well lighted up, very much the appearance of a gothic cathedral. The depth of the cavern in the lowest part is about 254 feet. Its breadth above 300. The stalactites of every size and age are countless, and in all the cavities of the sides

ANTI-
OCH.
—
ANTIPA-
ROS.

ANTI-
PAROS.

they are found, in a very recent state; in the form of very small hollow cylinders with a drop of water depending from them. Those which hang from the roof of the cavern, are often a foot or a foot and a half in diameter, and have the thin opaque shell filled with *star*, which often radiates as from a common axis. The chambers here described are on the left side of the entrance, but there is another still lower down, which is seldom explored by travellers, and is said to have a bed of mud for its floor. The plates given in Tournefort's travels are exact, though very coarse engravings from clumsy designs; of the entrance to the cavern they give a very tolerable idea, but none of its vast height. Had these plates are they represent the place better on the whole than the designs in the *Voyage Pittoresque de la Grèce*.

The manner in which this endless variety of columns is formed, has been well illustrated by M. de Choiseul. The water which oozes through fissures in the rock, carries with it, he observes, in a state of solution, innumerable particles of calcareous matter, and when it finally escapes, in the form of drops, at the roof and sides of the cavern, the calcareous matter held in solution, remains and forms a concretion while the water evaporates. The nucleus thus formed is continually receiving an additional coat from fresh moisture descending as before. "Like icicles hanging from rocks washed by a torrent, the stalactites grow larger and larger, still preserving the conical figure occasioned by their original mode of formation. But should the water filtrate in greater abundance from above, the drops will not have time to evaporate in their passage, they will therefore fall to the bottom of the cavern, and will there occasion calcareous concretions extending upwards in proportion as those from the roof extend downwards; so that, in process of time, their extremities will meet. Thus will a column be formed, imperfect at first, but gradually enlarging, from the same causes as first gave it birth." But for the portions continually broken off by those who visit the cavern, it is probable that it would have been by this time entirely filled with similar columns.

The splendid mass of white stalactites, mentioned above, is called by Tournefort the Altar, because a projection from it was used as an altar in the midnight mass celebrated in the grotto, by order of the Marquis de Nointel, in 1673. That nobleman was ambassador from Louis XIV. of France, to the Grand Seigneur, and happening to pass through the Archipelago about the season of Christmas, he determined to celebrate the festival within the grotto itself. It was illuminated by 100 large flambeaux and 4000 lamps, which reflected from the white, sparry columns must have produced a very fine effect. More than 500 persons attended upon this occasion, and the celebration of the midnight mass at Christmas 1673, in the centre of the grotto was recorded in an inscription still to be seen on the rock near its entrance.

Though the ancients mention the island under the name of Olinaros, they have not noticed this beautiful grotto; it perhaps did not exist in its present form in their time. The extreme smoothness of the descent and floor of the great chamber, together with the appearance of the area at the entrance, make it not improbable that it is, at least in part, an ancient marble

quarry, which has been nearly filled up by the concretions of ages. Similar caverns are not very uncommon in the Greek islands, (see *Naxos*), and St. Michael's cave in the rock of Gibraltar has been formed much in the same way as the grotto of Antiparos. See Gibraltar, Tournefort's *Travels*. Lady Craven's *Travels*.

ANTIPATHES, in Zoology. A genus of the class Polypi, order Vagionti. Generic character; coral fixed, somewhat arborescent, composed of a central stem, and a deciduous cortical incrustation. The internal part expanded at the base, caulescent, horny, solid, flexible, somewhat fragile. Cortical part gelatinous, containing the animal. Polypus not known. Lemark.

It is extremely difficult to discover the true nature of the inhabitant polypus of this genus. The extremely delicate and fugacious character of the cortical substance, renders it in fact impossible to make any satisfactory observations after it has been taken from the sea. The different kinds of black coral are all species of Antipathes, which comprehends not less than twenty; the greater number of which are natives of the Indian Ocean. A. Scoparia, and A. Larix, inhabit the Mediterranean, and are, it is believed, the only European species.

ANTIPATHY,	} <i>Antipathes</i> , from <i>anti</i> , against and <i>patos</i> , feeling.
ANTIPATHETICAL,	
ANTIPATHETIC,	
ANTIPATHOS,	} A feeling against; contrariety of affection; dislike.

There are, indeed, deep secrets in nature, whose bottom we cannot dive into: as those wonders of the landscape; a piece, outwardly contemptible, yet of such force as approacheth near to a miracle: and many other strange sympathies and antipathies in several creatures; in which rank may be not the bleeding of the dead at the presence of the murderer.

Hall's Cases of Conscience.

He goes on building many fair and pious conclusions upon false and wicked premises, which deceive the common reader, not well discerning the *antipathy* of such conclusions.

Milton's Answer to Eikon Basilike.

If some men will wound at some man, yet but smiling it up-sets, by their disaffection themselves; why may not whole species and kinds of creatures have some antipathetical places, though the reason thereof cannot be rendered.

Fuller's Worthies. Lincolnshire.

FEED. What solitary mischief can predominate
A wise man than? or doth thy friendship play
[In this antipathetic extreme] with mine,
Lest glances indicate me?

Bruce and Fletcher. Four Plays in One.

Ty'd upon the sledge, a papist and a protestant in front, two and two together, being two very disparate and antipathetical companions.

Isaac Libell.

There are many ancient and received traditions and observations touching the sympathy and antipathy of plants; for that some will thrive best growing near others, which they impute to sympathy, and some worse, which they impute to antipathy. But there are idle and ignorant conceits, and break the true indication of the causes, as the most part of experiments that concern sympathies and antipathies do.

Bacon's Works, vol. i. 232.

Solomon, whatever might be the general worth and virtue of his character, had no such predominant attachment to righteousness nor antipathy to wickedness, in the large sense in which the words are taken by the psalmist, but that his love for the one and his hatred of the other were overpowered by his fondness for many of his seven hundred wives.

Horley's Sermons.

ANTIPATHY, in Painting, relates to colouring. If red and green, blue and orange, yellow and purple, be mixed

ANTI-
PAROS.ANTIPA-
THY.

ANTIPA-
THY.
—
ANTI-
PHON.

together, they are so mutually destructive of their respective tints and brilliancy, that they are said to have an antipathy for each other. The skilful use of these antipathies, prevents a glaring and gaudy effect; but at the same time, if they are not applied with judgment, the colouring becomes cold and flat. What is called *contrast* and *degradation* in colours, depends upon the knowledge of this part of the art; and upon the proper use of the three colours blue, red, and yellow, much of the effect of a picture depends.

ANTIPATRIS, or CAPPABARA, called in 1 Maccab. vii. 31, Capharsalama, a town of Palestine, to the east of Apollonia, on the sea coast. It was 18 miles from Jerusalem, on the borders of Samaria.

ANTIPERISTASIS, in philosophy. The action of two opposite qualities, whereby each of them is heightened and increased. This principle was of extensive use to the peripatetic philosophy; and the doctrine has been thoroughly canvassed by Mr. Boyle, in his History of Cold.

ANTIPHON, } *ἀντίφωνο*, from *ἀντί*, against,
ANTIPHONAL, a. } and *φωνή*, voice, sound. See
ANTIPHONAL, adj. } *ἀντημ*. Particularly applied
ANTIPHONIC, } to the alternate chant or sing-
ANTIPHONY. } ing in cathedrals.
Opposition or contrariety of
sound.

This little child his little book learning,
As he sat in the aisle at his primers,
He alma redemptoris herde sing,
As children loved his antiphonere.

Chaucer. *The Prioresse's Tale*, v. 2. p. 52.

It was at first a confession of faith, and used by a newly baptized convert, and the standers by, and then it came to be a hymn, and very early annexed to the antiphones, and afterwards to the psalms and hymns.

Taylor's Apology for Authorized and Set Forms of Liturgy, Pref.

True it is, that the harmony of music, whether it be in song or instrument, hath sympathy by antipathy, (that is to say,) the accord ariseth from discord, and of contrary notes is composed a sweet tune.

Holland's *Plutarch's Morals*.

[John Gwyneth] supplicated that whereas he had spent twenty years in the praxis and theory of music, and had published three masses of five parts, and five masses of four, as also certain symphonies, antiphones, and divers songs for the use of the church, he might be admitted to proceed in the faculty of music; that is, he made doctor of that faculty.

Wood's *Festum Oxon.*

Item, iii. antiphonere of parchment, bought by Mr. Parret for the queen.

T. Warton's *Life of Sir T. Pope*. App. Num. XVII.

Antiphonal singing was first brought into the church of Milan, in imitation of the custom of the eastern churches.

Christian *Antiquities*, li. iii.

He (Calvia) thought that novelty was sure to succeed, that the practice of antiphonal chanting was superstitious, &c.

Warren. *Hist. Eng. Poetry*, 3. 164.

We command and charge you that you do command the dean and prebendaries of your cathedral church; the parson, vicar, or curate, and churchwardens of every parish, to bring and deliver unto you all antiphonals, missals, gradals, processionals, &c.

Burnet *Ref.* 3. Rec. 1. 47.

Pliny has recorded, that it was the custom in his time to meet upon a fixed day before light, and to sing a hymn, in parts or by turns, to Christ as God; which expression can hardly have any other sense put upon it, than that they sang in an antiphonal way.

Whately on the *Com. Prayer*, p. 161.

ANTI-
PHONY
—
ANTI-
POPE.

ANTIPHONY, is that species of psalmody, in which the congregation being divided into two parts, repeats the psalm, verse for verse, alternately; and is in this sense distinguished from *symphony*, in which the congregation sing all together. Suidas, under the word *χορὸς*, tells us that in the time of Constantine (A. D. 337 to 371,) the choirs of the churches of Antioch were divided into two parts, who sang alternately the Psalms of David. And he adds that the practice extended from thence over all the Christian world. The time of its introduction into the western churches, is supposed to be A. D. 374, where it was first used at Milan, by St. Ambrose. The Antiphony is a service book of the Romish church, containing all the several antiphonaria, or, as they are otherwise called, *responsaries*, used in that service. The author of the Roman Antiphonary, was Pope Gregory the Great. For further particulars upon this subject the reader may consult Burney's *History of Music*, vol. ii. p. 10; and Suiceri *Thesaurus*, vol. i. p. 388, voci *antiphonaria*.

ANTIPHLOGISTIC (from *ἀντί*, against, and *φλόγῃ*, to burn), in Medicine, a term applied to all medicines, plans of diet, and other circumstances, which tend to oppose inflammation and fever, by reducing the power, and diminishing the action of the system.

ANTIPHRAISIS, in rhetoric, Sanctius defines, antiphrasis, to be a form of irony, in which we affirm a thing by denying it to be what it is not; as, "he is no better than he should be."

ANTIPODES. } *ἀντίπους*, *ἀντιπῶδες*, from *ἀντί*,
ANTIPODAL. } against, opposed to, and *πῶς*, a foot

Would he have stolen away
From sleeping Herminia? He believes as soon
This whole earth may be laid, and that the moon
May through the centre creep, and so displace
Her brethren moonlike, with th' antipodes.

Shakespeare's *Mid. Night's Dream*, act iii.

Unto other habitations, the same point will be both east and west; as unto those that are antipodes, or seated in points of the globe diametrically opposed. So the Americans are antipodal unto the Indians, and some part of India is both east and west unto America, according as it shall be regarded from one side or the other, to the right or to the left.

Brown's *Vulgar Errors*.

The antipodes are those who live in parallels of latitude equally distant from the equator, the one towards the north, the other towards the south. Plato is said to have been the first person by whom the notion of antipodes was entertained; but his theory is greatly ridiculed by St. Augustine and Lactantius, who forgetting that the lowest point with respect to us, upon this supposition, is the center of the earth, were strangely perplexed to imagine how men could hang pendulous in the air. In St. Augustine's book, *De Civitate Dei*, he discusses this question respecting the existence of antipodes, amongst a great many others, which were then supposed to be of the same class, as whether there are pigmies, cyclopes, &c.; and decides, as Pliny had done before, against the fact.

ANTIPODIS, a city in ancient Gaul, now called Antibes. It was formerly a considerable port, and had a theatre and many public buildings.

ANTIPOPE, he that usurps the popedom.

This house is famous in history for the retreat of an antipope, Felix V.

Addison.

ANTI-
QUATE.

ANTIQUATE,
ANTIQUARIAN, n.
ANTIQUARY, n.
ANTIQUARY, adj.
ANTIQUARIANS.
ANTIQUATION.
ANTIQUÉ, n.
ANTIQUÉ, adj.
ANTIQUENESS,
ANTIQUITY.

Antiquo, Antiquus, or
Anticus, from ante, before.
To treat as too old, too an-
tique for use; to annual or
put out of use; to render
obsolete on account of
age.

An antiquarian, or antiquary is one who is devoted to the study or pursuit of that which is old or antique. Who so lost to know more touching the certainties and truth of these matters move reader the hove of the excellent antiquary John Leyland, intituled the Assertion of Arthur, where every thing is more at large discovered.

Grafton, vol. i. p. 85.

Looke backe, who list, vnto the former ages,
And call to roat, what is of them become?
Where be those learned wise and antique sages,
Which of all wisdome knew the perfect soune?

Spenser's *Shepherd's Week*.

If mine owne remembrance begie me not, among mine anti-
quaries I haue brought a stone out of Greece, the which Pithagoras
the philosopher helde at the gates of his schoole, whereto was writte
with his own hand these wordes: He that knoweth not that he
ought to know, is a brute beast among men: He that knoweth no
more then he hath neede of, is a mad man; he that knoweth al that
he knoweth al that maie be knowe, is a God among men.

Golden Booke.

In what estimateth the word of God was had in old time, may
evidently appere by those rites and ceremonies as yet be used in
y^e church, left vnto vs of old antiquite.

Udall Pref. to John.

FIRST PLAYER. Anon he finds him
Striking too short at Greece. His antique sword
Rebellious to his arme Ipes where it fallies,
Reynegant to command.

Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, act. i.

ORL. O good old man, how well in the apperance
The constant service of the antique world,
When service sweats for dustie, not for mende.
Shakespeare's *As you like it*, act. ii. sc. iii.

An Egyptian priest having conference with Solon, said to him;
You Grecians are ever children; you have no knowledge of anti-
quity, nor antiquity of knowledge.

Bacon's *Apophthegms*.

We please ourselves with what we enjoy, and never reflect upon
what is past, unless it be to lighten and advance our present en-
joyments; and if we do chance to think upon the serious resolu-
tions we then entertained, we look upon them as the weak results
of our infirmity, useful indeed for that time, but now antiquated
and grown unreasonable.

Hale's *Constitution*.

What time the persons countries entered the famous nations of
the dead, and slept with princes and counsellors, might admit a
wise solution. But who were the proprietaries of these houses, or
what bodies these ashes made up, were a question above anti-
quarian.

Brown's *Hydrophobia*.

I will not praise thy wisdom,
Which like a bourse, a pale, a shore confines
Thy spacious and dilated parts; here's Nestor
Instructed by the antiquary times:

He must, he is, he cannot but be wise.

Shakespeare's *Troilus and Cressida*.

You bring forth now, great queen, as you form
An antiquation of the antique law;
V' have shewn once more a child, whose e'er part
May gain unto our realm a several heart,
So given unto your king, so fity sent,
As we may justly call't your complement.

Chatterbox's *Poem to the Queen*.

ANTI-
QUATE.

Milton's *Paradise Lost* is admirable; but am I therefore bound
to maintain that there are no flats against his elevations, when it
is evident he creeps along sometimes for above a hundred lines
together? Cannot I admire the height of his invention, and the
strength of his expression, without defending his antiquated words,
and the perpetual harshness of their sound?

Dryden's *Translations*. Pref.

With sharpen'd sight pale antiquaries pore,
Th' inscription value, but the rust adore.
This the blue varnish, that the green endears,
The sacred rust of twice ten hundred years!
To pain Prescrum one employs his scheme,
One grasps a Cærops in ecstatic dreams.

Pope's *Moral Essays*.

The Dutch, whom we are apt to despise for want of genius,
show an infinitely greater taste of antiquity and politeness in their
buildings and works of this nature, than we meet with in those
of our own country.

Spectator, No. 26.

This is the species of cascade, which was the great object of
imitation in all the antiquated water-works of the last age. Our
forefathers admired the successive fall.

Galpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

He [Tullius] had such an abundant collection of ancient statues,
that he actually filled an extensive garden with them the very day
he purchased it; not to mention numberless other antiquary, which
stood neglected in a lumber-room.

Milne's *Pliny*.

Of all the precious remains of antiquity, perhaps Aristotle's
Treatise on Poetry is come down to us as much injured by time as
any.

Lowth's *Isaiah*. Preliminary Dis.

We may discover something very new in the great object of
the work; but we would see the design coloured.

Admion.

God begun to punish it [sacrilege] very early, in
Arkian in the Old Testament, in Aramian and Sapphirian in the New;
that no one may pretend antiquity of the Old Testament.

Life of Mr. Dr. Ap.

The long detail of where we'd been,
And what we'd heard, and what we'd seen;
And what the poet's fanciful skill,
And what the painter's graphic art,
Or antiquarian's searches keen,
Of calm amusement could impart.

Scott's *Ode to a Friend*.

He [Sir Tho. Stradling] was father of Sir John Stradling, re-
markable in the reign of Elizabeth, for his critical skill in the British
language, and his patronage of the Welsh antiquarian litera-
ture.

T. Warren's *Life of Sir T. Pope*.

The sun was hot, but the spirit of antiquarianism gave us
strength and courage to climb up to the platform of Saint John de
Alfarache.

Switzerland. *Press*, through Spain. Let. 31. p. 272.

I shall faithfully lay before the reader such materials as that la-
bourious antiquary [Mr. Verriar] had amassed for deducing the
history of English painting from a very early period.

Walpole's *Anecdotes of Painting*.

A slavish imitation of antique ornament may be carried into
absurdity.

Galpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

We are told by Pausanias, that in the chief cities of
Greece and Italy there were persons appointed under
the name of antiquaries, or, as he calls them, *ἑγγυρῆται*,
whose office was to shew strangers the antiquities and
public monuments of the place. Irish historians in-
form us that there existed in Ireland a college of an-
tiquarians so early as 700 years before Christ; and to
this they ascribe the remote period to which the Irish
annals reach, as compared with those of other nations.
Sir H. Spelman speaks of a society of antiquarians to
which he belonged in this country, which was founded

ANTI-
QUATE.
—
ANTI-
TACTÆ.

in 1578, by Archh. Parker, Camden, Sir Rob. Cotton, Stowe, and others. They made an application to Queen Elizabeth for a charter, but their design was frustrated by the death of the queen. During the reign of her successors the members of the society fell away, and the society itself became at length totally extinct; but it was revived in 1717. In 1751, it was incorporated by the king's charter by the name of the President, Council, and Fellows, of the Society of Antiquaries of London. The council consists of 21 members, ten of whom are annually changed; the election of members is by ballot, and the choice is determined by a majority of two thirds. They have a weekly meeting on Thursday from seven in the evening till nine. This society began to publish its Transactions in 1770, under the name of *Archæologia*.

Henry VIII. gave John Leland the title of his Antiquary, an officer which many kings in other countries, have kept in their service.

The word antique is chiefly used among architects, sculptors, and painters, who apply it to such remains of art as were produced among the Greeks and Romans, previous to the irruption of the Goths into Italy under Alaric, A. D. 400.

ANTIRRHINUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Didymnia, order Angiospermia. Generic character. Calyx 5-partite; corolla gibbous at the base; capsule of two cells, oblique, opening at the top with three pores.

This was formerly a more extensive genus, but later authors have divided it into two, the greater number of species being now referred to the genus *Linaria*, which is distinguished from *Antirrhinum* by the long spur at the base of the corolla. Two species, viz. the *A. Majus* and *A. Orlanum*, are natives of England.

ANTISCI, from *anti*, against, and *scia*, shadow, denotes the inhabitants of opposite hemispheres of the earth, and whose shadows, at noon day, fall, in consequence, in opposite directions.

ANTISEPTICS, in Medicine, are those medicines which are supposed to possess a power of preventing animal putrefaction, and of retarding it when begun. This term was more in use formerly, when it was believed that many diseases were the consequence of putrefaction of the fluids of the living animal body.

ANTISPASMODICS, in Medicine, a class of remedies which possess the power of relieving irregular actions of muscles, or of muscular organs.

ANTISPASTUS, a poetical foot, consisting of four syllables, of which the first and last are long, and the second and third short.

ANTISTROPHE, from *anti* against, and *strophē*, I turn, a kind of dance, to which the Greeks sung their sacred hymns. When they moved round the altar towards the right, it was called the strophe; when they returned towards the left, it was called the antistrophe. That part of the hymn which was sung before the altar in a stationary position, was called the epode. Hence in the lyrical poetry of the ancients, the ode is often divided into the strophe, the antistrophe, and epode; of which the second is a kind of replication to the strophe, and the epode consists of matter which belongs in common to the subject of both. Vossius *Inst. Poet.* lib. ii. c. vii. lib. xiv.

ANTI-TACTÆ, or Antitacti, was a sect of the Gnostics, from *antitactis*, I oppose. They are mentioned by Theodoret *Hist. Fabul.* lib. i. cap. iii. But the only inference that can be drawn from his words is, that they rested more in religion upon the existence of an evil principle than was customary with other Gnostics.

ANTITAIURUS, a chain of mountains, in Cappadocia, extending from mount Taurus to the Euphrates.

ANTITHESIS, in rhetoric, from *antitithēmi*, I oppose. A figure by which two things are attempted to be made more striking from being set in opposition to each other. It is a common artifice in composition, but ought to be used with considerable caution. The following are examples — *Cum levis loquatur, ingentes stupent. Sen.*

Plectere et aequo superos, Achæonta morbo.—Vian.

Audite juvenes senem, quem juvenem senes audire; a saying of Augustus to some turbulent young men.

ANTITHETON. Vossius seems to think that this figure differs from antithesis, in respect that in the latter *epitheta* only are opposed, but in the epitheon, nouns and verbs.

ANTITYPE, from *anti*, and *typos*, rudem operis futuri adumbrationem et delineationem — the rude sketch or outline of any work. In this sense the phrase *ἡ ἐν τύπῳ*, as in a type, is used by Aristotle, and others, as opposed to *ἡ ἐν ἀριστῷ*, the finished performance; by analogy, the word type is used in the sacred writings to express the peculiar character of the Old Testament, which contains, as it were, the imperfect hints and rough draught of the new.

The word antitype, occurs twice in the New Testament; in *Heb.* ix. 24. and in *1 Peter* iii. 21. In the first of these passages, the word antitype is opposed to the things prefigured, and is used therefore in the same sense as type, the preposition being, as it frequently is in composition, redundant to the sense; "Christ is not entered into holy places made with hands, which are figures (*εἰκόνες*) of the New." In the passage from St. Peter, baptism is called an antitype to the ark of Noah, "where eight souls were saved by water;" here therefore the word does not mean simply a type, but a corresponding type.

In the writings of the fathers the word antitype is frequently used; but never except in the simple sense of type. Thus the bread and wine in the sacraments are called *antitypa*, antitypes of "the body and blood of Christ." This is an usual form of expression among the fathers. But a distinction has been made by some Romish doctors, as if it were only before consecration that the word was applied to the sacred elements; but that after consecration, the bread and wine were no longer called antitypes, but the true body and blood of Christ. This assertion was first made by St. John Damascenus in the 8th century, but cannot be supported even by the confession of the more candid among the Roman Catholics themselves. See L. Al-latius *De Eccles. Conventu*, lib. iii. cap. xv. sec. xxviii. also Billius in his *Notæ to the Eleventh Oracion of Gregory Nazianzen*.

ANTI-VIRGILIAN HUSBANDRY. A name by which the drill husbandry, as improved by Mr. Tull, is sometimes distinguished by writers on husbandry.

ANTIUM, in ancient geography, now Capo d'Anzio, a town of Italy, south of Rome, situate on a rock near the sea. It was captured by the Romans, A. U. 284. Livy, b. viii. c. 14. and Florus, b. i. c. 11. inform us

ANTI-
TACTÆ.
—
ANTIUM.

ANTIUM.
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ANTU-
NIN, ST.

that it was in their wars with the Antines, that the Romans acquired their first knowledge of naval war. It was with the beaks of the ships taken from the Antines that the Romans adorned the pulpit erected in the forum, which was from this circumstance called the *nastrum*.

ANTLER, } Fr. Andoulier, Antollier. The
ANTLERED, } brow antlers, a first branch of a deer's
head. Cotgrave. The French etymologists
seem willing to derive from the Latin ante, before.

Haste, like the nimblest harts, that lightly bound
Before the stretches of the swiftest bound;
With reaching feet devour a level way,
Across their backs their branching antlers lay,
In the cool dews their bending body ply,
And brush the spicy mountains as they fly.

Parnell's Gift of Poetry.

A fowl with spangled plumes, a brindled steer,
Sometimes a crested mare, or antler'd deer:
Sold for a price, she parted, to maintain
Her starving parent with dishonest gain.

Virgil's Ovid, book viii.

A stag sprung from the posture to his call,
And kneeling, lick'd the wither'd hand that tied
A wreath of woodbine round his antlers tall,
And hung his lofty neck with many a flow'ret small.

Beattie's Minstrel, book xi.

—They found
Ulysses dear to Jove hemm'd all about
By Trojans, as the lynxes in the hills,
And fur blood, swarms round the antler'd stag
Pierc'd by the archer.

Couper's Homer's Iliad, book xi.

ANTLIA, an ancient draining machine, supposed to be similar to our pump.

ANTECI, from *anti* and *cicco*, I inhabit; those inhabitants of the earth who live under the same meridian, and at the same distance from the equator in different hemispheres.

ANTOING, a market town and barony of the Netherlands, in Hainault, with a population of 1,600 persons and an old castle, situated on the Scheldt, somewhat more than 4 miles from Tournay. In this vicinity, viz., at the adjoining village of Fontenoy, the allies under the Duke of Cumberland and Count Königsegg fought the well known battle of that name with the French, under Marshal Saxe, in May 1745.

ANTONIA, TOWER OF, was a fortress which joined the Temple of Jerusalem, and was built by Hyrcanus. It was situate on a steep hill, at the N. W. angle of the Temple, and completely commanded it, and by means of it, the city. It was originally called Baris, but the name was changed by Herod, in honour of Marc Antony.

ANTONINUS, THE WALL OF, the barrier erected by the Romans across the Isthmus, between the Forth and the Clyde. It was constructed A. D. 140, and consisted of a ditch, from 12 to 14 feet wide, the wall being formed of the earth that was thrown up. This wall is now nearly demolished by the plough share. General Roy, in his 35th plate, has traced its course, and given plans of the stations belonging to it.

ANTONIN, ST., a small town of France, in Rouergue, at the confluence of the Arignon and Bonnette, surrounded by steep mountains. It is now the chief town of a canton, in the department of the Tarn and Garonne, arrondissement of Mootauban, and has 5,400 inhabitants. Here are manufactures of woollen stuffs

and leather; and the environs abound in plums and saffron; 7 leagues S. W. of Ville.

ANTONIO, SAN. There are of this name between 50 and 60 villages in South America, most of which are too inconsiderable to require any particular notice. Of these, 13 are in Mexico, 2 in New Granada, 2 in Peru, 3 in Quito, 3 in Terra Firma, 1 in the Canadas, 1 in Guiana, 10 in Brazil, 3 in Chili, 2 in the province of Tucuman, 1 in Buenos Ayres, and 2 in Carthagena.

ANTONIO, SAN, DE LOS CUCES, a populous town of Mexico, on the road from Orizaba to Oaxaca, celebrated for the remains of the ancient Mexican fortifications.

ANTONOMASIA, from *anti* and *nomas*. A form of speech, in which for some proper name is put the name of some office, possession, or dignity.

This way of speaking, which grammarians call an *antonomasia*, demonstrates how much mankind are naturally disposed to give to one object the name of any other, which nearly resembles it, and thus to demonstrate a multitude by what originally was intended to express an individual.

Ad. Smith on the Formation of Languages.

ANTONY, a small town in France, chiefly noted for candle manufactories, and containing 1,220 inhabitants, situated in the department of the Seine, arrondissement of Senlis; 2 leagues S. S. W. of Paris.

ANTOSIANDRIANS, a sect of Lutherans who denied the doctrine of Osiander relating to justification. They affirm that man is not made just by justification, as God is just, but only that he is treated by God, as he were.

ANTRAIGUES, a small town of France, in the Vivarais. Population 1,500, 44 leagues W. of Privas.

ANTRAIN, a small town in Brittany, the head of a canton in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, arrondissement of Fougères. It contains 1,375 inhabitants, and manufactories of coarse woollen stuffs; 9 leagues N. E. of Rennes.

ANTRAIN, a small town of France, in the Nivernois.

ANTRE, Lat. Antrum, a cave or den.

—Of my redemption thence,
And portance in my travels' histories,
Wherein of anters vast, and deserts idle,
Rough quarries, rocks, hills, whose head touch heaven,
It was my hint to speak.

Shakespeare's Othello, act i. sc. 3.

ANTRIM, a county of Ireland in the province of Ulster, comprises the northern extremity of that portion of the British dominions, and exhibits some of the most striking scenery for which the sister island is remarkable. Its greatest length is about 54 miles, and breadth 35; being bounded on the north and east by the sea, on the south by Lough Neagh and the county of Down, and on the west by that of Londonderry. The general features of this district are mountainous, diversified every where by numerous bogs, rivers, and lakes, and, on the whole, more deserving of notice for their picturesque effect than for cultivation or fertility.

The agriculture of this county is still in a state of great backwardness. Farms are very small, and continue to be laboured with little capital and less skill, according to the ancient habits of an unenlightened people. A great part of the land, owing perhaps to the rockiness of the soil, as well as to the diminutive portion of it which falls to the share of any individual

ANTO-
NIN, ST.
—
ANTRIM.

ANTRIM. tenant, is wrought with the spade, and otherwise coarsely prepared for a crop of potatoes. Next follows flax; which, in the usual routine, is succeeded by oats; after which the impoverished soil is again disturbed to receive once more a little manure, and to yield once more a supply of the natural vegetable. Where the farms are too large to be conveniently cultivated with the spade, three or four neighbours unite their means to get up a plough; one supplying the instrument itself, another producing a horse, and a third contributing a bullock, or even a milch-cow. Improvements in culture are equally unknown, and desiderated; and were it not that, even in the most northern parts of the land, the prolific powers of nature second with great efficiency the imperfect endeavours of the husbandman, the fields would yield no meat, and the ox would be cut off from the stall.

The landed property of Antrim is nearly all held of the crown. Some of the estates are very extensive; that of the Marquess of Hertford, for example, comprehending not fewer than 60,000 acres of arable soil, besides a proportionable share of bog and mountain. The other great proprietors are the Antrim family, the Marquess of Donegal, Lord Templeton, and Lord O'Neill. Could a new system of farming be introduced the value of land would rise considerably, and the face of the country, at the same time, receive a material embellishment; but such changes can only be effected by the persevering example of the better informed classes, who, unfortunately for Ireland, expend their patriotism on a distant shore, and commit her destinies to those who neither understand them, nor have any desire to guide them aright.

Antrim has long been celebrated for its linen manufacture, and the extent to which it is still carried on may be partly estimated from the quantity of flax annually raised within the county. A few years ago not less than 11,000 acres were appropriated to the growth of that article; yielding at the average rate of thirty stones per acre. The manufacture of cotton cloth has, however, of late years in some degree superseded the staple of Antrim, and given employment to nearly 30,000 persons, young and old; and as German linens are found to obtain a decided preference in the foreign market to those which are made in any part of Great Britain, it is probable that the culture of flax will gradually give way to the importation of cotton to a still greater extent than even that which has lately taken place.

The population of this county is estimated at 250,000, exhibiting an increase of near 100,000 in the space of 30 years. Antrim contains a greater proportion of Protestants than perhaps any other county in Ireland; and as the inhabitants are chiefly of Scottish extraction, the majority of them are presbyterians; maintaining a synodical communion either with the indigenous congregations, or with the several bodies of dissenters from the church of Scotland. The food of the common people here, as in many parts of Ireland, is of the meanest description possible. A family consisting of six persons is understood to consume in a week between three and four bushels of potatoes, fourteen herrings, nine quarts of buttermilk, and one pound of salt; the whole amounting, one week with another, to about five shillings. This estimate applies to families employed in manufactures. The

peasant engaged solely in agriculture is said to feed **ANTRIM.** better, and to extend to the inmates of his cabin the occasional enjoyment of a little beef, cheese or pork; but on the whole the working class in this country, are condemned to an unceasing penury, with which the labourer in other parts of the united kingdom has hitherto been unacquainted.

The exports of Antrim, in addition to their linen manufactures, consists chiefly of provisions which during the late war employed a great deal of capital, and afforded an ample return. In the year 1811, not fewer than 70,000 pigs, weighing at least 300lbs. each, were carried to Belfast for exportation. A branch of trade, it is unnecessary to add, which has been much diminished by the continuance of peace, and the consequent low prices of agricultural produce.

The minerals of this district present nothing remarkable if we except the fossil wood, or wood-coal, as it is more commonly called, and which is here found under masses of basaltic rock. The reader can hardly fail to have heard of the various theories entertained by mineralogists, in regard to the origin of coal, and of the controversy which subsisted between Kirwan, and some contemporary writers, relative to the ingredients of that substance; whether as being altogether mineral, or altogether vegetable, or consisting partly of both. Mr. Playfair, of Edinburgh, was disposed to give the weight of his opinion in favour of the vegetable composition of coal, and referred in support of it to some specimens in his possession, procured in the isle of Sky, (the same geological structure with Antrim,) which presented in one small fragment both perfect wood coal and perfect mineral coal; and thus, in his mind, established at once the identity of the two species, and also their common vegetable origin. In the portion of Ireland of which we are now writing, the fossil wood presents itself with its original structure so entire that there is no difficulty in ascertaining its place as a member of the forest tribes. The bark and knots are quite distinct; and the rings, denoting the annual growth of the tree, may still be easily counted. It is a circumstance, however, worthy of remark, and certainly involving no small difficulty, that notwithstanding the ligneous origin of the Antrim coal, it is so fully impregnated with bitumen as to be thought unfit for the purposes of the arts, and even for the humbler uses of domestic life.

This county returns five members to Parliament; namely, two for the shire, and three for the three principal towns, Belfast, Carrickfergus, and Lisburn: whilst in regard to ecclesiastical rule, the whole of it, with the exception, perhaps, of three or four parishes, acknowledges the superintendence of the Bishop of Connor.

For the singular basaltic structure which lines the northern boundary of Antrim, we beg to refer the reader to the article **GIANT'S CAUSEWAY**, in another part of this Work; where a description of that striking geological phenomenon will be given, at some length, in connection with the opinions of such modern authors as have attempted to account for it on the grounds of recognized theory.

ANTRIM, a town of Ireland, and capital of the county of that name, situated at the north end of

ANTRUM. Lough Neagh, upon the banks of a small stream, called the Six Mile Water. There is a good pier to the town, near which vessels can lie at low water; but the custom house, which was formerly established on it, has been removed to Belfast, from which it is distant about 12 miles. It appears to have been a borough of considerable importance in former times; for the mayor of Antrim was *admiral ex officio*, of a considerable extent of coast, both in this county and in Down. It is still a place of consideration, and before the Union sent two members to parliament. In the streets of the town a sharp engagement took place in 1798, between a detachment of regular troops, and about 6000 insurgents, who were defeated with loss. It gives the title of earl to the noble family of McDonnell. It is 84 miles north of Dublin.

ANTROBUS, in the West Division of the Hundred of Bucklow, County Palatine of Chester, in the parish of Great Budworth. The resident population of this township is 351. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £212. 14s. 6½d. or 2s. 5½d. in the pound. It is 5 miles N. N. W. of Northwich.

ANTION, a town of ancient Greece, in that part of Thessaly called Phthiotis.

ANTROS, a small island on the west coast of France, at the mouth of the Garonne, on which stands the famous light-house of Corduan.

ANTRUM, one of the Alps of Switzerland, in the Valais; there is a communication across it, between Valais and Lombardy.

ANTURA, a village of Syria, on Mount Libanus, amidst a grove of mulberry trees. The Jesuits had a convent here, which is now occupied by another order.

ANTWERP, Antwerpen, Germ. Dutch. Anvers, Fr. Ambers, Sp. a province of the Netherlands, situated between 4° 13', and 5° 16', E. lon. 51°, and 51° 32', N. lat. having North Brabant on the N. and N. E. Linburg on the S. E. South Brabant on the S., and East Flanders on the W. It contains 191½ square G. M. It is a complete level, lying so low that water is found every where at the depth of 10 or 12 inches. The soil is sandy throughout, but is excellently cultivated and well-watered by the Scheldt, Dyle, Senne, Great and Little Nethe, and the Rupel. It has many stagnant pools and morasses, and two canals; those of Brussels and Lovain. The climate is so moist, that the quantity of rain amounts from 28 to 28½ inches annually. The weather is variable. The skill with which the soil is cultivated amply makes up for its defects, and outwitting the populousness of the province, almost as much grain is raised as is required for its own consumption. The average crops are wheat 73,347 cwt.; rye 415,508 cwt.; barley 109,267 cwt.; and oats 237,921 cwt. They also grow, on a large scale, huckwheat, beans, potatoes, turnips, carrots, flax, hemp, rape seed and madder. There are 136,014 acres of arable land, 27,000 acres of wood, 40,345 acres of natural, and 13,155 acres of artificial grass. Much attention is paid to their cattle. Their horses are large and strong, but not handsome. They have many hives of bees, and remove them from place to place, to improve the honey. Their manufactures are numerous, and some of them in great estimation; as, for example, the point-lace of Mecklin. The exports consist entirely of manufactured articles,

particularly lace, hats, cloths, ticking, woollen wrappers, sugar, starch, leather, beer, brandy, &c. which are principally exported from Antwerp and Mecklin. The population in 1815, amounted to 287,347 which gives 1500 for every square mile. The majority are Wallons who profess the Roman Catholic religion and have 34 parishes and 131 curacies. The province sends five deputies to the States General, belongs to the fourth military division, and is under the jurisdiction of the High Court of Justice at Brussels. The provincial states consist of 60 members, of whom 15 are sent by the nobility, 24 by the towns, and 21 by the country. The province is divided into the three circles of Antwerp, Mecklin, and Tornhooft, which contain 17 districts, and 141 communities.

ANTWERP, *ANVSOP*, or *ASVOOP*, the capital of the province of the same name, is situated on the Scheldt, and was formerly the place of greatest trade in Europe. In 1550, the epoch of its highest prosperity, it was not unusual to see 2000 vessels at one time in this port. But the wars which raged in the low countries; the sack of the city in 1585, by the Duke of Parma; the persecutions of the Duke of Alva, which forced the most industrious part of the population of the low countries to emigrate; and finally an article in the treaty of Munster, in 1648, which was sanctioned by Philip IV. at the instance of the Dutch, by which it was stipulated that no large merchant vessels should sail up to this city, but that the cargo should be first unloaded in the Dutch ports, and thence conveyed in small craft to Antwerp—these, together with other causes, combined to strip this once celebrated city of its commercial grandeur and pre-eminence. According to Guicciardini, the population of Antwerp was formerly 100,000; but Busching, a better authority in this case, raises the number to 200,000. It contains at present 61,500. It is still, however, a large and well built city, the streets are 300 to number, and the squares, which amount to 22, are spacious and elegant. The street called the Mere, is one of the widest in Europe; the cathedral is a very noble pile, and contains the celebrated Descent from the Cross, of Rubens, which is considered by many as the chef d'œuvre of art. The exchange is reckoned the handsomest building of its kind in existence; it cost 300,000 crowns, and furnished the model for the Exchange of London and Amsterdam; and a striking monument of its past commercial greatness still remains in the celebrated house of Osterlins, in the cellars and magazines of which the commerce of the world was formerly deposited.

Antwerp has been fated almost more than any city in Europe to experience the effects of war, as until its late occupation by the French it was an open town, defended only by a citadel erected by the Duke of Alva in 1568. Under their dominion however, it underwent great and extensive improvements; its harbour was enlarged; dock yards for building vessels of war were constructed, and it became, one of the first naval ports in Europe. The harbour will contain upwards of a 1000 vessels which, by means of canals, can penetrate to almost any part of the town. 22 miles north of Brussels. E. lon. 4° 24'. North lat. 51° 13'. See Guicciardini, *Descrittione di tutti i Paesi Bassi, in Anversa*. Busching's *Dict. Geog. et Com.* vol. ii. Hume vol. iii. p. 398. v. 196.

ANT-
WERP.

ANUA.
—ANUS.

ANUA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Palestine, in the tribe of Zebulun. This was also the name of a town in the tribe of Ephraim.

ANUI, GREAT and DAY, two large rivers of Siberia, which fall into the Kalyma, or Koryma, nearly opposite to the fortress Nischney Kolymsk. The course of the former is 600 miles, and that of the latter 330, and the banks of both are inhabited by a tribe called Yukagiriens.

ANVIL, } Sax. *Ænfile*, which Skinner derives
ANVILLE, } from *Æn*, on, and, and *feallan*, to fall, because the hammer frequently falls upon the anvil, and the anvil is exposed to the frequent blows of the hammer.

Although I could not make so woe
Songs or knew the art all
As could Lamoches Tuball
That found out first the art of song
For as his brothers hammers rang
Upon his anvil up and downe
Thereof he took the first sorrow.

The dreamer of Chaucer, fol. 244. c. 1.

—Some clattering forth felt bellows blasting winds
Incessant yield and draw, some dips in lakes and troughs of stones
Hot blasting gleads: all *Ætna* vaults with anvil's moaning groans
Ætna, by *Thos. Pheer*, book viii.

One stirs the fire, and one the bellows blows.
The hissing steel is in the smould'ring dross;
The groat with beaten anvil's groans around.

Dryden.

Yet they with patience ran by some he read.
That know not how they uncorrected stand;
Seest thou from the forge, ere thoroughly anvil'd;
Deprived of my last life-giving hand.

Sandy's Ovid's Tristia.

Thou, when he saw so power might prevail,
His trusty sword he call'd to his last aid,
Where-with he freely did his foe assail,
And double blows about him stoutly laid,
That glancing fire out of the iron plaid,
As sparkles from the anvil's use to fly,
When heavy hammers on the wedge are swaid.

Spencer's Faerie Queene, book i. c. 12.

—Alligiance

Tempted too far is like the trial of
A good sword on an anvil; as that often
Flies in pieces without service to the owner;
So trust enforced too far proves treachery,
And is too late repented.

Mastinger's Great Duke of Florence, act ii. sc. 3.

ALC. It must be told,
Yet ere you hear it, with all care put on
The sweet armour anvil'd in the shop
Of patient fortitude; the good Cleander,
Your friend is murder'd.

Beau. and Fletcher. Lacer's Progress, act iv.

—Now, Cyclopean chief!
Quick on the anvil lay the burning bar,
And with thy lusty fellows, on its sides
Impress the weighty stroke

Jago's Edge Hill, book iii

The anvil is a smith's utensil, which is used as a place, on which to place the work that is to be hammered or forged. Forged nails are better than those of cast work, and the best have the upper part made of steel. Locksmith's have a smaller kind of anvil, which they call a *stake*.

ANUROGRAMMUM, the capital and royal residence of Taprobane, (Ceylon,) on the north side not far from the western coast, now called Anarodgarro, but in ruins. *Ptol. vii. 2.*

ANUS, in Anatomy, is the termination of the lo-

testinum rectum; in Botany, it denotes the posterior opening of a monopetalous flower; in Conchology, it is a species of *Murex*, which is found in the Mediterranean.

ANWEILER, a small town with 1800 inhabitants, in the Duchy of Deux-Ponts, on the river Queich, six miles from Landau, belonging at present to Bavaria. Anweiler was originally a free city of the empire, but was brought under the dominion of the Counts Palatine in 1330. The inhabitants are partly Catholic and partly of the reformed religion. The Queich serves as a medium of communication between this place and Landau. The only manufacturing establishments here are tanneries. Long. 8° E. Lat. 49° 13' N.

ANWICK, in the Wapentake of Flaxwell, parish of Kesteven, County of Lincoln; a discharged vicarage, (united to the Rectory of Bramwell, in 1718), valued in the King's books at £5. 3s. 11d.; Patrons, Mrs. Gaslinier, and the Earl of Bristol, alternately; Church dedicated to St. Edith. The resident population of this parish is 809. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £111. 15s. 4d.; at 4s. 7d. in the pound. It is five miles E.N.E. from Stamford.

ANXA, the name given by the Romans to Callipolis, the modern Gallipoli, in the kingdom of Naples, a town of Frentani.

ANXIETY, } Immediately from the Latin
ANXIOUS, } anxietas, from *ango*, which Vos-
ANXIOUSLY, } sius derives from the Greek *ἄνγω*,
ANXIOUSNESS } to strangle, to suffocate. The
German has *angst*. Joy several times uses *angst*.

Anxiety, anguish, and anger, appear to have the same ultimate origo. See *ANGUSTIA* and *ANGER*.

Anxiety is always used, where some degree of uncertainty exists; and is applied to the painfulness arising from doubt, uncertainty, perplexity; to an eager desire, or solicitude, where the result is not certain.

And albeit that god commanded y^e we should chiefly seek for heven and promerish that if we do so, all other things that we neede shal be cast vnto vs, and would that we shold in no wise live in *anxiety*, and trouble of minde for any fere of lack.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 197. c. 2.

The life of the desperate equals the anxieties of death; who in uncessant inquietudes but act the life of the damned, and anticipate the denials of hell.

Bruce's Vulgar Errors.

How fully hast thou satisfied me, pure
Intelligence of heaven, angel serene!
And freed from intricacies, taught to live
The easiest way; nor with perplexing thoughts
To interrupt the sweet of life, from which
God hath bid dwell far off all anxious cares,
And not molest us; unless we ourselves
Seek them with wandering thoughts, and notions vain.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book viii.

I know a lady so given up to this sort of devotion, that though she employs six or eight hours of the twenty-four at cards, she never misses one constant hour of prayer, for which time another holds her cards, to which she returns with no little *anxieties* till two or three in the morning.

Spectator, No. 79.

He who seeks wealth, sacrifices his own pleasure; and like him who carries burdens for others, bears the load of *anxiety*!

Sir Wm. Jones's Histrionem.

God hath not thought fit to throw so much light upon it, [the *after state*] as to satisfy the anxious and inquisitive desires the soul hath to know it.

Mason. On Self Knowledge

ANUS.
—ANXI-
ETY.

ANXI-
ETY.
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ANZICO.

We have gone through the whole circle of civil injuries, and the redress which the laws of England have anxiously provided for each.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

ANXUR, a town of the Volsci, called by the Romans Terracina. It is mentioned by Martial, and three miles from it, were a grove and waters consecrated to the goddess Feronia, noticed by Horace, lib. i. sect. 3.

ANY, } Ane, or ooe, generally, unlimited;
ANV'waaas, } edly; who, or what ever it may be.

He heed for to give hym ys dogter in apousage,
Ye noblest dancet hat was in any londe.

R. Gloucester, p. 65.

After mete in ye haule ye kyng (Hardeknoute) mad alle blithe.
In alle his joye making, among þun ilhous.
He felle dede down coble as any stone.

R. Breuer, p. 56.

It was, no seuer shall be founde
Betweene forgetfulness and drede,
That man shoulde any cause speke.

Greene Cos. Am. book iv.

Neither heremeth is such as in Christus stede, to be any-
where nether, then in the temple.

Vall. Marke, c. 11.

LOO. Oh thus Othello, that was once so good,
False in the practice of a cursed slave,
What shall be said to thee.

OTH. Why any thing:

As honourable murder if you will.

Shakespeare's Othello, act v. sc. 2.

He is a path, if any be misled;

He is a rule, if any asked be;

If any chance to hunger he is bread;

If any be a bondman, he is free;

If any be but weak, how strong is he!

To dead men life he is, to sick men health;

To blind men sight, and to the needy wealth;

A pleasure without loss, a treasure without stealth.

G. Fletcher's Christ's Victory.

Neither can a man be a true friend, or a good neighbour, or
anywise a good relative, without industry.

Barron's Sermons.

And taking the whole of the collection together, it is an un-
questionable truth that there is no one book extant, in any lan-
guage, or in any country, which can in any degree be compared
with it for antiquity, for authority, for the importance, the dig-
nity, the variety, and the curiosity of the matter it contains.

Porteus's Lectures.

ANYM, a town of Palestine, supposed by Calmet
to be the same with Aam.

ANZAR, a town in the northern part of China, in
which Tamerlane died.

ANZO, AVERO, or ANTIS, CAPA, a promontory of
Italy, in the Campagna di Roma, on which there is a
strong tower. Pope Benedict XIV. caused a commodi-
ous harbour to be constructed here, an undertaking,
which had been ineffectually attempted by his prede-
cessor, Innocent XII. The ruins of the ancient town
of Antium, from which it takes its name, cover a con-
siderable space in the neighbourhood.

ANZICO, called sometimes Micocco, an extensive
region in the interior of the west coast of Africa, im-
mediately behind Congo. It is very little known,
nor have we any more recent accounts of it than those
given in the 16th century, by the Portuguese travel-
lers, Lopez and Merolla. The people are stated to be
brave, active, and of the most extraordinary agility,
but savage and cruel, in a degree almost unparalleled.
Human flesh is said to be sold in their markets as
beef and mutton in those of Europe; they devour not

only the prisoners taken in war, but their own slaves; ANZICO.
say it is considered as an homage due to their suve- ANZICO.
reign, that his subject should offer themselves to him
to be used as food. To balance these reports, which
they are an industrious people, and manufacture
cloths, both from silk and from the fibre of the palm
tree. They carry on an extensive trade both with
Congo and with the interior of Africa, and seem to
have by much the most active commercial spirit of
any nation in this part of the continent. They have
a language entirely different from that of Congo.
Upon the whole, they seem a people with regard to
whom we would wish to be better informed, and as
they lie directly in the track of expeditions up the
Coango, we may expect, some time, more particular
and authentic intelligence.

ANZIKO, a kingdom in Africa, placed almost under
the equator, 400 or 500 leagues from the coast,
bounded on the east by the river Umbré or Vambre,
which runs into the Zaire, and the kingdom of Wan-
gwa; on the west by the Amboes; on the south by
the provinces of Sonio and Souda. Its northern
boundaries are entirely unknown. The old writers
named it the desert of Nubia merely because they
thought it necessary to mention some country, and
according to their erroneous notions of geography,
Nubia and Abyssinia were carried 30 or 40 degrees too
far to the south, which brought them almost in contact
with Congo and Angola.

The principal article of trade produced in this
country, is sandal wood (*santalum*, Linn.) of which
there are two kinds, the red and the white. There
are also mines of copper in the mountains, and all
the tropical productions might be easily raised. The
currency of the country is a small shell called zimbo,
found in the sea near Loando, in Angola. Anziko is
inhabited by the Monsois or Metiens, and Jagus, (see
Jaga.) They are chiefly wandering tribes remarkable
for their courage and ferocity, and the most deter-
mined cannibals, if the accounts of the old writers are
to be trusted. It is however remarkable, that there
are no traces of these horrible savages in the most
authentic modern accounts of this part of Africa.

They are idolaters and polytheists, as are most of
the African nations, and practise circumcision, though
whether from religious motives is doubtful. In man-
ners and customs they greatly resemble the other
tribes of negroes, but exceed them all in ferocity.
Their dress, weapons, and accoutrements, differ little
from those of their neighbours to the north and south,
and as far as can be collected from the imperfect ac-
counts we have, they rank considerably below many
other African nations in the knowledge of the useful
arts.

The sovereign of Anziko was called Macoco, and
was paramount over a great number of tributary
kings; but we may safely reduce the extent of his
dominions, and numbers of his subjects by comparing
the accounts given by the old navigators, such as
Lopez and Pigafetta with what is now known respect-
ing the negro kingdoms, north and south; and there
can be little doubt that the accounts of the power of the
Macoco were greatly exaggerated. The notion that the
Jagus came originally from Sierra Leone seems wholly
destitute of foundation, though repeated by almost

ANZIKO.

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AOSTA.

every writer on the negro tribes in Africa, and apparently credited by Bruce. Pignatta. Dupper. *Modern Universal History* xiii. 266-8. Moreti.

AON α , or AONIAN, a people of Boeotia, in ancient Geography; the name of Aonia was sometimes given to Boeotia.

AORISTIA, was a term of frequent use in the ancient philosophy, and technically signified that state of mind, in which the mind neither denies nor affirms, but speaks of things as only seeming.

AORIST. (*Ἀορίστος*, undefined.) The name of a tense in Greek grammar; so called, because it denotes that the action, which the verb expresses, is absolutely passed by and done with, without limiting it to a period more or less remote from the present, or denoting its continuance; whereas the imperfect denotes a past action continuing for a certain time, or taking place at a certain time, as *ἔγραυον*, I was beating. The perfect expresses an action completed at the present moment, as *ἔγραυα*, I have beaten. The pluperfect, an action which was complete at a time past, which is referred to; *ἔγραυειν*, I had beaten. But *ἔγραυα*, or *ἔγραυον*, the aorists, simply express an action gone by, I did beat, or, have beaten. This is the general distinction which the grammarians lay down as existing between the past tenses in the Greek language. But the various usages of the aorist, which it is almost impossible to reconcile with this distinction, lead us to conclude, that the peculiar propriety of this tense, in certain propositions, where, as far as our apprehension goes, another preterite, or even a present tense might have been used, was one of those delicate features of language, which are discernible only to those persons who speak it as their vernacular tongue.

The aorist admits in Greek of other moods besides the indicative. The imperative aorist *θίε*, no doubt conveyed to Greek ears, a meaning somewhat different from that of *τίθι*, the imperative of the present; but in English we can only express it by the present. In one or two phrases, perhaps, we use something like an imperative of the perfect, or aorist; as, "have done." So in the optative, we may render *μή γένοιτο*, let it not happen; *μή γένοιτο*, let it not be done. The reader may consult *Matthie's Greek Grammar*, pp. 195, 730, of the English translation; and Hermann's *De Emendanda Ratione Græcæ Grammaticæ*, p. 180.

AORNIUS, or AORNI. See AVANUS.

AONUS, a large town of Bæctria, with a citadel on a rock, which was taken by Alexander. *Arrian. Exp. Alex.* iii. 19.

AORTA, derived from a Greek word (*αορτή*) signifying a bag. It is the great artery which proceeds from the left ventricle of the heart, and from which all the other arteries either mediately or immediately originate.

AOSTA, the name of a duchy in Piedmont, separated by the Alps from Savoy and the Valais, and bounded on the east and south by the Navaresse, and the provinces of Biella and Ivrea. The general aspect of the country is mountainous, but there are several valleys of great extent, particularly that known by the name of the Val d'Aosta. By the industry of the inhabitants these low grounds are rendered abundantly fruitful in wine, oil, and pasture. The mountains yield plenty of iron and copper; hence

forges for these metals are very numerous. Many of the inhabitants are inclined to a wandering life; they amount in all to about 66,000. A prince of the royal family, (frequently the king's brother) takes his title from this duchy.

AOSTA, the chief town of the foregoing duchy, is seated on the river Doria, at the foot of the Alps, where the great commercial roads from Savoy and the Valais to Piedmont, over the Great and Little St. Bernard, meet each other. The bishop here is subordinate to the archbishop of Milan. The town is large, but meanly built and thinly peopled; the only edifice of note is the Episcopal palace. Population 5550. 25 miles N. W. of Ivrea, 150 N. N. W. of Turin.

AOTUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, consisting of one species, a native of New Holland. *Botanical Magazine*, 949.

AOUTA, the name of a tree called the Paper Mulberry Tree, which grows in the islands of the South Sea, and from which the natives manufacture a kind of cloth, which is cool and soft, but as liable to tear as paper. In *Hawkesworth's Voyages*, vol. ii. p. 219, &c. an account is given of the manner in which it is prepared.

APACE. On pace, in speed, in haste; speedily, hastily.

Thou fastest eke by me Pandarus

As he, that when a night is too bright

He cometh to him *apace*, and with right thus

Thinks not on smart, and thou shalt feel some.

Chaucer. Troilus, book iv. fol. 178. c. 4.

To Bialacoll she went *a pace*

And to him shortly in a clause

She said. *Id. Remount of the Roar*, fol. 133. c. 3.

Gallop *a-pace* bright Phœbus through the shy,

And dusky night, in rusty iron car,

Between you both, shorten the time, I pray,

That I may see that most desired day,

When we may meet these traitors in the field.

Marlow's Edward II.

The good or bad repute of men depends in great measure upon mean people, who carry their stories from family to family, and propagate them very fast, like little insects, which lay eggs, and the less the faster.

Wollaston's Religion of Nature.

I feel this beginning of the autumn, which is already very cold: the leaves are withered, fall *apace*, and seem to intimate that I must follow them.

Chesterfield. Letter cccc.

APACHES, a people of North America, in New Mexico, who occupy an extensive country and still preserve their independence, though they continue on terms of friendship and alliance with the Spaniards.

APAFALVA, a large market town of Transylvania, in the county of Dobock.

APAGOGICAL, *Ἀπαγωγικός*, abducto, from *αγω*, and *αγω*, to draw, or lead away.

The application of this word in dialectics may be seen in the citation from Beattie.

If it be not admitted, I demand a reason why any other *apagogical demonstration*, or demonstration *ad absurdum*, should be admitted in geometry rather than this: or that some real difference be assigned between this and others as such.

Berkeley's Works. Analyst.

There are two sorts of mathematical demonstration. The one is called direct, and takes place when a conclusion is inferred from principles which render it necessarily true: and this, though a more perfect or more simple sort of proof, is not more convincing

AOSTA.

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APAGO-

GICAL.

APAGOGICAL. — than the other; which is called indirect, *apagogical*, *reducens ad absurdum*, and which takes place, when by supposing a given proposition false, we are necessarily led into absurdity.

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Beattie's Moral Science, v. ii.

APALACHE BAY, a bay in the Gulf of Mexico. Long. 84° 30' W. lat. 29° 50' N.

APALACHES, or **ST. MARK'S RIVER**, a river of North America, which rises in East Florida, in N. lat. 31° 30' near the north west source of Great Satilla river; and runs south west through the Apalache country, into the Bay of Apalache, in the gulf of Mexico, about 15 miles below St. Mark's. It runs about 135 miles, and falls into the bay near the mouth of Apalachicola river.

APALACHY COUNTRY extends across Flint and Apalache rivers, in East Florida, having the Seminole country on the north east. Apalache or Apalachia is by some writers applied to a town and harbour in Florida, 90 miles east of Pensacola, and the same distance west from Del Spiritu Santo River. The tribes of the Apalachian Indians lie around it.

APALACHIAN MOUNTAINS, commonly called the Allegany Mountains. See **ALLEGANY**.

APALACHICOLA, a river of America, between East and West Florida, which after a course of about 300 miles falls into the Gulf of Mexico at Cape Blaise.

APAMEA, in Syria, the capital of the province called Apamene, one day's journey north of Lariassa, on the Orontes, in a very fertile country; enclosed by the river on one side, and a lake on the other. It was built by Antigonus for the Macedonians from Oella who were in his service; and received its name from the mother or wife of Seleucus Nicator, who enlarged and fortified it. It was at a latter period the capital of the second Syria. Its coin under the Seleucidae bear the dates of their era; those under the Romans of the Actian era. It was ruined by the Saracens, and is now a very insignificant place called Famiyah or Afamiyyah. Strabo xvi. li. 10. Steph. Byz. *Apam*.

APAMEA, in Phrygia, called Cibotus, i. e. the chest, or ark, because enclosed as it were by several streams. It lay on the Meander and Marasyas, and was the second emporium in Asia Minor. It was the scene of the celebrated contest between Olympus and Marasyas. It was first called Celcerne, then Cibotus, and afterwards Apamea from Apama, the mother of Antiochus Soter. (Plin. v. 29. Strabo xii. 576.) It was probably seven miles to the south of the modern town of Afyon k'ara His'ar. Macdonald Kuncir. *Renaud's Retreat of the Tea thousand*, p. 23.

APAMBA, in Bithynia, on the Euxine, Ap. Myrmon, founded by the people of Colophon, and named Myrtes; ruined in the war between Prusias the second king of Bithynia, and Philip the Third of Macedonia, subsequently restored by Prusias, and named Apamea, in honour of his wife. It was afterwards a Roman colony. Its ruins are at a quarter of an hour's distance from the coast, near the modern Mudaniah, the port of Brussa. Strabo xii. 4, 3. Wheeler's *Travels*. Pocock's *Description of the East*, vol. i. bk. ii. c. 25.

APANAGE, or **APENAGE**, in the French law, was the fortune of a king's youngest son. Joach. Meurier has published in one volume folio a collection of writers upon this part of the French law.

APANORMIA, a populous town, harbour, and promontory, on the north west coast of the Turkish island of Santorin, in the mouth of the Archipelago. It is impossible for small vessels to anchor here on account of the extreme depth of the water. Six miles N. N. W. of Scaro. Long. 25° 24' E. lat. 36° 38' N.

APARGIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Syngenesin, order Polygamia Æqualis. Generic character. Receptacle naked, dotted. Pappus plumose, sessile onequal; calyx imbricate, with scales at the base.

A genus allied to Leontodon or Dandelion, containing several British species.

APART, } In part; partly; separated into
APARTMENT. } parts; separately, aside, away, out of the way.

Apartment is applied to any part or portion of a building or swelling, parted or separated into different parts.

For *apart* we knowen, and *apart* we prolecion, but whanne that shal come that is purty, that thing that is of *part* shal be suided.

Wiclif. 1 *Corynth*. c. 13.

Ye han in your bodie divers members, and fewe sundre wittes, curich *aparte* to his owne doing, which thinges as instrumentes ye ven, as your hands *aparte* to handle, fete to goe, tongue to speake, eye to see.

Chaucer. *Treatise of Love*, book iii. fo. 317. c. 4.

I never sawe my lady love *apart*
Her corset blacke, in colde no yet in heste,
Sith fyrst she knew my grief was grown so grente.
Surrey, p. 328.

For servants thinke thee tannings tart;
Admouish grantly me *apart*;
And, when in sport some time I spend,
Do thou not sharply reprehend.

Timothy Arvelin in Ellis, Poets, v. ii. p. 931.

Where is he gone!
QU. To draw *apart* the body he hath killd,
Shakespeare's Hamlet.

These growing thoughts my mother soon perceiving,
By words at times cast forth, inly repel'd,
And said to me *apart*, 'High are thy thoughts,
O son.'

Milton's Par. Reg. book i.

I would in a very particular manner recommend these my apertations to all well-regulated families, that set *apart* an hour in every morning for tea and bread and butter.

Spectator, No. 10.

His ornaments with nicest art display'd,
He seeks th' *apertures* of the royal maid
That, richly mix'd in clouds of tortoise shid'd;
Three rooms contiguous in a range were plac'd;
The midmost by the beauteous Hecate grac'd.

A' Diana's Ovid's Met. book ii.

There is a mathematical whole which is better called integral, when the several parts, which go to make up the whole are really distinct from one another, and each of them may subsist *apart*.

Watts's Logic.

A many porticulis gate leads to the ruins of what was once the habitable part of the castle, in which a large vaulted hall is the most remarkable *apertures*.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

APATHY, } *Apathia*, from *a*, not, without;
APATHETIC, } and *pathos*, feeling, without passion;
APATHETICAL, } sign or feeling; unfeelingness,
dispassion, insensibility.

Of good and evil much they argued then,
Of happiness and fatal misery,
Passion and *apathy*, and glory and shame,
Vain wisdom all, and false philosophy.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

APATHY.

What is called by the *stoa* *apatia*, or *dispassion*; by the sceptics *indifference*; by the *Melissians* *quietism*; by common men *peace of conscience*: seems all to mean but great tranquillity of mind.

A.P.E.

Sir Wm. Temple's Works.

I am not to be *apathetick* like a statue.

Harris on Happiness.

Does he constantly indulge this severe wisdom, which, by pretending to elevate him above human accidents, does in reality harden his heart, and render him careless of the interests of mankind, and of society? No; he knows that in this *stupid apathy* neither true wisdom nor true happiness can be found.

Hume's Essays.

Fontenelle was of a good-humoured and *apathetical* disposition. *Seward's Anecdotes.*

APATITE, in mineralogy. Phospholite of Kirwan. *Calcareous apatites* of Werner. This mineral is usually divided by the German mineralogists into two varieties, the crystallized and earthy. The usual colour of the former is some combination of the colours green, blue, and red; that of the latter is usually a yellowish or greyish white.

More than 90 parts in a hundred of this mineral consists of lime and phosphoric acid. It is found in Saxony, Bohemia, and Spain. Proust's *Letter to Darcet, Journal de Physique* for April, 1788. Wiedemann's *Handbuch der Mineralogie*, p. 528. Emmerling, vol. i. p. 502. Stany *Traité de Mineralogie*, vol. ii. p. 234. Kirwan *Min. vol. i. p. 128.*

APATURIA, a solemn feast celebrated at Athens in honour of Bacchus. Authors disagree as to its origin; it lasted four days. See Potter's *Antiquities*, vol. i. p. 397.

APE

Skioner suspects the name of this animal to be of African or Indian origin. Waechter suggests the Ger. *Affenknecht*. Allen, imitator, to imitate. As in the Latin, simile, from *similis*, like.

So loveth she this hardy Nicholas,
That Absolon may blow the bushes horn:

He so bad for his labour but a scorn.

And thus she maketh Absolon hire ape.

Chaucer. The Miller's Tale.

Sith it is no new thinge, a fonde ape to make mockes and mowes, I wyl as I say leave of this fellows folake *apachness*, and I shall goo to the matter self.

Sir Thos. More's Works, fol. 736. c. i.

If a man aske you, what your marvellous fashioned playing cotzes, and your other popayre *meane*, and what your disguised bowles, and all your apish play mouse, ye know not: and yet are they but algines of thinges which ye have professed.

The whole Works of Tyndall, &c. fol. 341.

But this is a merveil that this good religiouse parishioners at easter time do seke some by chappell, or some mockchristian mōk, whiche may prepare and deflower unto them the apish and coitretist supper.

Coleyne.

FRAB. Stand by there. What are you?

SILVUS. My lady's ape, that imitated all her fashions; in falling as she did, and running the same course of folly.

Nabbes's Microcosmos, act v.

Unperge the basket on the house's top;

Let the birds flye and like the famous ape,

To try conclusions, in the basket creepe

And breake your own necke downe.

Shakespeare's Hamlet, fol. 272.

This apish and remarkably approach,

This harcase'd make, and cravished reell,

This valiant swiftnesse and boyish troups,

The king doth smile at.

Shakespeare's K. John.

Here [in Boëham] he shall see one mopeishly stupid, and so fixed to his posture, as if he were a breathing statue; there, another apishly active and restless.

Sp. Hall's Soliloquies.

Look upon their Chamarins, the sacred actors in their religious scene: what shall you see, but idle apishness in their solemnest work, and either mockery or slumbering.

Sp. Hall's Course of Travel.

All these are ours; and I with pleasure see

Man scuttling on two legs, and aping us.

Dryden's Fables.

The people of England will not ape the fashions they have never tried; nor go back to those which they have found mischievous on trial.

Burke on the French Revolution.

To Zoology, the ape is one of the four sections into which the numerous race comprehended under the genus Simia is divided, including such as are destitute of a tail. See SIMIA.

In Ichthyology, the long tailed shark, is called by this name.

APEEK, a term in oavigation; when the cable is drawn so tight as to bring the vessel immediately over the anchor, it is said to be apeek.

APELTÆ. Those who followed the opinion of Apelles, a Maroonian heretic of the second century, believing that Christ left his body dissolved in air, and so ascended into heaven without it.

APPENNINES, vide APPENNINES.

APENRADE, a town, with a halliwe, in the duchy of Sleswick, situated on an arm of the Baltic. Outside of the town stands the castle of Bruulund. The town is neatly built, and, for a small place, well peopled. They are supported, partly by navigation, partly by a carrying trade, but chiefly by retail traffic. *Loc. 5° 26' E. lat. 55° 3' N.*

APEPSY, in Medicine, denotes crudity, or a want of digestion; the word commonly used is dyspepsy.

APERIENTS, in Medicine, substances which act gently on the bowels.

APERT, } Aperio, apertum; from ad, and }
APERTION, } pario, to bear to; to bring before, or }
APERTLY, } into public view. Brought into pub- }
APERTNESS, } lic view, open, uncovered, undis- }
APERTURE. } guised, unconcealed.

Holi church, quath Pandolf, so ritard is and was,
That he so bad no prelat sette adown, withoute apert trespass.

R. Gloucester, p. 501.

Vor me myjke here by hys dnyx and lode hardlyche
Trenour aboute and oder god owerall apertlyche
In wodes and in ojer stouen, so just non tyme nas
Jut pas bet jousteyned, jut by hys tyme was.

Id. p. 375.

Sijhen be went to Durham, and gaf Sajut Cuthbert
Landes and llyves, with chartir aperte.

R. Browne, p. 29.

Whiche asketh not to be apert,
But in silence, and in covert
Despyeth for to be behould.

Gower. Conf. A. book iv. p. 119.

Thus seest thou apertly thy sorrowe into wele mote be changed,
wherefore in such case to better side where more endles thou shouldst.

Chaucer. Test. of Love, book ii. fol. 304. c. i.

And I said, Syr, I preached never thou, nor throw God's grace I will not any tyme consent to thinke nor to say thus nother puryly nor apertly.

Howell. State Trials, v. l. p. 195. *Trial of William Thorne.*

APERT. The next now in order are the *apertians*; under which term I do comprehend doors, windows, stair-cases, chymnies, or other *sirdicks*: in short, all in-lets, or out-lets.

**APH-
LANDRA.**

It is clear, that S. Hierome does not mean it in respect of order, as if a bishop and a presbyter had both one office per omnia, one power; for else he contradicted himself most *apertly*.

Taylor's Apocryphy asserted.

A person that is short-sighted, in looking at distant objects, gets the habit of contracting the *aperture* of his eye, by almost closing his eye-lids.

Reid's Inquiry.

Fancy, like a fountain, plays highest by diminishing the *aperture*.
Goldsmith, on Poetic Learning.

An *aperture* between the mountains brought us into another wild recess.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

In Optics, *aperture* is the hole next the object glass of a telescope, or microscope, through which the image of the object comes into the tube and is there carried to the eye. Much of the perfection of the instrument depends upon the *aperture*.

Huygens tells us, that he found by experiment, that the square root of the distance of the focus of any glass multiplied by 30, should be to its *aperture* as 10 to 1. See TELESCOPE.

APETALOUS, in Botany, are plants that are without, or have an imperfect or staminate flower.

APETHORPE, is the hundred of Wileybrook, county of Northampton; a chapel to the vicarage of Masington, dedicated to St. Leonard. The resident population of this parish is 231; the money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £145. 13s. 6d. at 3s. in the pound. It is 4½ miles S. W. by W. from Wandsford.

APEX, signifies the vertex, or summit of any thing, and is used to denote specifically a variety of objects, but always in this sense. The conical cap, worn by the flames or priests of Jupiter, was called *apex*. The crest of a helmet, the point or termination of a leaf, in botany, are also so called.

APHACA, a town of Cœlosyria, in the mountains, halfway between Heliopolis and Byblus, celebrated for a temple of Venus and a miraculous lake. The ruins of Fakiyah are probably on its site. Ensebini iii. 55. Niebuhr's *Travels*, ii. 269.

APHIANES, in Botany, parsley-piert, Linn. Gen. 166. Schul. 923. Juss. 337. Class Tetrandria Digynia, or Monandria Monogynia; natural order Senticosæ. It is a common British plant, growing in fallow fields, and in the old Herbs is called parsley break-stone.

APHAR, in Arabic Geography, the capital of Arabia Felix. This place is now known by the name Al Farar, and is situated on a river between Mecca and Medina.

APHARA, or **APHERA**, a town of Palestine, in the tribe of Benjamin.

APHËK, a name given in Scripture to several cities of Palestine. See 1 Sam. xxix. v. 1. 1 Sam. iv. 1, 2, 3. Josh. xix. 30. xlii. 4. It was also a city of Syria, in the Benhadad a kingdom, near which the battle was fought in which Ahab defeated Benhadad; 1 King xx. 26. In this last city the famous temple of Venus the Aphacite, was placed. It was probably situated between Heliopolis and Byblus.

APHELANDRA, in Botany, a genus of plants, containing only one species, a native of the West Indies.

APHËLION, from *apo* and *hēlios*, the sun; in Astronomy, is that point of the earth's, or any other planet's orbit, in which it is at the greatest distance from the sun.

**APHË-
LION.**
APHIS.

APHËRNOUSLI, a species of pine tree, growing wild on the Alps. The timber is large and fine, and resembles what in England is called the Weymouth Pine.

APHËTERIA, an ancient military art, was an engine used in the besieging of towns; probably of the projectile kind, though Suidas does not mention its construction.

APHËOCEN, a composition made principally of the buds of hemp, before it flowers, and which is used by the Arabs as a substitute for opium.

APHËOM, or **APHËUM-KARA-HISSAR**, the Black City of Opium, is the principal town of a district of Natolia, a large and populous place, situated on the river Marsyas, or Mindra. This town is about three miles in circuit, surrounded by walls, and defended by a castle surmounting an isolated rock of prodigious height. The houses are all built of different materials, such as mud, wood, and stone; and the rivulets which descend from the mountains on the south side, flow through the streets. Aphion-Kara-hissar contains several mosques, one of which is magnificent; it has also several baths and a custom-house. Many manufactures are carried on here in woollen stuffs, particularly carpets; also in chintzes, fire-arms, and yatagans, a kind of short sabre. But the staple commodity is opium, which is obtained from incisions of the head of the white or somniferous poppy. This plant is raised from the seed sown in gardens round the town, and then transferred to more extensive fields. Small transverse sections are made in July, and continued to the end of summer, which occasion the exudation of a milky juice, soon growing brown and acquiring more consistence. A coarser kind of opium is obtained from subsequent incisions, and formed into small cakes for export. A pacha of two tails resides here, and the town is the ordinary resort of the caravans from Constantinople and Smyrna to the interior of Asia. M. Olivier calculates the houses at 10,000, and the inhabitants at 60,000. Aphion-Kara-hissar is the ancient Apamea, so named by Antiochus-Soter; and after falling into the hands of the Turks, it was the capital of their empire. Distant 56 miles S. of Kutayah, 162 E. of Smyrna. Long. 26° E. Lat. 38°, 46' N.

APHËUS, in Zoology, a genus of Insects of the order Hemiptera.

Generic character. Antennæ setaceous, longer than the thorax, seven jointed,—wings four, pellucid, longer than the body, the upper ones the largest,—both males and females occasionally without wings, particularly the latter.—Abdomen furnished near the base with two horns or tubercles.

The insects constituting this remarkable genus, are well known under the name of Plant-lice. They infest almost every species of vegetable in innumerable quantities, occasioning the leaves to curl up, and often preventing the growth of the young shoots, by the punctures they make for the purpose of procuring the juices of the plant, on which they live. The injuries which these little insignificant animals sometimes occasion, are much more considerable than

APHIS. would at first be imagined, from their extreme tenuity, weakness, and inactivity; but their increase is so rapid and extensive, as to render them formidable enemies. The finest of our fruits are thus often nipped in the bud, or arrested in a subsequent period of their growth; and indeed scarcely any of our esculent vegetables are free from their attacks. The hop grounds in Kent would, in some seasons, be rendered almost barren by their swarms, had not nature provided an efficient preventive. This consists in the circumstance of their forming the favourite food of the larva of the lady bird, (*Coccinella*), and of several species of aphidivorous flies, particularly of the genus *Syrphus* of Fabricius. These larvæ fix themselves by the tail, in the midst of a host of aphides, and extend or contract themselves so as to reach their prey; and on seizing one, it is held up in the air, whilst all the juices of the body are sucked out, after which the skin is dropt.

There are two little tubes at the upper part of the abdomen, near the base, which secretes a sweet fluid, of which the ant is excessively fond; and it is a most amusing spectacle, to observe the cure which these interesting little insects take of their herds of aphides, and the manner in which they excite them to deposit the fluid. This is done by humming, as it were, with the antennæ upon the abdomen of the aphid, which, after a few seconds, expels the fluid from the tubes, and the ant immediately sucking it up, runs to another, and another, repeating the same operation until it is satisfied. Under the article *Formica*, will be found an account of the manner in which the ants preserve these herds of their milk-kine, as they have been wittily denominated.

It is a most extraordinary fact, that in the insects of this genus, impregnation of several generations, is effected by a single intercourse with the male. This takes place in the autumn, and the females soon afterwards deposit their eggs, or more properly little capsules, in which the young aphides are concealed, already fully formed, and in which they remain until the warmth of spring excites them to activity. They then burst their enclosure, and are found to consist entirely of females, which soon after reproduce a number of the same sex, without a single male. If then an individual be kept carefully separate, from the moment of its exclusion from the parent, in about three weeks, it will produce young; which, if kept apart will in their turn increase, and so on to eight or ten generations, without the presence, nay, without the production of a single male. In the autumn, however, males, as well as females, are brought forth, and fecundation takes place to provide for the successive generations of the next summer. These facts,—for however marvellous they may appear, they are facts;—were first ascertained by that ingenious and indefatigable observer, Bonnet, a full account of whose experiments is to be found in the first volume of his works, Neuchâtel, 4to., 1779.

The species are very numerous, and but imperfectly understood, but there is reason to believe, that very many plants nourish their own peculiar aphides; and it has been usual to name the species after the plants which they principally inhabit, as *Aphis Rosæ*, A. Sambuci, A. Ulmi, &c.

Vide—*Œuvres de Bonnet*, vol. i. *Lamarck An. sans*

seri: vol. iii. p. 457. Cuvier, *Règne Animal*, vol. iii. p. 411. Latreille, *Hist. Nat. des Ins.* &c.

APHILASTUM, from *a*, privative, and *φλαστόν*, fragibile. It was a wooden instrument shaped like a plume of feathers, and formed the ornament of the prow on the vessels of the ancients, as the acrostolium did that of the stern. And to it was often attached a sort of pennant, in order to indicate the direction of the wind.

APHODIUS, in Zoology, a genus of Insects of the order, Coleoptera, family Coryphæi. The species, which are numerous, are divided into sections from the characters of the Clypeus.

1. Clypeus smooth.
2. Clypeus smooth entire.
3. Clypeus tuberculated.

There are nearly thirty British species, all of which inhabit dung, in which situation they are found in the month of April and May.

APHONIA (from *a* privative, and *φωνή*, the voice), a loss of the voice. A genus of diseases in the class Locales, and order Dyscinesie of Cullen.

APHORISM, } *Ἀφορισμός*, from *ἀπο*, and *ῥιζήν*, bound to bound, to define, from *ῥιζήν*, bound to bound, or limit.

That which bounds, defines, determines. And so applied to sentences, which limit and distinguish clearly and concisely. A sententious saying; a sagacious maxim.

Thaddeus Haggensis, in his *Metoposcopy*, hath certain *aphorisms* derived from Saturn's lines in the forehead, by which he collects a melancholy disposition.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Certainly of no less a mind, nor of less excellence in another way, were they who by writing laid the solid and true foundations of this science; which being of greatest importance to the life of man, yet there is so art that hath bin more cunick'd in their principles, more soil'd and slubber'd with *aphorismal* pedantry, than the art of policy.

Milton's Ref. of England.

Seeing that it hath bin inevitably prov'd that the natural and fundamental causes of political happiness in all Governments are the same, and this church-discipline is taught in the word of God; and, as we see, agrees according to wish with all such states as have received it: we may infallibly assure ourselves that it will as well agree with monarchy, though all the tribe of *Aphorismers* and politicians would persuade us there be secret and mysterious reasons against it.

Milton's Ref. of England.

Our appetites do prompt to industry, as inclining to things not attainable without it; according to that *aphorism* of the wise.—The desire of the stedfast killeth him, for his hands refuse to labour.

Burrow's Sermons.

The word parable is sometimes used in Scripture in a large and general sense, and applied to short sententious sayings, maxims, or *aphorisms*, expressed in a figurative, proverbial, or even poetical manner.

Porteus's Lectures.

The term aphorism is chiefly used in law and medicine. It is common to say, the aphorisms of Sanctorius, of Boerhave, of Hippocrates. In ecclesiastical writers, it signifies a milder kind of excommunication, which excluded from the sacrament and from the benefit of the prayers of the church.

APHIRITIS, in Zoology, a genus of Insects, of the order Diptera, family Syrphæi. Generic character. Antennæ much longer than the head; the third articulation conical, elongated, bearing a seta at the base.

Mulio apiformis of Fabricius is the type of this genus.

APHRO-
DISIAE.

APIARY.

APHRODISIAE, were festivals in honour of Venus, which were observed in several parts of Greece; the most remarkable was that at Cyprus. At this solemnity several mysterious rites were practised; all that were initiated, offered a piece of money to Venus, and received as a token of the goddess's favour a measure of silt, and a *φάλαξ*; the former because silt comes from the sea, from whence the goddess herself sprang, and the second as symbolical of her character. See Strabo, lib. xiv. Athenæus, lib. xiii. Arrianus, lib. 5.

APHRODISIA, a town of Thrace, in Ancient Geography, between Candia and Heraclea, to the north of the Chersonesus; a promontory of Caria near Cnidus was also called by the same name. The Aphroditæ, who were the name of an island in the Arabian Gulf, whose modern name, which signifies the Sponge of the Sea, bears an evident allusion to its ancient appellation. By the name of Aphrodisia, were also known several towns in Ancient Geography, which were not of importance, and are therefore not noticed by D'Anville.

APHRODITE, in Mythology, a name of Venus; in Entomology, a species of *Papilio*; in Natural History, a species of *Amethyst*.

APHTHA (from *αφθω*, to inflame), in Medicine, a disease ranked by Cullen in the class Pyrexia, order Exanthemata. The following is the character given of it by that author in his Nosology. Mixed fever, the tongue rather swollen, its colour and that of the fauces inclining to purple; small specks at first appearing on the fauces, and edge of the tongue, and afterwards covering the whole internal surface of the mouth, of a white colour, sometimes distinct, often running into one, when cleared off, quickly renewed; duration uncertain. This disease is generally symptomatic; the only species known to be idiopathic is the *A. Infantum* or Child's Thrush. The treatment of Aphtha will require considerable variation, according to the circumstances under which it appears, and the symptoms which accompany it.

APHYLLANTHES, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Hexandria, order Monogynia. Generic character. Corolla of six petals; filaments inserted into the fauces of the corolla; capsule superior; calyxine glume, single valved, imbricated. The only species of this genus, is the *A. Monspeliensis*, or Rush-like Lily-pink, a native of the south of France. *Botanical Magazine*, 1132.

APHYTEIA, a plant discovered by Thunberg, at the Cape of Good Hope, having neither root, stem, nor leaves. The fruit is eaten by the Hottentots. Thunb. *Act. Holm.* 1775, 69.

APHYTEIA, or *Aenytia*, a town of Thrace, in the Pallena, which was besieged by Alexander, and the siege raised, according to Plutarch, in consequence of the interposition of Jupiter Ammon.

APIARY, a garden, or place where bees are kept. Mr. Bonner observes, that bee hives should be placed in an easterly situation; but most writers seem to prefer northern aspects, which should be sheltered from the winds, and with abundance of flowers in the immediate vicinity. Mr. Keys also observes, that the hives should not be exposed to the drippings of trees, to the neighbourhood of a dunghill, or to the annoyance of long grass and weeds, which breed

insects, and retard the preparation of honey. See **APIARY**.

APIASTER, in Ornithology, a species of *Merops*, foetid in Europe and Asia. It is commonly known by the name of the Bee-eater. Its length is about 10 inches, of which nearly two are formed by the bill.

APICES, summits, in Botany, the same with *Antheæ*.

APIECES, } In pieces; in separate parts or por-
APIECES } tions. On piece; in a separate part, or share.

Port. And't please your honour
We are but men; and whilst so many may do
Not being to use a piece, we have done.

Shak. *Henry VIII.* act v. sc. 3.

Austin confessed—that he was torn a-piece with his manifold desires.

Barton's *Antony of Melancholy*.

The people of Ægina, and the Athenians had but small ones, and the most of them consisted but of fifty oar apiece.

Hobbes's *Thyrusides*.

They [Sir John Elliot, Hollis, and Valentine] were condemned to be imprisoned during the king's pleasure, to find surerries for their good behaviour, and to be fined, the two former a thousand pounds a-piece, the latter five hundred.

Hume's *History of England*.

APIS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order hymenoptera, family Apiarie.

Generic character. Hindler tibia without spurs or hecis. Hindler tarsi with the first joint long. Upper wings with three submarginal cells complete, the last oblique and linear.

This genus, which is now so restricted, comprised in the Linnean system several very distinct, and even dissimilar genera. Of the present, the *apis mellifica*, common hive bee, is the type. The fables of older naturalists, and the facts discovered by the moderns, the creations of poetry, and the theories of the philosopher, have alike concurred to celebrate the economy of this most interesting insect. Without, however, attending to the fables of those who have laboured to excite that interest by false representations, which a statement of facts is more than sufficient to produce, it may be truly said that in the whole range of natural science, there cannot be found a more striking exemplification of wisdom and design, or of a perfect adaptation of means to an adequate end, than in the operations of these little animals. To Swammerdam, Reaumur, Huber, and Wildman, we are indebted for much of the knowledge which is possessed respecting them; nor are we less obliged to Messrs. Kirby and Spence, who in their valuable introduction to Entomology, have selected and arranged all the most interesting facts, and clothed them, as they always do, in the most agreeable language.

As it is extremely seldom that a society of bees is found in a truly wild state, and as it requires a peculiar arrangement and construction of their habitations to observe their habits, and follow them into the more minute points of their history; it will be necessary to draw largely upon the observations which have been made by naturalists, who have kept them for this purpose in a domestic state.

The society of a hive of bees, besides the young brood, consists of one female or queen, several hundreds of males or drones, and many thousand workers. Two sorts of females have indeed been observed; the

APIS.

smaller ones differing only in size from the larger, but have never been seen to lay eggs. The body of the queen bee is considerably larger than that of either the drone or worker. The prevailing colour is all is much the same, black-brown, or else nearly black. The head of the female is not larger than that of the workers, the tongue is shorter, and the maxilla not so large. The wings reach only to the tip of the third segment of the abdomen. The abdomen is longer than the head and tunnel together, somewhat conical, and rather sharp at the extremity. The sheath of the sting is curved, whilst in the workers it is straight. The male, or drone on the contrary is thick, short, and clumsy; the wings longer than the body; the abdomen cordate, and very short. There are some males not larger than the workers, but generally they are twice as large.

It appears that the working bees, which have been generally believed to be true neuters, are in fact sterile females. The following discovery of Schirach, a Lusatian apiarist, is one of the most curious facts which the indefatigable attention of modern naturalists has brought to light. From the statements of this writer, which have been most amply confirmed by the accurate Huber, it is proved that if the queen of a hive be lost, and the brood, or larvae, consist of workers only, one or more are selected to be educated as queens, and by the following method; those larvae which without this treatment would have come into the perfect state as workers, are on the contrary found to be reared perfect queens. Having chosen a grub, the workers upon whom this charge devolves, remove from around its cell, two of the cells which are in contact with it, with the larvae inhabiting them, in order to enlarge the habitation of their future queen; and around the selected grub form a tubular cell, which like those which belong to the originally royal brood, is vertical. But the principal means of effecting this wonderful transformation yet remains to be stated. It consists in administering to this grub, a food totally unlike that prepared for the larvae of the workers, of a more pungent taste, and of a different consistence. That circumstances, so trifling in themselves, as the change from a horizontal to a vertical position of the cell, a greater degree of heat, and a different kind of food, should produce a total change in the habits, uses, labours, and dispositions of the perfect insect, produced from the grub which is the subject of them, is a fact so extraordinary that nothing short of repeated experiment, and the most irrefragable testimony would be sufficient to establish it.

The future queen here remains in the egg three days; after leaving it she feeds in the larvæ state for five more; she is then covered in by the workers, spins her cocoon, which occupies another day; after this she remains in a state of rest for two days, and sixteen hours, when having assumed the pupa in four days and eight hours afterwards, making altogether sixteen days, she becomes a perfect insect. The workers remain in these preparatory states twenty days, and the males twenty-four. When the queen is ready to emerge from her confinement, she cuts her way through the covering in which the workers had imprisoned her.

The government of bees is not only a true gynecocracy, but is also a strict and exclusive monarchy; for

APIS.

the queen will suffer no rival. Soon after she has left her cell and has assumed the perfect state, she visits all the royal cells that contain the embryos of other queens; she furiously gnaws a hole in the covering, inserts the end of the abdomen, and gives the enclosed larva, or pupa, a mortal wound. Should two or more queens perfect their metamorphosis at the same time, the most violent combats take place between them, until one alone remains the undisputed possessor of the royal dignity. This was equally the case where to a fertile mother-queen, a second was purposely introduced by Huber, and the workers were observed to use the most anxious efforts to promote the duel which was to decide the right of empire. Should the reigning queen die or be lost, the community will not receive a stranger queen until twenty-four hours have elapsed, after which they pay her the accustomed homage and attention.

This destruction of the queens by each other would, but for a wonderful provision, prevent the existence of other queens to lead the swarms; but previous to swarming, the mother queen, after laying the requisite number of male eggs in May, lays eggs in the royal cells at distinct intervals, so as to afford time enough between each for the formation of a new swarm. The first swarm is therefore always led by the old queen. But should bad weather ensue to prevent their emigration at the proper period, all the young queens are destroyed by the mother, and no swarm takes place.

When a queen is once acknowledged as the governor of a hive, or the leader of a colony, she immediately becomes the object of the incessant solicitude and attention of her subjects. They are constantly offering her honey, licking her with their proboscis, and paying every possible mark of respect and affection. This is, however, restricted to the fertile queens; previous to impregnation no notice whatever is taken of her, but the instant she returns to the hive with the marks of impregnation the homage commences, and never ceases during her life.

It is a fact that if impregnation be delayed beyond the twenty-eighth day of the queen's existence, she lays none but male eggs, and in this state she loses all that animosity to other females which distinguishes a truly fertile queen.

Huber has ascertained that impregnation always takes place high in the air, and the queen, after it has been effected, returns to the hive with indubitable marks of the event. Schirach asserts that a queen will lay from 70,000 to 100,000 eggs in one season. The laying of eggs, which are to produce workers, takes place in January or February, and that of males in the spring; and during oviposition she is constantly attended by a circle of bees, who pay her the fondest, and apparently most affectionate attentions.

The best season for swarming is said to be in May and June. The first colony is always led by the reigning queen, when she is sufficiently reduced in size by having laid her eggs, to be able to fly readily. The signs of an approaching swarm are, according to Reesumur, the following: first, if in favourable weather the bees leave the hive only in very small numbers, and little pollen is collected. Another sign is a general hum in the hive in an evening, which is often continued during the night. On examining the interior of

hives, admirably constructed for that purpose, Huber found that the greatest agitation and even irregularity prevailed, which increased the temperature of the hive to a degree which the bees could not bear, and perhaps this circumstance may be one inducement to them to leave the hive simultaneously. Sometimes, though rarely, a swarm conducted by the old queen increases so rapidly as to send forth a new colony in the space of three weeks.

The drones or male bees are only interesting from their being essential, by the impregnation of the queen, to the perpetuation of the species. In the hive they do nothing but eat the food provided by the industrious labourers; they are short lived, the eggs that produce them being laid in April and May, and their destruction taking place by the murderous weapons of the workers in July and August.

There are four different substances elaborated by the working bees; honey and wax from the nectar of flowers; bee-bread, the food of the larvæ as well as of the perfect insect, made from the pollen or farina of the anthers; and a resinous substance for finishing the combs, and in various ways giving security to their habitations.

In their excursions they fly in a direct line; and from the assurances of Butler and of Mr. Dobbs, it would appear that the observation of Aristotle is correct, that in each journey an individual confines his labours to one species of flower.

The honey, which is collected by the tubular tongue, is laid up in the first stomach, or honey bag. How wax is secreted is at present merely conjectural. It is however known to be formed from the honey, and to be taken, when required for use, from what are called wax pockets, on the four intermediate segments of the abdomen. The bee-bread is elaborated from the pollen, which is laid up in little pellets, in a sort of baskets formed by the hairs on the hind legs. When a bee returns laden to the hive, the honey is disgorged into the cells, one of which will contain the loading of several individuals. Of these some are employed for present use, others are sealed up for the supply of future want.

The bee-bread is used as circumstances require, and what remains from the immediate wants of the community is stored up in vacant cells.

The rapidity with which the combs are built in a new hive is astonishing. In twenty-four hours, according to Reaumur, a comb twenty inches long by seven or eight wide, will sometimes be constructed.

The ventilation of the hive is another most important and curious function which these little creatures most assiduously perform by means of their wings; and this is found to be as much used in winter as in summer.

Amongst the many enemies to which bees are exposed, one of the most singular is the sphinx atropos, which has been repeatedly observed to attack hives in the evening, and in consequence of whose depredations considerable injury has sometimes been produced. It is wonderful to observe the means of defence to which these little industrious companions have recourse, against the attacks of so large an insect. Without any foreign aid, says Huber, they barricaded themselves by a thick wall of propolis and wax rising behind the entrance of the hive, and pe-

netrated only by passages large enough for the workers. In some the more complicated works of human fortifications were equalled both in design, execution, and effect.

The comb is composed of a number of cells, most of them exactly hexagonal constructed with geometrical accuracy, and arranged in two layers placed end to end, the openings of the different layers being in opposite directions. The comb is placed vertically, the cells therefore are horizontal. The distance of the different cakes of comb from each other is sufficient for two bees to pass readily between them, and they are here and there pierced with passages affording a communication between all parts of the hive. The construction of the cells is such as to afford the greatest possible number in a given space, with the least expenditure of the material. The base of each cell is composed of three rhomboidal pieces placed so as to form a pyramidal concavity. Thus the base of a cell on one side of the comb, is composed of part of the bases of three on the other. The angles of the base are found by the most accurate geometrical calculations to be those by which the least possible expense of wax would be employed, consistently with a given quantum of space and strength.

The cells built for the larvæ of the drones are larger than those of the workers, and those for the reception of the royal larvæ are still more different. They are much larger than any of the others, of a pyramiform shape, and placed in a vertical position, with the mouth downwards. The material of which they are composed is coarser than common wax, and one hundred times more of it is required to form one of them, than enters into the composition of a common cell. The cells for the reception of honey and pollen, and those which form the habitations of common larvæ, do not essentially differ.

The old opinion that wax is formed from the pollen of flowers was first doubted by Reaumur, though he appears not to have gone farther than to argue from the dissimilarity of the two substances. But the exact truth appears to have been ascertained by Huber Schirach, and John Hunter, about the same period. By following up the detail of Huber's experiments it appears that the workers, and they only, have the property of producing wax from their food, as the nectar of flowers, sugar, honey, &c. so that in fact it is a secretion, not a mere modification of any substance. This secretion takes place under the scales of the abdomen, but the organs by which this is effected are not known.

The process of building the combs is a subject to which Huber has devoted a considerable portion of his attention; and the following abstract of his observations is principally extracted from the work already so often referred to, of Kirby and Spence.

There are two kinds of workers, which have different offices assigned to them in this process: the wax makers having taken a due proportion of honey or sugar, suspend themselves to each other; the claws of the fore legs of the lower being attached to the hind ones of the uppermost, and form themselves into a cluster consisting of a number of festoons crossing each other in various directions. They remain immovable for twenty-four hours, during which time the secretion of wax is undoubtedly going on in a hidden

APIS.

manner, and a thin lamina may now be found under the abdomens. One of the bees then detaches itself, makes its way to the top of the hive, turning itself round till it has cleared a void space of about an inch in diameter. It then seizes a layer of wax with its hinder leg, draws it from the scale under the abdomen, and carries it by one of the anterior feet to the mouth. It is here exposed to the action of the mandibles, gnawed in pieces, and carried into one side of the mouth, from which it issues in the form of a ribband. The tongue next impregnates it with a frothy liquid. This organ then returns it to the mandibles, where it is worked up anew. The bee then applies these prepared portions of wax to the surface on which the comb is to be commenced, and this manœuvre is continued till the whole of the laminae are thus prepared and fixed; she then leaves her work. The others succeed in the same manner, and the result is the formation of a little uneven mass of wax, five or six lines long, two lines high, and half a line thick, descending perpendicularly into the hive. The remainder of the work is performed by the nurse bees. One of them places itself horizontally on the vault of the hive, its head placed on the centre of the little mass of wax, and with its mandibles, rapidly moving its head, it moulds in that side of the wall of wax a cavity which is to form the base of one of the cells. After a few minutes labour it departs and is succeeded by another. The cavity is gradually deepened, the sides raised, and an upright form given to it. When arrived at a certain point, others begin the same work on the other side of the mass, and whilst they are yet engaged in this labour, the wax makers return and add to the mass. After the bottoms of the cells of the first row are finished, others begin the outline of a second. The parietes of the cells are next formed by adding to the sides of the cavities which have been hollowed out of the mass. The first row of cells is pentagonal, the side next the hive being broader than the others, and thus affording a firmer attachment for the mass of comb.

They never begin two rows of comb at the same time, but as soon as some rows of cells are constructed in the first, two others, one on each side, parallel to it and equidistant from it, are commenced, and soon after two more exterior to these.

The male cells are generally in the middle of the combs or at their sides, never in the upper part. They are never insulated, but form a corresponding group on both sides of the comb. Their diameter is $\frac{3}{4}$ lines, those of the workers only $\frac{2}{3}$.

It appears that the particular species of cells that are to be constructed is determined by the laying of the queen. The bees never build those of males so long as she produces the eggs of workers. But as soon as she is ready to deposit the eggs of males, they are seen forming the cells irregularly, gradually giving them a greater diameter, and finally preparing those for the reception of the male race. The size of the cells is also increased where an unusually favourable opportunity occurs for the collection of honey.

For information on some other points of their history which belong rather to the general study of entomology, the reader is referred to the treatise on that subject.

APIS.

This article cannot be better concluded than in the words of Kirby and Spence. "After all," say these excellent writers, "there are mysteries as to the *primum mobile*, amongst these social tribes, that with all our boasted reason we cannot fathom; nor develop satisfactorily the motives that urge them to fulfill it so remarkable, though diversified a way their different destinies. One thing is clear to demonstration, that by these creatures and their instincts, the power, wisdom, and goodness, of the GREAT FATHER of the universe are loudly proclaimed. The atheist and infidel confuted; the believer confirmed in his faith and trust in Providence, which he thus beholds watching, with incessant care, over the welfare of the meanest of his creatures; and from which he may conclude that He, the prince of the creation, will never be overlooked or forsaken; and from them what lessons may be learned of patriotism and self-devotion to the public good; of loyalty, of prudence, temperance, diligence, and self-denial."

APIS, or MESA, a southern constellation, containing four stars.

APIS, a deity of the Egyptians, worshipped at Memphis, under the symbolical form of an ox, which the soul of Osiris was supposed to inhabit. The marks by which the sacred hull was distinguished, were his black colour, a square white mark upon his forehead, the figure of an eagle on his back, a lump under his tongue resembling a beetle, and a white spot, in the form of a crescent, on his right side. These marks no doubt were produced by the contrivance of those who were interested in the imposture. The vulgar, of course, were not allowed to suppose that the animal was produced by natural generation. At the end of 25 years he was drowned in the Nile, afterwards embalmed, and privately deposited in a subterranean cavern destined to that purpose; and which, from recent discoveries, there is every reason to believe, was in one of the pyramids; for which purpose, it has been supposed, that they were originally built. In *Ælian* (*de anim. lib. xi.*) there is a full account of the circumstances attending the birth and education of the supposed god. As soon as a calf was produced with the appropriate marks, a temple was erected for its accommodation; and during four months it was fed only upon milk. At the end of this period, and at the time of the new moon, the priests repaired to his habitation, and saluted him with the sacred name of Apis. He was then placed in a vessel richly decorated, and conducted to Heliopolis, a city of the Nile, with hymns and processions, and perfumes. Here he was kept 40 days, and suffered to be seen only by women. After his inauguration, he was conveyed with similar pomp to Memphis, and was afterwards regarded with divine honours. His lodging was superb; and the edifice appropriated to him is described by Strabo, (*lib. xvii.*) as being so constructed, as to have allowed of his being seen through a window. He was supposed to predict events, and to deliver oracles by certain signs and motions. He had two "beds," we are told by Pliny (*lib. viii.*); and, according as he went into the one or the other of them, the omen was supposed to be favourable or unfavourable. He also gave answers by eating food out of the hand: in this manner, if we may believe Ammianus, he foretold the death of Germanicus, by refusing the

APIS.
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APLANA-
TIC.

food which that pence offered to him. In every part of Egypt *fenata* were instituted in honour of his birth, called Theophania, which lasted for seven days; and ancient writers have left a lively account of the rejoicings which took place at that anniversary. At his death, the expression of the public grief was no less remarkable. "When Apis dies," says Lucian, "is there any one so enamoured of his long hair as not immediately to cut it off, or to display on his bald head the symptoms of his sorrow."

Jablonski, in his *Pantheon Egyptiorum*, fixes the first consecration of Apis at the year 1171 before Christ; and, according to the same writer, his worship ceased at Memphis, in the reign of Theodosius, about the year 390. It is commonly supposed that it was symbolical of the Nile; and Plutarch, in his treatise *de Iside*, affirms as much; but modern writers, as Jablonski and Huët, conceive that the worship of Apis was instituted to commemorate the patriarch Joseph; while Bryant supposes that it referred to Noah.

APITPAT, from pit, to sink; and pat, to strike. Applied to express the action of the heart in a moment of anxiety.

Sus J. Wirt. O here a' comes. Ay, my Hector of Troy, welcome, my bully, my backe; and my heart has gone apit-pat for thee.

Congress. Old Bachelor.

APIUM, in Botany, a genus of umbelliferous plants, class Pentandria, order Dignia. Generic character. Fruit ovate, striated; involucre of one leaf, petals equal.

The species of this genus are the following.

1. A. PTEROSILINUM (common parley), leaflets of the stem, linear, partial, involucre minute.

This well known plant so extensively used for culinary purposes is a native of Sardinia. There are three varieties cultivated, viz. the common parley, the curled parley, and the large-rooted or Hamburgish broad-leaved parley.

2. A. GRAVEOLENS (sunhage or celery), stem leaves cuneiform. This plant is a native of Britain, being not unfrequently met with in salt marshes, and in ditches near the sea. The sweet celery, *Aplum dulce*, or *Celeri Italorum*, is a variety produced by cultivation. The plant when wild is very strong and rank-scented, but by covering up the stalks, so as to prevent the access of light, it is at the same time deprived of colour, and, in a great degree, of its naturally unpleasant taste.

APIVORUS, in Ornithology, a species of the Falcon, known as the honey buzzard, but seldom met with in England. Donov. *Brit. Birds*, t. 30.

APLACE. In place.

For there is but o' god of all,
Which is the lord of heav'n and hell:
But if it like you to tell,
Howe verie guides come aplace,
Ye might mouchell thanke purchase.

Green. *Con. A.* book v.

APLANATIC, a term which was invented by Dr. Blair, of Edinburgh, to denote a particular kind of refraction discovered by himself, which entirely corrects the aberration of the rays of light, and the colour depending upon it; in contradistinction to the word *achromatic*, which has been applied to that refraction in which there is only a partial correction of

colour. The word *aplanatic* is derived from *a*, *privative*, *APLANA-*
TIC.

APLEDORE, partly within the liberty of Romney Marsh, and partly in the hundred of Blackbourn, Lathe of Scray, county of Kent; a vicarage, with the chapel of Ebony; valued in the King's books at £31; patron, the Archbishop of Canterbury; church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. The resident population of this parish in 1801 was 334. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803 was £335. 15s. 7d. It is 6 miles SE. by S. from Tenterden.

APLIDUM, in Zoology, a genus of the class tunicata. Generic character. Animals having two apertures; aggregated, very small, united in one common substance, which is convex, fleshy, and fixed; mouth with six tentacula, anus not externally conspicuous.

There is but one species of this genus—the *A. Sublobatum*, which is *Alcyonium Ficus* of Linnaeus and of Ellis.

APLIGIT, perhaps *In plight*. In good plight or condition; in readiness, already prepared; completely equipped.

Anon, fire she a-light,
And warmed it well, aplyght;
She gave it suck upon her barm,
And stithen, laid it to sleep warm.

Lay of *Frans in Ellis's Romances*, v. lii.

Gift thou barest will to fight,
When ever thou wold, let thee fight;
And thou shalt find me ready, aplyght,
In the field to 'bide fight.

Sir Otuel, *Id. Ib.* v. ii.

Now is Edward of Caracron
King of Engeland al aplyght,
God let him ner be worse man
Then his fader, ne lasse of myht.

Percy's *Reliques*, v. ii.

APLUSTRA, a name sometimes applied to the rostrum, or beak of a ship in ancient naval architecture: it seems to have been an ornament in the shape of a shield, fixed to that part of the vessel: and to which a pennant was attached, and answering to the Greek *aplustrum*.

APO, one of the smaller Philippine islands between Mindoro and the Calamianes. Long. 125° 10' E. Lat. 9° 23' N.

APo SHOALS, in the Indian sea. These lie between Mindoro and the Calamianes, extending about 28 miles in length from north to south, and 8 in breadth. Long. 130° 36' E. Lat. 12° 27' N.

APOBATANA, the metropolis of ancient Media, but more properly called Ecbatana.

<p>APOCALYPSE, APOCALYPTICAL, APOCALYPTIC, APOCALYPTIC, adj.</p>	<p>Ἀποκαλύπτειν from ἀπο, from, and καλύπτειν to cover, to conceal. Disclosure, or discovery of things—before close, or covered, hidden, or concealed. Revelation, Manifestation.</p>
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God the fadir seynge the tribulacions whiche hooli chirche was to suffer that was foundid of the apostis on crist the stone, dispoide with the aune and the hooli ghoost to schewen beun that me drede hem the lewe, and al the tryaye schewide is crist on his manhood, and crist in loon bi an engel, and loon to hooli chirche, of which reuelacion loon made this booke, wherfore this booke is reid speedily, that is to seie, reuelacion.

Wiclif, *Prof. to Apocalips*, p. 143.

APOCALYPSE.

That false traitorous vintress
Was like that slowe horse of heave
That in the *apocalyp* is shewed
That signifieth to folke bestrowed
That levis all full of trecherie
And pale, through hypocrisie
For on that horse no colour is
But onely dede and pale yre.

Chaucer. Rev. of Rose, fol. 150. c. 4.

O for that warning voice, which he, who saw
Th' *apocalyp*, heard cry in heaven aloud,
Then when the *Drusus*, put to second rout,
Came furious down to be reveng'd on me,
Woe to the inhabitants on earth!

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

Besides these properties, they [the Jews] are light and giddy-headed, much symbolizing in spirit with our apocalyptic scolders, and they interpreters of Daniel and other prophets.

Huxley's Letters.

During the four months that he had spent at Clifton, he had employed himself in reading the *Apocalyp* with great attention; and from the impression made upon his own mind, by the grand, comprehensive views of that sublime and interesting book, he was anxious to stimulate others to acquaint themselves with its contents.

Holmes's Life of Bishop Porteus.

It was concluded by some, that Providence designed him the apocalyptic angel, which should pour out one of the vials upon the beast.

Spencer on Prodiges, p. 314.

The divine apocalyptic, writing after Jerusalem was ruined, might teach them what the second Jerusalem must be; not on earth, but from heaven.

Lightfoot's Miscellanies.

APOCALYPSE, (*ἀποκάλυψις*, I reveal,) signifies, in general, a revelation; but is particularly referred to the Revelation of St. John, the last canonical book of the New Testament.

The Apocalypse was written by the Apostle and Evangelist St. John, A. D. 96 or 97, probably in the isle of Patmos, whither he was banished by the Roman Emperor, Domitian. The authenticity of this book was very generally, if not universally, acknowledged during the first two centuries; but in the third century it began to be questioned, in consequence of some absurd notions concerning the millennium, which a few well-meaning but fanciful expositors grounded on this book: which notions their opponents iudiciously and presumptuously endeavoured to discredit, by denying the authority of the book itself. It was unquestionably cited by the apostolic fathers, Ignatius and Polycarp, (probably also by Hermas,) in the first century. In the second century it was cited or commented upon by Justin Martyr, Melito, bishop of Sardis; the epistle of the churches of Vienne and Lyons, concerning the sufferings of their martyrs; Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, who personally knew Polycarp; Athenagoras; Theophilus, bishop of Antioch; Apollonius; Clement of Alexandria; and Tertullian. In the third century it was also quoted, or commentaries were written upon it, by Hippolytus, Portuensis, and Origen, and numerous other Greek and Latin writers; and was recognised as canonical (with the exception of a few individuals) by the eastern and western churches: and all the fathers of the fourth, fifth, and following ages quote the Apocalypse, as a book in their time acknowledged to be canonical. The style and language also concur to prove this book to be the genuine production of St. John.

The Apocalypse contains 22 chapters, which may

vol. XVII.

be divided into two principal parts. The first, after the title of the book, (ch. i.—3.) comprises the "things which are;" that is, the then present state of the Christian Church, including the epistolary instructions and admonitions to the angels or bishops of the seven churches of Ephesus, Smyrna, Pergamos, Thyatira, Sardis, and Laodicea, situated in Asia Minor. (ch. ii. 9.—iii.) The second part comprehends a prediction of "the things which shall be hereafter," or the future state of the church through succeeding ages, from the time when the apostle beheld the apocalyptic visions to the grand consummation of all things. (ch. iv.—xxii.) The best helps to the correct understanding of this prophetic book will be found in Bishop Hurd's *Sermons on Prophecy*, Bishop Newton's *Dissertations*, (vol. ii.); Lowman, on the *Revelation*; and, above all, Denn Woodhouse's *Translation of the Apocalypse*, with notes, critical and explanatory; London, 1806, royal 8vo.

Various apocryphal revelations are mentioned by ecclesiastical writers of the second and two following centuries, as the Apocalypses of Paul—of Peter—of Cerinthus—of St. Thomas—of St. John, (different from the genuine book,)—of Elias—of Moses—of Abraham—and even of Adam! But these spurious writings have long since perished, and were deservedly rejected by the Christian Church, on account of the idle legends which they appear to have contained.

APOCENOSIS, from *apo* from, and *cenosis*, to evacuate, in Medicine. The name of an order, in the class Locales of Cullen's Nosology. Unusual flow of blood, or other fluids; without preplexia or increased impetus of the fluids.

APXOCPE, from *apo*, and *carro*, I cut. A figure in grammar, by which part of the end of a word is cut off; as *dic*, for *dicere*; *fac*, for *facere*. A similar retrenchment at the beginning of a word is called *aphæresis*.

APOCRISIARIUS, from *apocrypsi*, an answer; an officer appointed to carry or deliver the messages or answers of the prince or emperor, under the lower empire. The chancellor of the empire was afterwards known by this name, whose office seems to be the origin of that of *marcio*, at the court of Rome.

APOCRYPHIA, } *ἀποκρυφία*, from *apo*, from, and
APOCRYPHAL, } *ἀποκρυφία*, to hide. Any thing hid.
APOCRYPHICAL, } den from; secreted.

The other (booked) *apocrypha*, which are called *apocrypha* (because they were not to be made, not openly and in common, but as it were in secret and apart) are neither found in the Hebrew nor in the Chaldee.

Bible, 1539. Pref. to Apocrypha.

My private judgment I should be loth to oppose against the force of their revered authority, who rather considering the divine excellency of some things in certain of those *apocrypha* which are publicly read, have thought it better to let them stand as a list or marginal border unto the Old Testament, and tho' with divine, yet as human compositions, to grant at the least unto certain of them publick audience in the house of God.

Hooker's Ecclesiastical Policy, fol. 138.

SHAY. This same duke is but
apocryphal, there's no creation
That can stand where titles are not right.
Beau. and Fletcher's Noble Gentleman, act iii.

'Tis nice to wash a few light stains; but theirs
To deluge sin, and drown a court in tears.
How'er, what's now *apocrypha*, my wit,
In time to come, may pass for holy writ.

Pope's Satires of Dunci.

APOCALYPSE.
APOCRYPHA.

APOCRYPHA.

The bishops of this synod, destitute of scripture proof and apostolic tradition for their image-worship, betook themselves to certain apocryphal and ridiculous stories, as Charles the Great observed.

Bp. Bull. Concept. of the Ch. of Rome.

A just interpretation of nature is the only sound and orthodox philosophy; whatever we add of our own, is apocryphal, and of no authority.

Reid's Inquiry.

I do not determine whether this book (Ecclesiasticus) be canonical, as the Gallican church, till lately, has considered it, or apocryphal, as here it is taken. I am sure it contains a great deal of sense and truth.

Books on the French Revolution.

The epithet "Apocrypha," or "Apocryphal," is given to those books which are not admitted into the sacred canon of the Old Testament, being either spurious, or at least not acknowledged as divine. According to some writers, these books are thus denominated, because they were not deposited in, but removed *ἐκ τῆς ἐκκλησίας* from the *cryst. ark*, chest, or other receptacle in which the sacred books were kept; or more probably from the Greek verb above given, because they were concealed from the generality of readers, their authority not being recognised by the Christian Church; and also because they are books destitute of proper testimonials, their original being obscure, their origin unknown, and their character either heretical or suspected. The Protestant Churches not only account those books to be apocryphal, and merely human compositions, which are esteemed such by the church of Rome, as the prayer of Manasseh, the third and fourth books of Esdras, the addition at the end of the book of Job, and the hundred and fifty first Psalm; but also the books of Tobit, Judith, the additions to the book of Esther, Wisdom, Ecclesiasticus, Baruch the prophet, with the Epistle of Jeremiah, the song of the three children, the stories of Susanna, and of Bel and the Dragon, and the first and second books of Maccabees. These books are rejected, because they possess no authority, either internal or external, to procure their admission into the sacred canon. For not only do they contain many things which are fabulous, contradictory, and directly at variance with the canonical scriptures, but are also totally destitute of prophecy or other authentic mark of inspiration. None of them are extant in Hebrew; all of them are in the Greek language, except the fourth book of Esdras, which is extant only in Latin. They were written, for the most part, by Alexandrian Jews, and subsequently to the cessation of the prophetic spirit, though before the promulgation of the Gospel. They were not received into the Sacred Canon by the Jewish Church, and therefore received no sanction from Jesus Christ. No part of the apocrypha is quoted, or even alluded to by him, or by any of his apostles; and both Philo and Josephus, two eminent Jewish writers who flourished in the first century of the Christian era, are totally silent concerning them. The apocryphal books are not mentioned as inspired productions, by any ecclesiastical writer of the first three centuries; and they are expressly rejected by Athanasius and Jerome in the fourth century. Though these two fathers, and several subsequent authors speak of these books with respect, yet the same authority was never ascribed to them as to the Old and New Testament, until the Popish

APOCRYPHA.

council of Trent, at its fourth session, admitted the whole of them into the Canon, with the exception of the prayer of Manasseh, and the third and fourth books of Esdras. No reason, therefore, exists for applying the books of the Apocrypha to "establish any point of doctrine." They are highly valuable as ancient writings, which throw considerable light on the phraseology of Scripture, and on the history and manners of the east; and as they contain many noble sentiments and useful precepts, the United church of Great Britain and Ireland, in imitation of the primitive church of Christ, "doth read them for example of life and instruction of manners." (Art. vi.) All the books of the Apocrypha, however, are not thus read. The Anglican church reads no part of either book of Esdras, or of the Maccabees, or of the additions to the book of Esther; nor does it read the song of the Three Children, or the prayer of Manasseh.

Besides the preceding writings, which are commonly termed the Apocryphal books of the Old Testament, there are numerous spurious and Apocryphal books, composed in the early days of Christianity, which were published under the names of Jesus Christ and his Apostles, their companions, &c.; and which are mentioned under the names of Gospels, Acts, Epistles, Revelations, &c. The very great number of heresies and schisms, that arose among Christians, soon after the publishing of the Gospel, may be assigned as the principal cause of this multitude of books, of which a small number only has come down to the present day. Like the Apocryphal books of the Old Testament, these writings are utterly destitute of evidence, to procure their reception into the Sacred Canon. They were not acknowledged as authentic; nor were they much used by the primitive Christians, except in refuting the errors of some heretics, who professed to receive them as genuine and inspired productions, and with whom they were willing to dispute upon principles out of their own books. Few, if any, of these pieces, (which, it is pretended, were written in the Apostolic age,) were composed before the second century of the Christian era, several of them were forged no late as the third century, and were rejected as spurious at the time when they were attempted to be imposed upon the Christian world. Further, these pretended apostolical books either propose or support some doctrine or practice, contrary to those which are certainly known to be true, and appear designed to obviate some heresy, which had its origin subsequent to the Apostolic age; they are filled with absurd, unimportant, or frivolous details; they ascribe to the Virgin Mary or to Jesus Christ himself, miracles which are both useless and improbable; they mention things which are later than the time when the author lived, whose name the book bears; their style is totally different from that of the genuine books of the New Testament; they contain direct contradictions to authentic history, both sacred and profane; they are studied imitations of various passages in the genuine scriptures, both to conceal the fraud and to allure readers; and they contain gross falsehoods, utterly repugnant to the character, principles, and conduct of the inspired writers. On all these accounts the apocryphal books of the New Testament have deservedly been

APOCRYPHA. rejected from the canon of Scripture, as spurious productions. Some modern opposers of Divine Revelation, indeed, have attempted to invalidate it, by representing them as of equal authority with the genuine books of Scripture; but so far are these productions from affecting the genuineness, credibility, and inspiration of the several books of the New Testament, which were generally received by the Christian church as written by the Apostles and Evangelists; that, on the contrary, they confirm the general accounts given in the canonical Scriptures, and thus indirectly establish the truth and divine authority of the gospel.

On the subject of Apocryphal books, see further Horne's *Introduction to the Critical Study and Knowledge of the Holy Scriptures*, vol. i., Appendix, No. V., (second edition). Fabricii *Codex Pseudepigraphus Veteris Testamenti*, (Hamburgi, 1792-41, 2 vols. 8vo.); Fabricii *Codex Apocryphus Novi Testamenti*, (Hamburgi, 1719-43, 3 parts in 2 vols. 8vo.); and Jones's *New and Full Method of settling the Canonical Authority of the New Testament*, (Oxford, at the Clarendon Press), in 3 vols. 8vo.

APOCYNUM, in Botany. A genus of plants, class Pentandria, order Digynia. Generic character. Corolla campanulate. Five filaments, alternating with the stamina.

This genus contains several species, natives of different regions of the globe.

APODES, is one of the four orders of fishes in the Linnaean distribution of animals.

APODIXIS, } *Αποδεικνυσθαι*, from *apo*, and *deix-*
APODICTICAL, } *ναι*, *deixis*, to shew, to clear,
APODICTIC, } make clear, to make plain, to demonstrate.

Holding an *apodictical* knowledge, and assured science of its verity, to persuade their apprehensions unto a plurality of gods in the world, were to make Euclid believe there were more than one center in a circle, or one right angle in a triangle.

Brown's *Vulgar Errors*.

There is no *apodictical* argument to prove, that any particular man will die: but yet he must be more than mad, who can presume upon immortality here, when he finds so many generations all gone to a man.

Wallaston's *Religion of Nature*.

APOGÆON, } In Astronomy, from *apo* and *gæon*,
APOGÆE, } the earth, is that point in the orbit
APOGÆUM, } of the sun or any planet which is farthest distant from the earth. The opposite point to this is called the perigee. The ancients, who regarded the earth as being the centre of our system, naturally paid most attention to these points; but the moderns have exchanged them for aphelion and perihelion; so that the apogee of the sun, is now the aphelion of the earth; and the perihelion of the sun, the same with the perigee of the earth.

APOGRAPHI, a copy or transcript; it stands opposed to autograph.

APOGRAPHÆE, an Athenian term of law, which denoted the rendering up an account of property, with a view to repel a charge of owing money to the state. Suidas. Potter lib. i. 23; in Roman law, the term is used to signify a catalogue or inventory of goods.

APOLABAMBA, a province of Peru, bounded on the east by the province of Moxos, and on the west by that of Carabaya. It extends about 80 leagues from south-west to north-east. The country is mountainous, intersected with hills, rocks, and precipices; the roads

are consequently very rugged, and interrupted by difficult and deep descents. The fruits cultivated throughout the province are, rice, maize, plantains, &c. which are the common aliment of the inhabitants. Cotton is also raised, and in the plains cacao, which is produced spontaneously.

APOLDA, a town and balliwick of Saxony, in Thuringia, four miles from Jena. It belonged in former times to the family of Vitthum, but came in 1631 to the duke of Saxe-Weimar. The latter made it over in 1633 to the university of Jena, which now exercises the sole jurisdiction and patronage over it. The ecclesiastical establishment consists of a superintendent, a dean, and eleven preachers. Justice is administered by a director and actuary, both appointed by the university. The town, however, preserves its magistrats and council, who have a seat and vote at the diet of the province. Besides brandy distilleries, there are here extensive stocking-works, which occupy 600 looms, and give employment to above 2500 persons, who manufacture yearly about 40,000 dozen pairs. The town was long in recovering from the damage done by a fire in 1780. Population 4000. 40 miles S. W. of Leipzig. Long. 11° 30' E. lat. 50° 56' N.

APOLEPSIS, an action of divorce in the Athenian law. In Medicine, it is used to denote a retention or suppression of urine, or of any other natural evacuation; also an extinction of the native heat of the veins; and sometimes it expresses the same thing as catalepsy.

APOLIDES, from *apo* and *polis*, a city. This word was used in Roman law, to denote those who were exiled to some remote part, or condemned to labour in the public works. Marcina de pars. l. 17.

APOLLINARES were games instituted at Rome A. C. 541, in honour of Apollo, upon occasion of a comet delivered after the fatal battle of Cannæ. Livy, xxvii. c. 25. These games were only scenical, and in time, the name of Apollinares ludi was given to all such games.

APOLLINARIANS, were ancient Heretics, who denied the proper humanity of Christ, and maintained that the body which he assumed was endowed with a sensitive and not a natural soul; but that the place of this last in man was supplied by the divine nature. This sect derived its name from Apollinarius, bishop of Laodicea, and the doctrine was condemned in several councils, at Alexandria, in 362, at Rome, in 375, and again in 378, when Apollinarius was deposed from his bishopric.

APOLLONIPOLIS. See **APOLLONIA**.

APOLLO, in Mythology, a celebrated deity of Greece and Rome, who was supposed to be the inventor and patron of all the fine arts. Cicero (*De Nat. Dio*. l. iii. c. 23) distinguishes four deities of this name; but the one who is celebrated in poetry was the son of Jupiter and Latona, and born in the island of Delos, at the same time with his sister Diana. He represents the sun, in Grecian Mythology, as Osiris did in the Egyptian; and the name has fancifully been supposed to come from a *præfixus* and *solus*, many; because he alone appears, in the heavens, during the day; *Nol*, in Latine, is in like manner supposed to be derived from *solus*, alone. Apollo is represented as a beautiful beardless youth, with long hair (hence called "intonsus" and "crinitus"), holding a bow and arrow in

**APOLA-
BAMBA.**
APOLLO.

APOLLO.
—
APOL-
LONIA.

his right hand, and in his left a lyre. The animals consecrated to him were the wolf and hawk, from their piercing eyes; the crow and raven, from their power of predicting futurity; the cock, from his announcing the dawn of day; the grasshopper, on account of his trifling powers; and the swallow, from his fabulous vocal powers in death.

APOLLO BELVINESE, in Sculpture, is esteemed by most artists as the most sublime specimen of ancient art, which has survived to modern times. It was found in the fifteenth century at Capo d'Anzo, upon the sea coast, about 12 leagues from Rome, in the ruins of ancient Antium. It was purchased by Pope Julius II., when only a cardinal, who when he came to the papal throne, placed it in the Belvedere of the Vatican, from whence it takes its name, and where it has now been replaced. The marble from which this statue is taken, is of so peculiar a kind, as to have occasioned much controversy among sculptors, nor is it yet decided from what country or quarry it has been taken; neither are opinions less divided as to the name of its author. This statue is a standing figure, almost naked, and more than seven feet in height. He is represented with his quiver hanging behind his right shoulder, and the piliolum over his left arm which is extended; in his hand he has the remains of a bow, out of which he is supposed to have just discharged an arrow at the serpent Python. The right fore arm and the left hand which were wanting, have been restored by Giovanni Angelo da Montorsoli, pupil of Michael Angelo.

Besides the above statue there are several other very fine ones of Apollo; particularly one in the Justinian palace, where he is represented as holding the skin of Marsyas; also a group of Apollo and Marsyas in the Chigi palace; this last is particularly fine.

APOLLONIA, APOLLONIAS, APOLLINOPOLIS, APOLLONIS FANUM, &c., names of towns and places consecrated to Apollo, of which Geographers have enumerated no less than 33. The most remarkable were,

1. A colony of the Milesians in Thrace, on the south side of the Bay, which is now called the Bay of Burgaz. It was established 50 years before Cyrus, and was according to Ptolemy (III. 11.), the most important settlement of the Greeks on the western coast of the Euxine Sea. The town was built upon a small island united to the continent, and provided with two spacious harbours, (Strabo VII. 6, 1.) It was celebrated for a colossal statue of Apollo, which was carried to Rome by Lucullus, when he plundered this place in his expedition against the Bessi. (Eutrop. VI. 10.) It afterwards fell into decay, and was latterly called Sazopolis. (Penpl. An. p. 14).

2. A Greek city in Illyria, 50 or 60 stadia from the coast, and 10 stadia from Aous, (Scylax, p. 10. Strabo VII. 5, 9. Ptol. III. 13.) It was founded by a colony of Corinthians from Corcyra, and afterwards restored by the Corinthians, when assistance had been in vain asked from Corcyra; which proceeding on the part of Coriath, was the first cause of the Peloponnesian war. It was continually depressed by its Illyrian neighbours, frequently recruited by new settlers from Greece, and willingly received the aid of the Romans, when the Illyrian Princes had nearly subdued it. The Romans allowed its inhabitants the uninterrupted enjoyment of their civil constitution,

which is praised by Strabo (I. c.), and the town possessed a considerable trade, as well as a respectable school of Greek learning, frequented by young Romans of the higher classes. It was fortified, and had a strong citadel; but was ruined in the civil war. Its earlier coins are common. Suet. Aug. 8. Rasche Lex. Numm. Vol. I. p. 955.

3. In the Thebaic Nome in Egypt, on the east side of the Nile, not far from Coptus. It was the emporium to which the Indian goods were brought from Myos Hormos, six or seven days journey distant. It was called Apollinopolis Parva, and was 92 miles from Thebes. It is now called Kas, and is mentioned by Abu'lfeida as the entrepôt for the Indian trade through Aden in Arabia, and Kos'air on the Red Sea. Bruce and Sonnini also speak of it as the place where the caravans for Kos'air assemble.

4. Apollinopolis or Apollonias Magna or Superior, in the Apollinopolitic Nome, lay on the western side of the Nile, 32 miles from Latopolis. Its inhabitants were enemies to the crocodile. Very considerable remains of it are yet to be seen at the town or village of Edfu; and some of the ruins there surpass in beauty almost every thing else in Egypt according to Denon (II. 107, 377.)

APOL'OGISE,

APOL'OGISE, { *Ἀπολογίζομαι*, from *ἀπο*, and
APOL'OGIST, { *λέγω*, I say. To speak in answer,
APOL'OGY, { to defend, to vindicate, to justify;
APOL'OGAT'ICAL, { now more commonly to excuse.
APOL'OGUE'TICK.

For in y^e books that is called *mise apologie*, it is not required by the nature of that name, that it be any *answer* or *defense* for mine own self at all: but it sufficeth that it be of *mine* own making an *answer* or *defense* for some other.

Sir Tho. More's Works, fol. 932. c. 1.

Bucc. Famous Painters, most gracious prince,

Lend favourably ear to our requests;

And pardon us the interruption

Of thy devotion, and right Christian state.

Glo. My lord, their needs no such *apologie*.

Richard III., act III, sc. 7.

For now thou art censure'd 't' *apologize*

With foreign states, for two enormous things;

Wherein thou dost appear to scandalize

The public right, and common cause of kings.

Daniel's Civil War, book iv.

I have scarce leisure to consider those swarms of reproaches, which issue out of some men's mouths and hearts, as easily as smoke or sparks do out of a furnace; I would know to make such *prolix apologues*, as might give those men satisfaction.

Eden's Hist.

Epictetus's advice is, when you are told that any man speaks ill of you, that you should not *apologize*, but answer only, that he was ignorant of many other faults of yours, or he would not only have mentioned those.

Barron's Sermons.

Apollonius himself was a clear and undoubted master of our Supreme Deity, as is evident from his *apologetical* oration in Philostratus, prepared for Domitian, in which he calls him, that God who is the maker of the whole universe, and of all things.

Cadogan's Intellectual System.

Having thought they would have emboldened him an answer to his last letters, he adds, subscribing himself your friend, as you shall give cause. This roused them to some consideration, and soon after, a handsome *apologetical* letter was sent from the vice-chancellor to Sir W. Raleigh, setting forth, that the hard opinion he had conceived of them for this matter, made them doubt what manner of answer they might address to him without offence; and that their silence was so ill taken, they knew not how they endeavoured to excuse it might give him satisfaction.

Gilbey's Life of Sir W. Raleigh.

APOL-
LONIA.
—
APOLLO-
GISE.

APOL-
LOGISE.

His apologisers labour to free him; laying the fault of the errors fathered upon him unto the charge of others.

Heaven. Five of Antiquity.

APOPH-
THEGM.

My Lord Bacon, a much better *apologist* than I am, had obviated the objection made to Descartes long before this philosopher had writ, in the third book of the *argumentation of science*.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

APOLOGY, in Classical Authors, signifies, not an excuse but a vindication. There are several works under this name, by ancient writers, and some celebrated defences of Christianity; of Quadratus, written about the year 136; of Aristides written at the same time; of Justin Martyr; and of Tertullian: besides some others. It was in allusion to these works, that Dr. Watson, the bishop of Landaff, entitled his letters to Gilbon, an "Apology for Christianity," and those which he wrote to Thomas Paine, an "Apology for the Bible;" that is to say, a vindication of these from the misrepresentations of the respective writers to whom his "Apologies" were addressed.

APOLOGUE, } Of the same origin with Apolo-
gologue, } gy, though differently applied. Apology being generally applied to that which is said in defence, and Apologue to that which is said, told, narrated to explain or enforce moral principles.

They that intercal charitable and conduct wisely, take occasions and proper seasons of reproof, they do it by way of question and similitude, by narrative and apologies, by commending something in him that is good, and discommending the same fault in other persons by way that may disgrace that vice, and preserve the reputation of the man.

Taylor's Sermons.

A mouse (saith an *apologer*) was brought up in a chest; there fed with fragments of bread and cheese, thought there could be no better meat, till coming forth at last, and feeding liberally of other variety of viands, looked his former life.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

In all ages of the world, there is nothing with which mankind hath been so much delighted as with those little fictitious stories, which go under the name of fables or apologies among the ancient heathens, and of parables in the sacred writings.

Parson's Lectures.

APOLOGUES are moral fables or figured relations, which are always supposed to mean something more than is at first sight expressed; and Julius Scaliger hence derives the word from ἀπολογία, as conveying a sense apart from the narration itself. Concerning the origin, the distinguishing character, and use of apologies, the reader may consult Bayle *Diet. Crit. in voce, Espe, and Shaftesbury's Character*. vol. iii.

APONEUROSIS, in Anatomy, the extension of a nerve.

APONIA, among Physicians, denotes a state of release from pain, from a priv. and πορος labour.

APONOGETON, in Botany. A genus of plants, class Dodecandria, order Tetragynia. Generic character. Amentum, composed of scales. Calyx and corolla wanting. Capsules four, three-seeded. Four species of this genus are described, they are natives of the East Indies, and the Cape of Good Hope.

APONUS, a hamlet near Petavium or Padua, which is celebrated by Martial as the birth place of Livy.

APOPHASIS, a figure of speech, by which we insinuate a thing, under pretence of declining to state it. It is also a term in civil law.

APOPHITHEGM, or } Ἀποφθίγμα, from Ἀπο-
N'OTHEGM, } θίγειν, to speak
APOTHEGMATICAL, } out, from ἀπο and θίγειν, to
APOTHEGMATIST, } I speak.

Any thing spoken out: shortly, clearly; a short and sententious speech or saying.

Julius Caesar did write a collection of *apophthegms*, as appears in an epistle of Cicero; so did Macrobius, a consular man.—I need say no more for the worth of a writing of that nature.—Certainly they are of excellent use. Cicero prettily calleth them *salubres, sal-pita*, that you may extract salt out of, and sprinkle it where you will. They serve to be interlarded in continued speech. They serve to be relied upon occasion of themselves. They serve, if you take out the kernel of them, and make them your own.

Lard Bacon's Works, vol. i. p. 529.

It is in the general behalf of this fair society here that I am to speak, at least the more judicious part of it, which seems much distasteful with the immodest and obscure writing of many in their plays. Besides, they could wish your poets would leave to be promoters of other men's jests, and to say lay all the state *apophthegms*, or old books, they can leave of, in print, or otherwise, to force their senses withal.

Ben Jonson's Cynthia's Revels. Ind.

The Lacedaemonians' speech hath no outward bark (as a man would say) or crust upon it, but when all the superfluity thereof is taken away, it is steeled (as it were) and tripeared, yea, and hath an edge upon it fit for to worketh and to pierce: and verily that *apophthegmatist* and powerful speech of theirs, that grace which they had to answer sententially and with such gravity, together with a quick and ready gift to meet at every turn with all objections, they attained unto by nothing else but by their much silence.

Holland's Plutarch's Morals.

A poet or orator would have no more to do but send to the particular traders in each kind, to the ironist for his sarcasms, and to the *apophthegmatist* for his sentences, &c.

Pope's Art of Sinking in Poetry.

In a numerous collection of our *Serious' apophthegms*, many of them referring to sundry precepts of the Jewish law, there is not to be found one example of sophistry, or of false subtilty, or of any thing approaching therewith.

Paley's Evidences.

This sententious, *apophthegmatizing* style, by crowding propositions and paragraphs too fast upon the mind, and by carrying the eye of the reader from subject to subject in too quick a succession, gives not a sufficient hold upon the attention, to leave either the memory furnished, or the understanding satisfied.

Paley's Philosophy, vol. i. p. 17.

APOPHYGE, a word in architecture, which denotes that part of a column, where it begins to spring out of its base and shoot upwards: often called the spring of the column.

APOPHYSIS, from ἀπο and φύω to grow, a name given to those eminences of the bones which are not attached by cartilage. In Botany the word denotes excrecences from the receptacle of the musci.

APOPLEXY, from ἀπο and πλεωω, to strike or knock down; in Medicine. A disease belonging to the class Neuroses, and order Comata of Cullen. An abolition of sensation and voluntary motion; with more or less profound sleep, the action of the heart and arteries remaining: respiration generally accompanied with a stertorous noise.

The immediate cause of Apoplexy is pressure on the brain; as this may arise from a variety of causes, it is obvious that this disease may exist under very different circumstances.

The most usual division is into the sanguineous and serous apoplexy. The first is produced either by an accumulation of blood in the vessels of the head, or by effusion in consequence of the rupture of vessels: it may arise from any cause which increases the flow of blood to the head, or which impedes its return.

The serous apoplexy is produced by an effusion of serum from the exhalant arteries of the brain, producing compression of that organ. It generally occurs

APOPH-
THEGM.

APH-
PHEXY.

AP-
PHEXY.
—
APUS-
TASY.

in old and debilitated persons, while the sanguineous form attacks those who are of a full habit, and who indulge freely in the pleasures of the table. Palsy of one side of the body frequently accompanies, or succeeds an attack of apoplexy. The principal remedies employed are bleeding, blistering, and free evacuations by the bowels. The treatment, however, will much depend on the cause of the disease, as well as on the habit of the patient.

Apoplexy is frequently symptomatic of other diseases, as well as of injuries of the head.

APOSIOFESIS, from *aposiofesis*, *I am silent*, a figure of speech, by which a person indicates his meaning, while affecting to suppress it; a celebrated example of this figure is that of Virgil,—

Quas ego—and prædict motus compunctu fluctus,
where we may understand the word *passion*, or some other threat.

APOSTASY, *v.*

APOSTASY, *n.*

APOSTATE, *v.*

APOSTATE, *n.*

APOSTATE, *adj.*

APOSTATIZE, *v.*

APOSTATICAL.

Apostatus, to stand away from, to depart; from *apo*, and *statos* to stand, to stay, to place.

To stand away from, to depart, desert, or forsake.

But Lucifer he put aside,
With all the route apostatized
Of him that bes to him allied,
Whence out of heaven is to helle,
From angels in to furies fell.

Goetz, Gen. A. book viii.

The angles that by apostate fell from God, when they were in heaven wrought malitiously about it.

Bea's Image to both Churches.

This province being visited with a great plague and mortality, Sigher, with the people over whom he ruled, forsaking Christian religion, fell to apostate, for both the king himself, and many of his people, as well of the nobles as of the meaner sort, began to recon their temple, which had stood desolate, they worshipped their idols, as though they could by that means have escaped the mortality.

Stout's Chronicles.

As he hated outlaws in religion, so could he worse endure those apostates and those desolates of the Lord and base compliances with his adversaries, which timorous men practice under the name of prudent and weak concessions to avoid persecution.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

And, to add to affliction, the remembrance
Of the Elysian joys thou might'st have tasted,
Hidest thou not turn'd apostate to those gods
That so reward their servants.

Messinger's Virgin Martyr, act iv. sc. 3.

High in the midst, exalted as a God,
The apostate in his sun-bright chariot sat,
Lord of majesty divine, enrobed
With flaming cherubim, and golden shields.

Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

Perhaps some of these apostates have thought themselves true: let their misdeeds make me heedful: let the inward light of thy grace more convince my truth to myself, than my outward profession can represent me glorious to others.

By Hall's Ove. Meditations.

That the church of Rome is itself, that is, a church, that it is viable, that it is truly existent, there can be no doubt: but is it still a part of the truly existent visible church of Christ? Surely, no otherwise than a heretical and apostatized church is and may be.

By Hall's Reconciler.

As force is inconsistent with the nature of religion in general, and still more opposite to the spirit of Christianity in particular, so it is in Scripture, still further, made the distinguishing character of the great apostasy foretold by Christ and his Apostles.

Clarke's Sermons.

What a wretched and apostate state is this! to be offended with excellence, and to hate a man because we approve him!

Spectator, No. 19.

Like thee, I'll tend the call of matin bell
To early orisons, and latest time
My evening song to that more wondrous love,
Which sav'd us from the great apostate's wiles,
And righteous vengeance of Almighty Ire,
Justly success'd.

Jago's Edge Hill book ii.

Even the Emperor Julian himself, that most bitter adversary of Christianity, who had openly apostatized from it, who professed the most implacable hatred to it, who employed all his ingenuity, all his acuteness and learning, which were considerable, in combating the truth of it, in displaying in the strongest colours every objection he could raise up against it; even he did not deny the reality of our Lord's miracles.

Porteus's Lectures.

APOSTEMATED, *Αποστέμασθαι*, *abstergere, disjungere, discedere, abcedere.*

These are so mean surges of blasphemy, not only dipping Moses the divine lawgiver, but dashing with a high hand against the justice and purity of God himself; as these causing Scriptures, plainly and freely handled, shall verify, to the learning of that old apostemated error.

Milton's Tetrachordon.

A POSTERIORI, a term of logic, which is used to denote a form of argument by which we demonstrate the nature of the cause, by reasoning from the effect; it is opposed to *a priori*, by which we demonstrate the effect from the cause.

APOSTLE, *v.*

APOSTLESHIP, *n.*

APOSTOLICAL, *adj.*

APOSTOLICALLY, *adv.*

APOSTOLICALNESS, *n.*

APOSTOLIC, *adj.*

APOSTOLATE, *n.*

Apostolos, from *apostellanai*, to send, from *apo*, and *stellanai*, to send.

Any one sent; applied to those also who were sent by Jesus Christ to preach his doctrine.

Go we with gods will, and here I saw apostle,
Of all your synods like granted of apostle,
But ye had said or sought, or done for in schism,
In Christ, but ye all sought, he it was foreseen.

R. Brazer, p. 115.

And whence the day was come, he chide his disciples, and ebes twelve of them, which he chide also disciples.

Wiclif. Luk. c. 6.

Thi preides and seiden, thou lord that knowest the hertis of alle men, schew whom thou hast chosen of these twene that oon take the place of this scriver and apostolth of which iudas trespasside that he scholde go into his place.

Wiclif. Deut. of Apollos, c. 1.

And whan they prayed they sayde: thou Lord, which knowest y^e hertes of all men, shewe whether of these thou hast chosen: that he may take the roume of this mynistracion and Apostolthippe, from which Judas by transgression fell, y^e he myght go to his owne place.

Ibid., 1539.

For as Chrysostom saying in his *Homilies*, declared that he taught nothing, but that came from the heavenly father, so the apostolical men as often as they saw the people to depend of their mouth, with a plain and a simple sayth, they should purpose nothing unto them, which they had not received of Christ.

Foail. Math. c. 14.

That I so am, [a minister of Christ] I declared neither with high voice, nor with taking of provocation, nor by bragging of my knowledge, but by such means as evidently proved mine apostolical spirit.

Edail. 2 Corin. c. 11.

These words, Angel or Apostle, which they signify mission or legation, yet in Scripture they often relate to the persons to whom they are sent.

Taylor's Episcopacy Asserted.

AP-
TASY.

APOSTLE.

APOSTLE. "You know, brother, [says Mr. Calvin,] that the fashion is otherwise with us: I bear with it, because it is not profitable to contend; "a charitable rule, and worthy to be universal; and indeed little other than apostolical.

Hall's Peace-Maker.

He that is rightly and apostolically sped with her [the churches] invisible arrow, if he can be at peace in his soul, and not smelt within him the brimstone of hell, may have fair leave to tell all his bags over undiminished of the least farthing.

Milton's Ref. in England.

Although deacons and priests have part of these offices, and therefore (though in a very limited sense) they may be called successors *Apostolorum*, to wit, in the power of baptizing, consecrating the Eucharist, and preaching, yet the *Apostolatus* and *Episcopatus*, which did communicate in all the power, and offices which are ordinary and perpetual, are in Scripture clearly all one is ordinary ministration.

Taylor's Episcopacy Asserted.

'Tis well worth remarking upon this place, that the promise, ye shall sit on twelve thrones judging the twelve tribes of Israel, was made to the *Apostles* at that time when Judas was yet one of that number; and consequently, the promise was as much made to him as to any of the rest. From whence it follows undeniably, that he was not predestinated necessarily to be a traitor, but fell from his *Apostolship*, and from his right to this promise, by his *voluntary* transgression.

Clarke's Sermons.

Then shalt escape better than any party of men, by reason of thy conspicuous innocence, sincerity, and exemplarity of life, and unexceptionable apostolicalness of doctrine.

Merr. Seven Churches, ch. 8.

Having no general apostolical mission, being a citizen of a particular state, and being bound up, in a considerable degree, by its public will, I should think it, at least, improper and irregular, for me to open a formal public correspondence with the actual government of a foreign nation.

Baker, on the French Revolution.

Lost, in the papal standard, they display
The triple crown, and apostolical key;
See'n thousand valiant Romans march behind,
And great Camillo leads the charge assign'd.

Brooke's, Jerusalem Delivered, book i.

APOSTLE, (*ἀποστόλος*, from ἀποστέλλω I send forth) properly signifies a messenger or person sent by another on some business; and hence, by way of eminence, it denotes one of the disciples commissioned by Jesus Christ to preach the Gospel.

Out of the number of his disciples, Jesus selected twelve, whom he separated from the rest by the name of Apostles, to accompany him constantly through the whole course of his ministry; that they might be faithful and respectable witnesses of the sanctity of his life, and the grandeur of his miracles, to the remotest nations; and also that they might transmit to the latest posterity a genuine account of his sublime doctrines, and of the nature and design of the gospel dispensation. Their names were, Simon—Peter, Andrew his brother; James, the greater, and John, his brother, who were sons of Zebedee; Philip, of Bethsaida; Bartholomew; Thomas; Matthew; James, the son of Alphaeus, who was also called James the less; Lebbeus his brother, who was surnamed Thaddeus, and was also called Judas or Jude; Simon the Canaanite, and Judas Iscariot, who subsequently betrayed his master, and afterwards committed suicide. Of these, Simon—Peter, Andrew, James the greater, and John were fishermen; and Matthew was a publican, or tax-gatherer; of what profession the rest were, we are not informed, though it is probable that they also were fishermen. These men were poor, illiterate, and of mean extraction, and such alone were truly proper to answer the views of Jesus Christ;

who avoided the making use of the ministry of persons endowed with the advantages of fortune and birth, or enriched with the treasures of eloquence and learning, lest the fruits of this embassy, and the progress of the gospel, should be attributed to human and natural causes.

The researches of the learned have been employed, to find out the reason of Christ's limiting the number of the Apostles to twelve; and various conjectures have been applied to the solution of this question. The most probable is, that it was in allusion to the twelve Patriarchs, as the founders of their several tribes, or to the twelve chief heads or rulers of those tribes, of which the body of the Jewish nation consisted. This opinion seems to be countenanced by the declaration of Christ to his Apostles, that "when the son of man shall sit in the throne of his glory, they also shall sit upon twelve thrones, judging the twelve tribes of Israel" (Matt. xix. 28.) On the death of the traitor Judas, care was taken to choose another Apostle, to make up the number. (Acts i. 21, 22, 26.) This seems to have been a mark of respect to the Jews, previously to the offer of the gospel to them; whereas, when they had generally rejected it, two more (Paul and Barnabas) were added, without any regard to the number of twelve.

Two distinct commissions were given by Jesus Christ to his Apostles. The first was in the third year of his public ministry, about eight months after their solemn designation to their office; when he sent them forth, two and two, to preach exclusively to the Jews. (Matt. x. 5, 6.) Concerning the particular circumstances of this their first preaching, the evangelical history is silent; it simply states that they returned and told their master all that they had done. (Luke ix. 10.) Their second commission, just before Christ's ascension into heaven, was of a more extensive and particular nature; they were no longer to confine their preaching to the Jews, but were to "go and teach all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost." (Matt. xxviii. 19, 20.) Accordingly, after our Lord's ascension, and the miraculous effusion of the Holy Spirit upon them, they began publicly to exercise their Apostolic office, daily working miracles in proof of their divine mission, and converting great multitudes to the Christian faith.

After the Apostles had exercised their ministry in Palestine, they resolved, (according to an ancient ecclesiastical tradition), to disperse themselves into different parts of the world; but what were the particular provinces assigned to each, does not appear from any authentic history. Eusebius (*Hist. Eccl. lib. i. c. 1*), and Socrates, (*Hist. Eccl. lib. i. c. 19*), on the authority of tradition, concur that Thomas took Parthia for his lot; the latter historian assigns Ethiopia to Matthew, and India to Bartholomew; and Eusebius says that Andrew had Scythia; John, Asia Minor; Peter preached in the Jews who were dispersed in Pontus, Galatia, Bithynia, Cappadocia, and Asia Minor; and Paul preached the gospel from Jerusalem, (where we know from the Acts of the Apostles, that James the less continued, being Bishop of that church) to Illyricum. Of the travels and labours of the Apostles, subsequently to the particulars recorded in the New Testament, as well as of

APOSTLE.—their deaths, we have very short and imperfect accounts; but we know from the concurrent testimony of Christian and of Heathen writers, that Christianity was very early planted in very many parts of the then known world.

The appellation of **APOSTLE** is, by the author of the epistle to the Hebrews (iii. 1.), applied pre-eminently to Jesus Christ, who was sent by the Father into the world, not to condemn it, but to save it. Saint Paul is also frequently called the *Apostle*, by way of distinction, and the *Apostle of the Gentiles*, because his ministry was chiefly directed to the conversion of the gentile world; as St. Peter, who was employed in preaching to the Jews, is on that account termed the *Apostle of the circumcision*. The several apostles are usually represented with their respective attributes; as James the less with a pillar's club; Paul, with a sword; Peter, with the keys; Andrew, with a cross or saltier; John, with a cup and a winged serpent flying from it; Bartholomew, with a knife; Philip, with a long staff, the upper end of which is formed into a cross; Matthew, with a hatchet; Matthias, with a battle-axe; Thomas, with a lance; James the greater, with a Pilgrim's staff, and a gourd-bottle; Simon, with a saw; and Jude with a club.

APOSTLE is also an appellation given to the ordinary travelling ministers of the church (see Rom. xvi. 7.), and likewise to those who were sent by the churches to carry their aims to the poor of other churches. This usage was borrowed from the Synagogues of the Jews, who called those sent on this message by the same name. Thus St. Paul, writing to the Philippians, tells them that Euphroditus, their *Apostle*, had ministered to his wants. In like manner, this appellation is given to those persons who are said to have first planted the Christian faith in any place. Thus, Dionysius, of Corinth, is called the *Apostle of France*; Boniface, (an Englishman), the *Apostle of Germany*; Xavier, the *Apostle of the Indies*; and in the East Indies the Jesuit Missionaries are styled Apostles. In some ages of the church, the Pope was peculiarly denominated the *Apostle*; which word Sir Henry Spelman informs us was anciently used for Admiral.

APOSTLE, among the Jews, denoted an officer, who was anciently sent into the several parts and provinces in their jurisdiction, as visitors or commissaries, to see that the laws were duly observed, and to collect money for the reparation of the temple, as well as the tribute payable to the Romans. These Apostles were a degree below the Patriarchs, from whom they received their commission.

APOSTLE, (ἀπόστολος), in the Liturgy of the Greek church, is an appellation given to lectionaries, containing lessons from the Epistles of St. Paul, in the order in which they are appointed to be read throughout the year, as well as the epistles themselves; where such book contains lessons from the gospels and epistles. It is termed *επιστολοσυγγράμμα*, and when it comprises the Acts of the Apostles, together with the Epistles, it is called *παρασημαστικόν*. (Du Cange, *Gloss. Græc.* in voce. Bishop Marsh's *Michaelis*, vol. ii. pp. 111, 639.)

APOSTLES' Creed, a formula or summary of Christian Faith, so called, not from the fact of its being composed by the Apostles themselves (of which

we have no evidence whatever), but because it contains a brief statement of the doctrines which they taught. It is nearly the same with the creed of Jerusalem, which appears to be the most ancient summary of faith that is extant. The true author of this formula, it is at this distance of time impossible to determine; though its great antiquity may be inferred from the fact, that the whole form, as it now stands in the English Liturgy, is to be found in the works of Ambrose and Rufinus, who lived in the fourth century. Though this creed was always used prior to the administration of baptism, when the catechumens made an open profession of his faith, and sometimes in private devotion, yet in the earlier ages it constituted no part of the public liturgy. The constant repetition of it was first introduced into the daily service of the Greek church, at Antioch, in the close of the fifth century; and from the eastern churches this custom was brought into the west, though it was not introduced into the Roman Liturgy until the beginning of the eleventh century.

APOSTOLATE (*Apostolatus*), the office of an Apostle of Christ; by various ancient writers, of the fourth century, it is used for the office of a bishop; and in the ninth and following centuries, it became appropriated to the papal dignity.

APOSTOLICAL, } (From Apostle), relating to
APOSTOLICAL, } the Apostles, or delivered by
APOSTOLICALLY, } them, or in the manner of the Apostles.

This appellation was, in the primitive church, given to all such churches as were founded by the Apostles, and even to the Bishops of those churches, as being the reputed successors of the Apostles. These were, at first, confined to four,—viz., Rome, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; but, in succeeding ages, other churches assumed the same quality, principally on account of the conformity of their doctrine with that of the churches which were apostolical by foundation, and because all bishops held themselves to be the successors of the Apostles, or acted in their respective dioceses with apostolical authority. In progress of time, however, the Bishop of Rome having acquired greater power than all the rest, and the three Patriarchates of Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, having fallen into the hands of the Saracens, the title *apostolical* was restricted to the Pope, and to his church alone.

APOSTOLIC CANONS, or Constitutions, are certain rules or laws for the government of the Christian church, and supposed by some writers to have been drawn up by the Apostles themselves; but Bishop Beveridge, to whom we are indebted for the best edition of them, is of opinion, that though they were not actually written by the Apostles, yet they are of great antiquity, and are a collection of the canons of several churches, enacted before those made by the council of Nice. Though bearing the name of the Apostles of Christ, they are destitute of the external evidence necessary to support that claim, not being quoted by any of the Christian writers of the first three centuries. They are also destitute of internal evidence, and contain many expressions and allusions which are evidently later than the times of the Apostles, as well as unworthy of them, and many inconsistencies and much false history. They are now

APOSTLE.
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APOSTOLICAL.

APPOS-
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generally admitted to have been compiled about the middle of the fourth century.

APOSTOLIC CHAMBER, (*Camera Apostolica*), the treasury of the Pope, as Bishop of Rome; whence he used to draw the necessary sums for his personal expenses. It was also considered as a fund for the support of Christian hospitality, and for relieving the distresses of the poor.

APOSTOLICAL FATHERS, an appellation usually given to the writers of the first century, who employed their pens in the cause of Christianity, and who had conversed with the Apostles or their immediate disciples. They are five in number, viz., Clement, Ignatius, Polycarp, Barnabas, and Hermas. Mosheim observes, that these fathers were not remarkable, either for their learning or their eloquence; on the contrary, they express the most pious and admirable sentiments in the plainest and most illiterate style. But this is rather a matter of honour than of reproach to the Christian cause; since we see, from the conversion of a great part of mankind to the gospel, by the ministry of weak and illiterate men, that the progress of Christianity is not to be attributed to human means, but to a divine power. (Mosheim, *Ecc. Hist.* vol. i. p. 114.) The writings of the Apostolic fathers are valuable repositories of the faith and practice of the Christian church during its first and purest age; their testimony to the genuineness and authenticity of the books of the New Testament is peculiarly important; and, as the contemporary friends of any body of men must know the sentiments of such men, more accurately and perfectly than the most sagacious inquirers who flourish many ages after them, the writings of the Apostolic fathers are peculiarly valuable, as confirming those views of the doctrine and government of the church, which we read in the New Testament.

The best collective edition of the works of these fathers, is that published by Le Clerc, after Cotelerius, at Amsterdam, in 1734, in two folio volumes, accompanied both with their own annotations and with the remarks of other learned men. The genuine epistles of the Apostolic fathers were translated into English by Archbishop Wake, and have often been reprinted.

APOSTOLICA (*Apostolica*), or **Apostles**, a name assumed by three different sects, which professed to imitate the manners and the practice of the Apostles.

The first, who called themselves Apostles, flourished in the close of the second century; little is known of their peculiar tenets, except that they renounced every kind of property, and had all things in common. (Du Cange, *Gloss. Lat.*, voce *Apostolica*.)

The second sect of the Apostolics lived in the twelfth century, and were men of the lowest birth, who gained their subsistence by bodily labour. As soon as they formed themselves into a sect, they drew after them a multitude of adherents, of all ranks and orders. Their religious doctrine, (as Bernard, who wrote against them, acknowledges), was free from error; and their lives and manners were irreproachable and exemplary. Yet they were reprehensible, on account of the following peculiarities. They held it to be unlawful to take an oath; they permitted their hair and beards to grow to an enormous length; they preferred celibacy to wedlock, and called themselves the chaste brethren and sisters.

VOL. XVII.

APPOS-
TOLIC.
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APOS-
TROPHIC.

Notwithstanding which, each man had a spiritual sister with him, after the manner of the Apostles, with whom he lived in a domestic relation.

The third sect of the Apostles arose in the thirteenth century, its members made little or no alteration in the doctrinal part of the public religion; their efforts were chiefly directed to the introduction of the simplicity of the primitive times, and more especially the manner of life observed by the Apostles. Gerhard Sagarelli, the founder of this sect, obliged his followers to itinerate from place to place, clothed in white, with long beards, dishevelled hair, and bare heads, accompanied by women, whom they termed spiritual sisters. They also renounced all kinds of property and possessions, and ioveighed against the increasing corruptions of the church of Rome; the overthrow of which they pretended to foretel, together with the establishment of a purer church on its ruins. Sagarelli was burnt at Parma in the year 1300, and was succeeded by a bold and enterprising man named Dulcinus, a native of Navara, who published his predictions with more courage, and maintained them with greater zeal than his predecessor. He appeared at the head of the *Apostles*; and, acting as a general as well as a prophet, assembled an army to maintain his cause. He was opposed by Raynerius, Bishop of Vercelli, who defended the interest of the Roman Pontiff, and carried on a bloody war against this chief of the Apostles. At length, after fighting several battles with obstinate courage, Dulcinus was taken prisoner, and put to death in the most barbarous manner, in the year 1307. His sect continued to subsist in France, Germany, and other countries, until the beginning of the fifteenth century, when it was totally extirpated under the Pontificate of Boniface IX. (Mosheim's *Ecc. Hist.* vol. iii. pp. 132, 133, 290, 292.)

APOSTOLES, some islands in the strait of Magellan, which lie at its entrance into the Pacific Ocean, close to the Cape Desendo. They are twelve in number; from which circumstance their name is given them. They are all small, barren, and desert; their shores, though they abound with good shell-fish, are very dangerous, from being rocky. Long. 75° 6' W. Lat. 52° 34' S.

APOSTROPHE, } *Ἀποστροφή*, from *αποστρέφω*,
Ἀποστροφή, } to turn away; from *στροφή*, and
Ἀποστροφική. } *στρέφω*, to turn.

A turning away from; in speech or writing a turning from the course pursued, and directing the discourse to some other person or thing.

How absurd would it appear, in our temperate and calm speakers, to make use of an *apostrophe*, like that noble one of Demosthenes, so much celebrated by Quintilian and Longinus, when justifying the unsuccessful battle of Chæronea, he breaks out, "No, my fellow-citizens, no; you have not erred. I grieve by the manner of those heroes, who fought for the same cause in the plains of Marathon and Plataea."

Hume's Essays.

Apostrophe is a sudden change in our discourse; when, without giving previous notice, we address ourselves to a person or thing different from that to which we were addressing ourselves before.

Bentley's Elements of Moral Science.

Alas! Tom! thou smilest no more, cried the corporal, looking on one side of him upon the ground, as if he *apostrophed* him in his disfigure.

Steele's Tristram Shandy.

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APOTAC-
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APPAL

APOTACTITE, or APOTACTICI, from ἀποταττω, I renounce; an ancient sect who renounced all property, and professed poverty, in imitation of the apostles.

APOTHECARY, a person who sells drugs, employed in medicine, conformable to the prescriptions of physicians, from ἀποθήκη, a repository.

The Apothecary's Company in London, obtained a charter of incorporation in the 15th of James I. For a full account of the history of this branch of the medical profession, see Beckmann. *Hist. Inv.* ii. 121.

APOTHEOSIS, from ἀπὸ and θεός, a god; a ceremony by which the ancients used to enrol their heroes and great men among the gods. For an account of the manner in which it was performed, see Herodian, lib. iv. cap. ii.

APOTOME, in Music, is a small interval remaining after a lumen is taken from a major tone, expressed by 11/12. The ancients thought that the greater one could not be divided into two equal parts, for which reason they called the first apotome, and the second *limma*. (*Nomina*.) the remainder.

APPARE. The common word now is impair, from empier, which Menage derives from the barbarous Latin, impiorare, to make worse. But to pare, to cut, to reduce or diminish by paring or cutting sufficiently, accounts for all the usages of appaire; to reduce the size or value of, to diminish it.

PAIRE. If I speak ought to *paire* her loon, i. e. to surpass her credit or reputation. *Tyrrhit.*

As a slye Herodes in such poor he com,
And up ys poor destitute and *apgyerde* Cristendom.

R. Gloucester, p. 279.

For our state it *apoyes*, without any reason,
And till alle our beires grete disherison.

R. Branne, p. 290.

per marketis & per faïres & per castels left,
Now alle þe cuntre *peries*, vntoþe could þei left.

Id. p. 296.

He had a sounne Harald, keyre of his tenement,
Engle his wife he drofte away, & held in *payment*.

Id. p. 58.

It is a sinne, and she a gret folie,
To *apoyen* any man, or him defame,
And she to bringen wiven to vntoche a name.

Chaucer. *The Miller's Prologue*, v. l. p. 124.

Lord, of thee I have great doubt;
And I you warne, withouten fail,
Mickle *apoyed* in your battail.

Richard Cœur de Lion, in *Ellis's Romances*, v. ii.

But whiche things weren to me *apynnyngis*, I have demed these *apgyenges* for crist. necheleest I gonne alle things to be *payment* for the cleve science of ihus crist my lord, for whom I made alle things *payment*, and I deme as dert, that I wyne crist.

Wiclif. *Trilogia*, c. 3.

For what profitith it to a man, if he wyenne al the world, and do *pyngye* to his soule?

Id. Mark, c. 8.

When she not that a bill sounde *apoyeth* al the gobet.

Id. l. Cerynth, c. 3.

Sith that, their hope gas fall, their hope to fall
Their post *apoye*, their goddys grace withdrew.

Surrey. *Arms*, book ii.

APPAL'. } To pale or make pale, by decay;
APPALMENT. } with fear; with dismay, therefore to decay, to droop, to wither. And
To terrify, to dismay.

See AMAZE for an example from Shakespeare.

For ofte syth I fele this
of thought, whiche in mine herte falleth,

When it is night myn hende *appallith*;
And that is for I see hir nought,
Whiche is the waker of my thought.

Geoffr. Co. A. book iv.

And gladder ought his friend ben of his deth,
Whan with honour is yoden up his begh,
Than whan his name *appallid* is for age.

Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. l. p. 120.

The answer that ye made to me, my dery,
When I did see for my poore thetes redress,
Hath so *appallid* my countenance, and my chere,
That in this case, I am all comfortlesse,
Sin I of blame no cause can well expresse.

Wyatt.

A amongst other of his famous delis, he [Erastus] recovered and quickened againe the faith of Crist, y^e in such plarie of his kyngedome was none *appallid*.

Fleiss.

It was rather an execution, then a fight upon them; inasmuch as the furious slaughter of them was a great discouragement and *appallment* to the rest.

Bacon's *King Henry VII.*

A grievous disease came upon Severens, being more *appallid* with age, so that he was constrained to keepe his chamber, and send Antonius unto the warres.

Stow's *Chronicles*.

The storme of sad confusion, that may grow
Up in the present for the coming times,
Appall not him; that hath no side at all,
But of himself, and knows the worst can fall.

Daniel's *Poems*.

—The dreadful sagittary
Appalls our members, haste we Diomed
To re-encounter, or we perish all.

Shakespeare's *Troilus and Cressida*.

Des F. Bontant of Orleans, thrice welcome to us.
Bart. Me thinks your looks are sad, your chere *appall'd*.
Hath the late overthrow wrought this offence?
Be not dismay'd, for succour is at hand.

Shakespeare's *Henry VII.* part i. fol. 58.

"But why all this of warlike? I have none."
I wish you joy, sir, of a tyrant gone!
But does no other lord sit at this hour,
As wild and mad? the warlike of power?
Does neither rage inflame, nor fear *appall*?
Not the black fear of death that seduces all?

Pope's *Horace*.

—If wearied nature sinks,
His sleep is troubled; visions of the night
Appal his spirit; starting, he forsakes
A thorny pillow; rushes on the deck
With lamentations to the midnight moon.

Glenn's *Antisland*, book i.

She came with speed in her steps, and swiftness in her eye, and said, "Give me here John the Baptist's head in a charger." This savage request *appall'd* even the unfeeling heart of Herod himself.

Parsons's *Lectures*.

The *appellid* traveller arriving at the spot, marvels it with dismay.—Return, he dare not—for he knows what a variety of terrors he has already passed.

Guilpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

And arm'd completely, as enormous Mars
Moves forth, when jarring nations, led by Jove
With fellist hatred, meet, as men'd the huge
Terror Ajax, bulwark of the Greeks;
Smiling ferocious, with impatient haste
Striding, and brandishing his many spear.
Him view'd the Greeks exulting; with *appal*
The Trojans; and with palpitating heart
Es's Hector.

Cowper's *Hind*, book vi.

APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS. See ALLEGANY MOUNTAINS.

APPARATUS, from apparo, I prepare; signifies properly any formal preparation, but is commonly appropriated to the utensils and appendages of machinery.

APPAL-
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APPARA-
TUS.

APPARATUS.

APPARATUS CHEMICAL. See *Treatise Chemistry*, Division I.

APPARENCE.

APPAREIL, *v.* Fr. Appareiller, from the Latin; APPAREL, *u.* appareare, to prepare. Junius.
APPAREILLEMENT. To prepare, to provide, to furnish, to dress, to array.

He erie was felle quante, did mak a rich galeie,
With fourecore armed knyghtes, in milk appareile dight,
Pat so rich armee was neuer sene wih sight.

R. Brune, p. 54.

He said to his country maid his nile,
And there he would her wedding apparile.

Chaucer, Legend of Good Women, fol. 209.

In vengeance taking, in werre, in bataille, and in warrestoring,
er thou beguine, I rede that thou appareille thee therio, and
do it with gret deliberation. For Tullius sayth, that longe appar-
reilling tofore the bataille, maketh short victorie.

Chaucer, Tale of Melibee, v. ii. p. 101.

And whanne sum men maken of the temple that it was apparail
with gooder stonnes, and giften he seide, &c.

Wiclif, Luk. c. xxi. p. 52.

In þe parail of a pilgrim, and in a poure flickensse
Hof seyntes hym seil, as nevere in sette of riches.

The Vision of Peires Plowman, p. 204.

The maiden is ready for to ride,
In a full rich apparellment,
Of samyte green, with mikelle pride
That wrought was in the orient.

Merie Arthur, Ellis Romance, v. l.

YORK. Tut, tut, here is a ractrely forbearance.
The truth appeares so naked on my side,
That any purblind eye may find it out.

SON. And on my side it is so well appareild,
So cleare, so shining, and so evident,
That it will glimmer through a blind-man's eye.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. part I.

Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy;
But not exprest in furie; rich, not gawdie:
For the apparell oft proclaimes the man.

Shakespeare's Hamlet.

Before the gate in gilded armour shone
Young Phyrus, like a snake, his skin new grown,
Who fed on poisonous herbs, all winter lay
Under the ground, and now reviews the day

Fresh in his new apparell, proud and young,
Rolls up his back, and brandishes his tongue,
And lifts his scaly breast against the sun.

Dennham's Essay on Virgil.

Scarcely were they gone out of the lane, when the curate began
to dread a little that he had done ill, in apparreling himself in that
wise, accounting it a very indecent thing, that a priest should
dight himself so.

Shelton's Trans. Don Quix. ed. 1652.

APPARENCE. Appareo, apparens; from ad,
APPARENCE, and pareo; from the Gr. *παρ-ω*,
APPARENCE, and pareo; to be present. See AP-
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He made Edwyn his lieutenant,
Whiche heire was apparant,
That he the lande in his absence
Shall reuile.

Id. R. book ii.

And yet of the thing y^e three require would content them: it
hath not lacked. For there hath in every country and in every
age apparances bene had, & well known and testified, by whiche
men haue had sufficient reuention and prooffe of purgatorie.

See Ties. More's Works, fol. 325.

GOLD. Heere is thy foe; arrest him, officer—
I would not spare my brother in this case,
If he should accuse me so apparently.

Comedy of Errors, act iv. sc. 1.

Again is lost this outside of a king,
Ordain'd for others' uses, not his own;
Who to the part that had him could but bring
A feeble body only, and a crown;
But yet was held to be the dearest thing
Both sides did labour for so much, to crown
Their cause with the apparance of might;
From whom, and by whom they must make their right.

Jonson's Card War, book vii.

KING. Edward Plantagenet, arise a knight,
And learn this lesson:—Draw thy sword in right.

PAIR. My gracious father, by your kingly leasse,
He drew it so apparant to the crown;
And in that quarrell, we it to the death.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. part iii.

Yes, and what some! the scene whose swelling pride
Would never yield one point of reverence,
When I the elder and apparant heir
Stood in the likelihood to possess the whole.

Sackville's Perce and Porrex, act ii. sc. 1.

That blessed word hath wrought in me a sensible abatement of
my corrupt affections; and hath produced an apparant reuention
of my mind.

By. Hall's Temptations Repelled.

Herperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon,
Rising in clouded majesty; at length
Apparant queen unveil'd her peerless light,
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

When the minds of men strongly possess'd with fear, especially
in the dark, raise up the phantasms of spectres, bog-bears, or
affrightful apparitions to them, they think them to be objects really
existing without them, and call them ghosts and spirits, whilst
they are indeed nothing but their own phantasies.

Cudworth's Intellectual System.

The heavenly bands
Drew from a sky of Jasper lighted new
to Paradise, and on a hill made halt;
A glorious apparant, had not doubt
And carnal fear that day dimm'd Adam's eye.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

In the room of the frightful spectres, there now entered a second
dance of apparitions very agreeably matched together, and made
up of very sensible phantasies.

Spectator, No. 3.

When there is no apparant cause in the sky, the water will
sometimes appear dappled with large spots of shade.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

There is something captivating in spirit and intrepidity, to which
we often yield, as to a resistless power; we can be reasonably ex-
pect the confidence of others, who too apparently distrusts himself.

Johnson's Rambler, No. 1.

In common language the word apparant, as applied
to the heir of any estate or property, signifies the el-
dest son, in contradistinction from presumptive, or
collateral heir. In Astronomy, it is an epithet applied
to things, as they appear to the eye in distinction,
from what they really are. Thus we say apparant
conjunction, distance, time, &c.

4 u 2

APPARITION.
—
APPAY.

APPARITION, a preternatural appearance of some departed spirit, angel, or other similar being. We read in Scripture of various apparitions that have been permitted or appointed by God; and several writers have attempted to demonstrate the probability of these and other like facts, from reasonings, *a priori*; by which indeed it is easy to shew (as well as from Scripture) that the supposition involves no absurdity or speculative impossibility. Dr. Henry More, and Dr. Glanvil (in his *Sacculus Triumphatus*) and Baxter in his book on the *Immortality of the Soul*, have severally endeavoured to establish the reality of apparitions, from arguments drawn from Scripture, as well as from the natural philosophy of the mind. It is however sufficiently evident, that we can never demonstrate the actual truth of the popular belief upon the subject, from abstract considerations: the issue of the question must necessarily depend on the evidence adduced to prove the matter of fact. And this can only be determined upon the testimony of several witnesses in every case, because it is well known that fever and intoxication will leave behind them, for a considerable time, a diseased imagination, under the operation of which people have supposed that they have heard voices, and seen objects, which unquestionably had no reality out of their own minds. We have ourselves witnessed a very remarkable instance of this kind, in which a person seemed always to be hearing a voice that audibly, as he thought, kept replying to his thoughts. The individual in this case was a man of strong and vigorous mind, who never allowed himself to be deceived as to the nature of the dreadful visitation under which he laboured, for many weeks; but though his reason was not overcome by his imagination, yet neither could it overcome the disease, which in this case was always produced by some act of intoxication. Mr. Nicolson detailed to the academy at Berlin, in 1799, a similar history of the effects that had been left upon him by a fever, in which for nearly two months he was perpetually haunted by the spectre of a diseased person, that remained upon his imagination for several minutes at a time, and in spite of every effort which he could make to overcome the illusion.

APPARITOR, is the messenger who serves the process of the Spiritual Court, among the Romans. Apparitors were the same with tipstafs among us; who are called *apparitores comitatus*, sheriff's officers.

Was it to go stoutly armed with a band of working officials, with clankings full of citations, and processes, to be served by a corporation of griffin-like promoters and apparitors.

Milton. Reform in England, book 1.

APPASSIONATE, used by Sir Philip Sidney; impassioned; under the sway of passion.

Seven shepherds, which were named the reasonable shepherds, joined themselves, four of them making a square, and the other two going a little wide of either side, like wings for the main battle, and the seventh man foremost, like the forlorn hope, to begin the skirmish. In like order came out the seven *appassionated* shepherds, all keeping the pace of their foot by their voice, and sundry concerted instruments they held in their arms.

Sidney's Arcadia.

APPAY', It. Appagare, pagare, from pacare; that is, punctum reddere.

Appare, satisficere, contentum reddere. Du Cange. Fr. Payer, from pacare, to appease. Menage.

To satisfy, to content, to please; pay is constantly **APPAY**. as used in Chaucer.

Mid al he was well appoyed and biledene stile mete.

R. Gloucester, p. 117.

In stode of chambers well armed,
He was thus of a beaser well apayed.
Quaver. Con. A. book 1.

Ye should have warned me, or I had gon,
That he you had an hundred frankes paid
By redy token: and beld him evil apayed,
For that I to him spake of chevance.

Chaucer. Shipman's Tale, v. li. p. 40.

For it is noble thing in fey
To have a man thus darest say
Thy prey consaile every dele
For that well comfort the right wele
And thus shall hold the well apayed
When such a frend thou hast assaid.

Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, fol. 129. c. 4.

Be gloure maneris withoute cosette, apayed with present things.
Wiclyf. Abrevis, c. 13.

We are infinitely more beholden to our pain, than to our ease; and have reason, not only to be well apayed, but to rejoice in tribulations.

Rp. Hall's Temptations Repelled.

For by one thread we may judge of the whole clew, and we will with this fever rest secure and unsifted, and you likewise remain content and apayed.

Shelton's Trans. Don Quix. ed. 1652.

Yet when at last thy tolls but ill apayed,
Shall dead thy fire, and damp thy heavenly spark,
Thou wilt be glad to seek the rural shades,
There to indolge the Muse, and Nature mark.

Thomson's Castle of Ind. can. 1.

APPEACH, } used by mid writers as we now
APPEACHMENT, }
APPEACHER, } use **APPEACH**.

As if there were two *mees* that had sworn the death of another: because they cannot bryage it alone, they imagine how they may brying him to all the shame and vexation that they can, and therupon they *appeache* him of hirey.

Sir Thomas More's Works.

Will these are wordes and farr beyond my reach,
Yet by the way receyve them well in worth;
And by the way, let never Liqueur approach
My rayling pease: for thouste my minde abhorreth
All Spanish pranks: yet must I thunder forth
His worthy praye, who held his sayth vntysed,
And esuermore to vs a friend remayned.

Gauegins's Poems, fol. 523.

For the lawe is not authore of tyrany, but the utterer and *apacher* thereof, wherof before the lawe gyves we see in manner ignorant.

Udall. Romanyngs, c. 7.

After that Themiocles (with be) was fed, the people of Athens became very stubborn and insolent: whereupon, many lewd men grew to be common *appeachers* and accusers of the noble men and chiefest citizens, and to stir up the malice and ill will of the common people against them.

North's Plutarch's Lives.

Because these meene take vs to be made, and *appeache* vs for hevenings, so meene which have nothing to do, neither with Christ, nor with the Church of God, we haue judged it should be to good purpose, and not vnpolitely, if we doe openly and frankly set foorth our faith where we stand.

Jesu's Defence of the Apologie.

Was that worth his considering, that foolish and self ending declaration of twelve cypher linkers, who were immediately *appeach'd* of treason for that outdacious declaring.

Milton's Answer to Eikon Basilike.

Since faults loseth nothing more than the light, and men love nothing more than their faults; and, therefore, what through the nature of the faults and fault of the persons, it is impossible so violent an *appeachment* should be quietly brooked.

Rp. Hall's Postscript to his Satires.

APPEACH.

This binds thee, then, to further my design;
As I am bound by thee to further thine;
Nor canst, nor dar'st thou, traitor, on the plain,
Approach my honour, or thine own maintain,
Since thou art of my council, and the friend
Whose faith I trust, and on whose care depend.
Dryden's Fals. and Artifice, book 1.

APPEAL.

APPE'AL, v. } Appello, to call to or upon, from
APPE'AL, n. } ad, and pello (cum notaret loqui.
APPE'ALABLE, } Vossius.)
APPE'ALANT, } To call upon, as judge or witness,
APPE'ALEN, } for judgment or evidence;
APPE'ALMENT, } to alter or reverse a judgment already given.

To speak to; in prayer or accusation; to accuse.

— xul any play to chaffale were idrawe,
& col man made is apeli, xul men did him unawe,
That to the bishop from erredale is apeli sold make,
& from bishop to archbishop.

Robert of Gloucester, p. 473.

S. Anselm perlor *appel* unto the courts of Rome.

R. Breace, p. 101.

That wote I well my lord (quod he),
For thy lordship *appele* I thought,
But for thy wrath in all my thought
To thy place shant myn *appele*.

Gower. Can. A. book vii.

That daie male no counsaile assaile,
The pleidour and the pleie shall faile,
The sentence of that yike daie
Male none *appele* sette in delate.

Id. B. book ii.

And he [Richard the 3d] feared there also an *appellation*, and there it was ordained that certeyn *appellours* should lay into them highe treason in open parliament.

Grafton, p. 464.

A combat was fought at Westminster in the king's presence, between Jo. Ausley, assaile, and Thomas Cstrington, esquier, whom the foresaid knight had *appealed* of treason, for selling the castle of St. Severin's, which the Lord Chandos hadde builded in the Ile of Constantine, in France; and the knight overcame the esquier.

Stow's Chronicles.

— Then agone
I do refuse you for my judge, and heere
Before you all, *appeale* unto the Pope.
To bring my whole cause fore his holynesse,
And to be judg'd by him.

Shakespeare's K. Henry VIII.

BUL First women be the record to my speech,
In the detraction of a subject's love,
Tendering the precious safetie of my prince,
And free from other misbegotten hate,
Count I *appellant* to this priority presence.

Shakespeare's K. Richard II.

As I have no judge but God above me, so I can have comfort to *appeale* to his omniscience, who doth not therefore deny my innocence, because he is pleased so far to try my patience, as he did his servant Job's.

Eikon Basilik.

The stout is chosen by the States, who with the balnes have the judging of criminal matters in last resort without *appeal*; they have also the determining of civil causes, but those are *appellable* to the Hague.

Hovell's Letters.

A combate was fought at Tottehill, 1441, between two thieves, the *appealer* and defendant; the *appealer* had the fields of the defendant within three strokes.

Stow's Chronicles.

The king said, make answer unto thine *appeale*. The carle answered, I see well that these persons have accused me of treason, shewing the *apparentments*, but truly they all lie, I was never traitour.

Stow's Chronicles.

" Long have we sought (instruct and please mankind,
With studies pale, with midnight vigils blind;
But thank'd by few, rewarded yet by none,
We have *appeal* to thy superior throne:
On wit and learning the just prize bestow,
For these is all we must expect below."

Pope's Temple of Fame.

If I should sometimes have occasion, which will be but seldom, to *appeal* to the Scriptures in the original language, it will not be to impose a new sense upon the texts which I may find it to my purpose to produce.

Horsley's Sermons.

APPEALS, (a term of law) in Ecclesiastical Suits, lie from the Archdeacon's Court to that of the Bishop; from the Consistory Court of every diocesan Bishop to that of the Archbishop of each province, or to his official in the Court of Arches; and from this court there lies an appeal to the king in Chancery, as supreme head of the church in England.

In civil cases appeals lie from the ordinary courts of justice in England, and also from the equity courts of Chancery, to the Parliament. Appeals from a court of equity differ from writs of error in these respects—that the former may be brought upon interlocutory matters; the latter upon definitive judgments only. On writs of error, the House of Lords pronounces the judgment; in appeals it gives direction to the court below to rectify its judgment.

APPEAL, in English law, also signifies a criminal prosecution at the suit of a private individual, in order to obtain the infliction of a punishment on account of the particular injury suffered, and not as in ordinary indictments, for the offence against the public. This mode of prosecution is still in force, but very little in use; and probably originated in those times when great private offences were expiated by payment of a sum of money, called a *wergild*, to the person injured. These appeals may be brought previous to any indictment; and the peculiarity of them, as applied in modern law is, that although the defendant may have been acquitted upon the indictment at the suit of the king, he may notwithstanding still be prosecuted in all those cases in which this suit can lie, under this law, at the suit of the party.

APPE'AR, v. } Appareo, from ad, and pareo;
APPE'AR, n. } from the Greek *παρ-ειν*, adesse;
APPE'ARAN, } to be near to, to be present.
APPE'ARE, } To come into sight or view;
APPE'ARE, } within perception, observation, no-
APPE'ARE, } tice; to seem, to look, to be likely.

Kindly beseen, when merry weather is aloft, *appeareth* in manners (ye of colour in biew, steadfastness in peace, betokening within and without.

Chaucer. Test of Love, fol. 306. c. 2.

Gotham in his vision the many God did *appeere*,
In sic lyke figure as that he did ere,
Vesto Mercurius like in all fashon;
Blyth colour of visage and of veyes anon,
In forme of one yongere with members fare,
Fleamad of cheere, and yallow glitterand hare.

Douglas's Eneidos, book iv. p. 119.

To whom he slope the wonted goddesse forme
Gan say *appeere*, returning in like shape
As seemed him; and gan him thus adorne:
Like unto Mercury in veyr, and loun,
With yelow bushe, and comely hymnes of youth.

Serpy.

[They] set out themselves. In the sight of the simple people in outward *appareance* of holiness, where as in the sight of God

APPEAL.

APPEAR.

APPEAR. they have an unvarnished obscurity, defiled & marked & printed with many marks of worldly lusts.

—
APPEASE.

When y^e kyng [Henry the second] was warned, both of his firste aduersarye, & of his departyng, y^e kyngge set in newe his mynde, & entended to doo some thyngs after y^e manys counsel; but how it was, it had no forward.

Fabyan, p. 276.

And in the beginning of this newe tyme, the grounde waxed barren, and all the miseries before signified by the *appearing* of the takinge steele in the dayes of Edward, now began to take place and increase upon the earth.

Grafton, v. l. p. 127.

Our greatness will *appeare*
Then most conspicuous, when great things of small,
Useful of harmful, prosperous of aduerser
We can create; and in what place so e'er
Their under evil, and work close out of pain,
Through labour and endurance.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

Psa. Here will I wash it in this morning's dew,
Which she on every little grass doth strew
In silver drops against the sun's *appeare*:
Thy holy water, and will make me cleare.

Ben. and Fletcher's Faithful Shepherdess.

That furious Scot,
(The Moody Douglas) whose well-labouring sword
Had three times slain'd th' *appearance* of the King,
Gave vaile his stomache, and did grace the shame
Of those that turn'd their lances.

Shakespeare's K. Henry IV. part ii.

That owls and ravens are ominous *appearences*, and pre-signifyinge unlucky events, as Christiana yet conceit, was also an anguished conception. Because many ravens were seen when Alexander entered Babilon, they were thought to pre-ominate his death; and because an owl *appeared* before the battle, it preaged the ruine of Craesus.

Brown's Falgar Errors.

At last, in the fulness of time, for the comfort of God's Church, there shall come forth a rod out of the seemingly-withered stock of Jesse, the father of David; and a flourishing branch, even the Messiah, shall grow out of his *appearingly-seen* and sapless root.

Sp. Hall's Paraphrase on Isaiah.

The world was fall'n into an easier way;
This age know better than to fast and pray;
Good earnest in sacred worship would *appeare*,
So to begin, as they might rest the year.

Dryden's Hind and Panther.

Behold the bright original *appear*,
All praise is faint when Carolina's near.
Thus to the nation's joy, but port's cost,
The princesse came, and my new plan was lost.

Gay's Epistles.

PORTIA. MARCUS, I know thy generous temper well;
Fling but th' *appearance* of dishonour on it,
It strait takes fire, and mounts into a blaze.

Adison's Cato, act i. sc. 1.

Gold cannot gold *appear*, until man's toil
Discovers wide the mountain's hidden ribs,
And dips the dusky ore, and breaks and grinds
Its cristy parts, and laves in limpid stream,
With oft-repeated toil, and oft in fire
The metal purifies.

Dryden's Fleece, book iii.

APPEASE, } Fr. Appaiser, from *adpacare*.
APPEASEMENT, } Menage. See **APPAY**.
APPEASER, } To satisfy, to content, to quiet,
APPEASABLE, } to calm, to assuage, to pacify, to restore to peace.

To while Sir Edward got to Gascoigne forth *appease*,
Wales to weep y^e rose, Jorh conselle of a fiese.

R. Brime, p. 245.

But father, now ye sitten here
In lout's stede, I yon beseeche,

That some example ye me teche,
Wherof I maie my selfe *appease*.

APPEASE.

—
APPEL-LANT.

For where the hyng toke displeasure, the would initiate & *appeare* his mynde, where men were out of faviour, she would bring the into his grace.

Holl. Edward the Fifth, lib. 17. c. 1.

Would he forbare at the leaste wyse to seeke vyce and re-
hearse causes of gruel before vnknewen unto the partye, whose
displeasure he would sowre and pacifye. But nowe dysp
constrayne wyse, not onelye dole in all these thynges the
contrarye, but bryngth forth to alle bwyld all thys, some such
fusties mo, as yf they were trewe were of the greatest wryght.

See Thos. More's Works, lib. 87. c. 1.

Therefore trusting on his mercy, let vs goe into his wyte,
and bys terrible, but *appeasable* sense, whiche is ready to helpe,
and not to destroye vs.

Udall. Hebrews, c. 4.

The fire not quenched, but kept in close restraint
Feddle still within, breakes forth with double flame;
Their death and myne must *pease* the angry gods.

Seneca's Pines and Paines, act iii. c. 1.

Who by repentance is not satisfied,
Is nor of heauen, nor earth; for these are pleas'd
By penitence th' Eternal's wrath's *appeas'd*.

Shakespeare's Merry Wives of Windsor.

No sooner did thy dear and only Son
Perceive thee purpos'd not to come, frail man
So strictly, but much more to play Inclind,
He to *appease* thy wrath, and end the strife
Of mercy and justice in thy fave discretd,
Regardless of the blis, wherein he sat
Second to thee, offer'd himselfe to die
For man's offence.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iii.

It seems rather probable, that these Persian Magi did, in their
Artemis, either personally evil only, as we suppose the Egyptians
to have done in Typhon; or else undervind a satanical power by
it: notwithstanding which, they might possibly sacrifice themselves
(as the Greeks did to evil demons) for its appeasement and miti-
gation.

Cudworth's Intellectual System.

We, like unskilful or warily patients, foolishly imagine, that the
only way to *appease* our desires, is to grant them the objects they
so passionately tend to.

Bosch's Occasional Reflections, sec. ii. med. 4.

Red signs were seen, and oracles severe
Were daily thunder'd in our general's ear
That by his daughter's blood we must *appease*
Diana's kindled wrath, and free the seas.

Dryden's Ovid's Met. book xii.

APPEL-LANT, n. } Appello, appellans. See **AP-**
APPEL-LANT, adj. } **PEAL.**
APPEL-LATE, } An appellant is also one who
APPELLATION, } sues upon another to combat.
APPELLATIVE, n. } A challenger.
APPEL-LATIVE, adj. } Appellation was used as ap-
APPEL-LATIVE. } peal, though now simply for
name.

In XVII. yere of kyng Richarde, certeyn gytymen of Scotlande,
entendinge to wyane honour, chalenged certeyn poyntes of
armys: but Marce was so frendelye unto the Englyshemen, that y^e
honour of y^e journey went wth thea, in somoch y^e erle mar-
shall overthrew the *appellans*, and so brayd byn, y^e in his re-
turne toward Scotlande he dyed at York, & y^e Wylliam Darrell
refusyd his *appellant*, or they had runne theyre full cours.

Fabyan, p. 538.

This sentence once given, from the which there shall be no ap-
pellation, they that be on the left hande, shal goe into curialyng
fyre, and the lust men in to curialyng lyfe.

Udall. Mathew, c. 25.

In y^e V. yere of this Charlys he called his councell of parlyament
at Paris, during y^e which the *appellacion* of y^e erle of Armonak
& other purp-wad agens prince Edward were published & rad, &
y^e answer of y^e sayd prynce typp y^e sayd *appellacions* made,
which I ourt passe for length of the matier.

Fabyan, p. 521.

APPE-
LANT.

Bull. Lords appellants, your differences shal all rest under gage,
Till we assigne of your dayes to tryall.
Shakespeare. Richard II. act iv. sc. 1.

APPE-
NAGE.

As the Pagan nations had, besides appellatives, their several proper names for God, so also had the Hebrews theirs; and such as being given by God himself was most expressive of his nature, it signifies eternal and necessary existence. The Pagans did not only signify the supreme God, by their proper names, but also frequently by the appellatives themselves, when used not for a god in general, but for The God, or God *αὐτὸς ὁ θεός*, and by way of eminency.

Cutworth's Intellectual System.

He that shall use the appellative name for God, either in the Scythian, Egyptian, or any other language, which he hath been brought up in, will not offend.

Cutworth's Intellectual System.

If it be objected to the contrary, that in Scripture he is ranked amongst the quadrupeds, it will be answered, that unicorns there are not real, but metaphorical (rendered appellatively robust in some translations); importing that strong enemies, both by water and land, shall invade Idumea, to the utter destruction thereof.

Fidler's Worthies. London.

The concern I have most at heart, is for our corporation of poets; from whom I am preparing a petition to your highness, to be subscribed with the names of one hundred thirty-six of the first rate; but whose immortal productions are never likely to reach your eyes, though each of them is now as humble and an earnest applicant for the laurel, and has huge comely volumes ready to shew, for a support to his pretensions.

Swift's Tale of a Tub. Ded.

On the death of James, earl of Derby, a. d. 1735, the male line of earl William failing, the duke of Atholi succeeded to the island as heir general by a female branch. In the mean time though the title of king had long been dimmed, the earls of Derby, as lords of Man had maintained a sort of royal authority therein; by asserting or disavowing laws, and exercising an appellate jurisdiction.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

Men must endeavour to palliate what they cannot cure. They must institute some person under the appellation of magistrates, whose peculiar office it is to punish the transgressors of equity, to punish transgressors, to correct fraud and violence, and to oblige men, however reluctant, to consult their own real and permanent interests.

Hume's Essays.

I cannot express how highly I am pleased to find, that our names are not so much the proper appellatives of men, as a kind of direction for learning herself.

Melmoth's Pliny.

APPENAGE. See APANAGE.

APPEND,

APPENDAGE,

APPENDANCE,

APPENDANT, n.

APPENDANT, adj.

APPENDENCY,

APPENDICATE,

APPENDICATION,

APPENDIX.

Append, to belong; a Fr. G.
Appendre. Skinner.
Appendo, to hang to, to weigh;
from ad, and pendo, to hang;
To hang to, to fix, fasten or
add to, to annex.

For who so will prove a testament

That is not all worth sense pound

He shall pay for the parchment

The third of the money all round

Thus the people is ransomed

They say such part to him sholdi aspend.

Chaucer. Plowman's Tale, fol. 94. c. 1.

Trevelj to take, and trevelliche to fygyte

ra þe profetion and þe pure ordre. þat apendy to knyghts

Wo so passy þat þayra. þe apostoles of knyghthod.

The Vision of Peter Plowman, p. 17.

Howe that the signes sit a rowe,

Eche after other by degre,

In substance and in properte,

The Zodiack comprehendeth

Within his circle, and it appendeth.

Gower. Con. A. book vii.

If animals do work by emanations from their bodies, upon those parts whereunto they are append'd, and are not yet observed to slute their weight; if they produce visible and real effects by in-ponderous and irresistible emanations. It may be anjunt to deny the possible efficacy of gold, in the non-omission of weight; or dependence of any ponderous particles.

Druse's Falgar Errors.

If, in this point, wherein the distance is so narrow, we could condensed to each other; all other circumstances and appendances of varying practices or opinions might, without any difficulty, be accorded.

Hull's Peace-Maker.

I find that he [William I.] gave to the church of Saint Stephen in Caen, and y^e monks there, two manors in Dorsetshire with three appendages, one manor in Devonshire, one other in Essex, many hides of land in Barkeshire, some in Norfolk, and a mansion house in Woodstrete of London, with many manors of churches.

Stow's Chronicles.

[This natural life] as it is the gift of a good God, is worthy to be esteemed precious; but as it is considered in its own transiency, and appendant miseries, and in comparison of a better life, not worthy to take up our hearts.

Rp. Hall's Christ Mystical.

The plainest truth and purity of religion is a thing that seldom plenneth and suiteth to the curiosity and appetite of men; they are always fond of something annexed or appendicated to religion, to make it pleasing to their appetite.

Mile's Contemplations.

The French tongue hath divers dialects, viz. the Picardy, that of Jersey and Guernsey, appendices one of Normandy.

Howell's Letters.

There are considerable parts and integrals and appendications unto the mundus aspectabilis, impossible to be eternal.

Hale.

The need resulting from some disposition of the body, or some part of it, or being some merely material appendage to it, must attend it, and come along with it from the parent or parents.

Wallaston's Religion of Nature.

—My trust rest,

From public notice painfully conceal'd,

Shall in thy presence have a lib'ral flour.

Thou gav'st me this protector; honour, truth,

Humility, and wisdom, like thy own,

Were his appendage.

Glenn's Aethiopia, book xvi.

All around we have beautiful views, consisting of woody fore-grounds, and of distances composed of different parts of this little estuary, and its appendant mountains.

Gilpin's Tree to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

APPENNINES, a chain of mountains in Italy, which begins near mount Apio, one of the maritime Alps in the territory of Genoa, and after running for a considerable way to the east, traverses Italy in its whole length, from north to south, dividing it into two parts, nearly equal. When near the end of their course, they separate into two branches, one of which advances to the south-east to the Capo di Leuca, in the Terra di Otranto, and the others westward to the strait of Messina, which separates Sicily from Calabria.

The great chain of the Appennines has different names in different places; in the state of Genoa it is called Monte Semola and Monte Bergana; on the confines of Nice, Monte Acuto, &c. The lesser groups of mountains connected with the Appennines have been classed by modern geologists into four divisions. The first lies between the valleys of the Arno, the Chiano, and the Tiber, and occupies the whole of the ancient Senese, with a part of St. Peter's patrimony. It receives the name of the Sub Appennino di Toscana, and consists of three distinct groups standing on the same base. The second division is called the Sub

APPE-
NAGE.—
APPEN-
NINES.

APPEN-
NINES.APPEN-
ZELL.

Appennino Romano, and has the valleys of the Salso, the Velino, and the Nera to the north, that of the Tiber to the west, and those of the Liri and the Garigliano to the south. It is of considerable length, and terminates at Capo di Gaeta. The country around Mount Vesuvius, comprising the volcanic islands of Ischia, Ponza, and others, forms the Sub Appenninus Vesuviano. Finally, Mount Gargano, which rises abruptly on the Adriatic shore the surrounding plains, has been not unfrequently denominated the Sub Appennino Della Puglia. Many of these mountains are volcanoes, either extinct or suspended, but they are in general of less elevation than the Alps, being covered with trees to their very tops. The snow and ice on the highest ridges furnish the inhabitants of Naples with a cooling draught during the violent heats of summer; and it is from one part or other of the Appennines that almost all the rivers by which Italy is watered take their rise. The Appennines gave name to a department in the ci-devant French empire, which comprised the eastern part of the territory of Genoa with the district of Bobbio, in the duchy of Parma. It contained, in 1810, 214,746 inhabitants, with Cbiavara for its capital.

APPENRADE, APINRADE, or ARENRADE, a town of Denmark, in the duchy of Schleswig, in the south of Jutland. It is situated in a bay of the Baltic, about four miles from Flisbourg, and is one of the best towns in the country. Its harbour is large and deep. Its trade and population have lately increased very rapidly. E. Long. 9° 36'. N. Lat. 55° 4'.

APPENRODE, a village of Prussia, in the principality of Halberstadt, on the frontiers of Hanover, with a church and 150 houses. It belongs to the cathedral chapter of Zili.

APPENRODE, a village of Thuringia, in the county of Hohestein, belonging to the family of Stolberg, and remarkable for a magnificent alabaster grotto in the neighbourhood.

APPENZELL, a canton in Switzerland, which is environed on all sides by that of St. Gall. The principal river by which it is watered is the Sitter. It contains no place deserving the name of a town, but there are in it eight large villages and a number of scattered hamlets. The whole is divided into twenty three parishes, nine of which belong to the inner rood, or company, having 196 square miles and 16,000 inhabitants; and twenty to the outer rood, with 260 square miles and 39,414 inhabitants. The former division is Catholic, the latter Calvinist. It was formerly subject to the abbey of St. Gall, from whose yoke, however, the inhabitants, after many struggles, succeeded in freeing themselves, and joined the Swiss confederacy in 1459; but it was not recognised as the 13th canton till 1513. Each of these roods or divisions of the canton has its own constitution and magistrates, and is entirely independent of the other. The form of government is pure democracy, the supreme power being vested in the common council, which meets annually in April, and in which all males above the age of sixteen have a right to sit and vote. At this meeting each rood chooses its own chief magistrate, who remains in office for two years. The inhabitants of the inner rood subsist chiefly by the rearing of cattle; those in the outer by the manufacture of linen, muslin, and other fine cotton stuffs

The annual expense of the administration is very trifling, not £200 sterling a year for the whole canton. The late wars have been very destructive of the prosperity of this canton, which was formerly reckoned among the most opulent of Switzerland. In regard to natural aspect, Appenzell is singularly wild and romantic, consisting of a continued series of hills and dales, valleys and mountains, the summits of which are covered with luxuriant pastures. Of the two roods, however, the outer is by far the more mountainous.

APPENZELL, the principal village in the canton just described, is seated on the river Sitter, is large, well built, and has a population of 3000. It owes its rise to a chapel built here in 647 by the abbot of St. Gall, which got the name of Abtszelle, or Abbot's Cell, metamorphosed, by an easy transition, into the present name of the town. Here are many manufactures and bleaching fields for linen. 40 miles E. of Zurich.

APPERCEIVE, } Fr. Appercevoir. Lat. Percipere. } pio; to perceive. See, To perceive. } ceive.

With so glad cheer his gages the receiver,
And cunningly everich in his deegree,
That so delictio no man apperceiveeth,
But as they wonder what she might be.

Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, v. l. p. 362.

This letter, as thou hast herde devise
Was counterfeite in such a wise,
That no man shoulde it apperceive.

Geoffr. *Can. d. book ii.*

Who could tellen you the forme of dances
So uncouth, and so freshe countenaunce,
Swilke subtil kokings and dissemblinges,
For drede of jealous menes apperceivinges?
No man but Laurence, and he is ded.

Chaucer. *The Squire's Tale*, v. l. p. 430.

Through me hath many one death receivd
That my treget never apperceived
And yet receiveth, and shall receive
That my falsnesse shal never apperceive
But who so doth, if he wile be
Him is right good beware of me
But so eigh is the apperceiving
That al to late cometh knowing.

Id. *The Runn of the Rose*, fol. 145. c. 4.

Right to the world's end, as that it were,
When apperceived had she this, she cry'd,
A though she through girl had be with a speere.

Brown's *Shepherd's Pipe*, &c. i.

This philosopher [Leibnitz] makes a distinction between perception and what he calls *apperception*. The first is common to all monads, the last proper to the higher orders, among which are human souls.

By *apperception* he understands that degree of perception which reflects, as it were, upon itself; by which we are conscious of our own existence, and conscious of our perceptions; by which we can reflect upon the operation of our own minds, and can comprehend abstract truths.

Reid's *Essays*.

APPE'RIIL. A peril. See PERIL.

Tim. Go, let him have a table by himself;
For he doth neither affect company,
Nor is he fit for's intended.

AFER. Let me stay at this apparill Timoo,
I come to observe, I give thee warning o't.

Shakespeare's *Time of Athens*.

Now, don't mistake,
I am to charge you in her majesty's name,
As you will answer it at your apparill,
That forthwith you raise here and cry in the hundred,
For all such persons as you can designe,
By the length and breadth of your office: for I tell you,
The loss is of some value; therefore look to't.

Ben Jonson's *Tale of a Tub*, act II.

APPEN-
ZELL.

APPERIL.

APPETE. The word *appetite*, in common language, often means hunger, and sometimes, figuratively, any strong desire.

APPLAUD.

Boetius's Elements of Moral Science.

The ligaments or strictures, by which the trudeans are tied down at the angles of the joints, could, by no possibility, be formed by the motion or exercise of the trudeans themselves; by any *appetency* exciting these parts into action; or by any tendency arising therefrom. *Paley's Theology.*

APPETITE. Hutcheson defines appetites to be those desires which have a previously painful or uneasy mixture, independently of any opinion of value in the object. Lord Kames defines appetites to be desires directed to general objects in contradistinction from passions, which are desires directed to particular objects.

In Medicine, the word is confined to our natural and periodical desire to eat and drink. A loss and prostration of appetite is called *anorexia*; a loathing and disrelish of food is called *nausea*. An unnatural desire of improper food is called *pica*; and an immoderate appetite is called *bulimia*, or *fames canina*.

APPEVILLE, a town of Upper Normandy, on the Rille, in the department of the Eure, arrondissement of Pont-Audemer. It has 295 houses and 1500 inhabitants. Seven leagues W. S. W. of Rouen.

APPIAN WAY, a great Roman highway, constructed by Appius Claudius, U. C. 442. It commenced at the gate Cassina, and ended at Capua. It extended originally 140 miles, but in the beginning of Augustus's reign it reached to Brundisium; that is, 238 miles further. In many parts it is still entire.

APPIAN AQUEDUCT, was also called from the same individual, and was commenced likewise during his censorship, U. C. 442. It began seven miles from Rome, and after running under ground for a considerable distance, introduced a supply of water into the very heart of the city.

APPIANO, a town of Italy, in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, six miles S. W. of Como.

APPIDAMISCHKEN, a town of Prussia, nine miles S. E. of Gumbinnen.

APPIGNANO, a town in the marquisate of Ancona, 18 miles S. S. W. of Ancona. Long. 13° 24' E. Lat. 43° 29' N.

APPIN, an extensive district of Scotland, in the county of Argyle, comprehending a parish and town of the same name, and the island of Lismore. Numerous emigrations have taken place of late years from this part of the county.

APPIINGADAM, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Groningen, with 1000 inhabitants.

APPLAUD', Applaudo, to clap at; from ad, APPLAUD'ER, } and plaudo, (of unetitled etymology), to clap or beat.
APPLAUD'ERE, }
APPLAUD'IBI. } To clap with the hands, or beat with the feet; to raise any noise or clamour, in token of approbation, or praise; and consequently to praise, to approve.

O how more sweet is zephyr's wholesome breath,

And sighs embalm'd, which new-born flowers unfold,

Than that *applause* vain honour doth bequeath!

How sweet are streams to poison drunk in gold!

Drowsiness in Elfric's Poets, v. iii.

Pas. Sweet love! sweet lies! sweet life!

Here is her hand, the agent of her heart;

Here is her oath for love, her honest's passion;

O that our fathers would *applaud* our hours,

To scale our happiness with their consents!

Two Gentlemen of Verona, act i. sc. 3.

BAUT. Another general shout!

I do believe, that these *applauses* are

For some new honours that are heap'd on Læmar.

Julius Cæsar, act i. sc. 2.

And that we are to hope better of all these supposed acts and actions, and that we shall not need that solicitude, honest perhaps, though over-timorous, of them that vex in this behalf, but shall laugh in the end at those malicious *applauders* of our differences, I have these reasons to persuade.

Milton's Areopagitica.

So having said, a while he stood, expecting
Their universal shout, and high *applause*.
To fill his ear; when, contrary, he hears
On all sides, from innumerable tongues,
A dismal universal hiss, the sound
Of public scorn.

Milton's Par. Lost, book x.

—All their books
And writings torn and trod on, and some lost,
That the poor lawyers coming to the bar,
Could say ought to the matter, but instead,
Were fain to rail and talk beside their books,
Without all order.

CLAUD. Faith, that same vein of railing became
Now most *applicable*; your best post is
He that rails *prolifer*.

Chapman's All Fools, act ii.

The brave man seeks not popular *applause*,
Nor, overpowered with arms, deserts his cause.
Unsham'd, though foil'd, he does the best he can;
Force is of brutes, but honour is of man.

Dryden's Pal. and Arcite.

The Greeks have a name in their language for this sort of people, importing, that they are *applauders* by profession; and we stigmatize them with the opprobrious title of *table-flatterers*; yet the measures alluded to, in both languages, increases every day.

Milnes's Play's Letters.

As long as mankind shall continue to bestow more liberal *applause* on their destroyers than on their benefactors, the thirst of military glory will ever be the vice of the most excellent characters.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

APPLE. A. S. *Epl. appel, eppie*. Wachter seems most worthy of attention; he conjectures that the word has reference to roundness; ab intensivo A. and bal, bol rotundus, quasi fructum, valde rotundum. The reason of this opinion is, that all the dialects call all round fruits by this name, etiamsi puma non sint. The apple of the eye, he considers to be so called from its roundness. See *APPLE*, in Wachter.

To apple, i. e. to form into a ball, is a common term in gardening.

þe þyste hým in þ's slype, þat an þry tre he syj
Stonde þerr bygydes hým, as he byhald an þry.
Upe þe heate bowe turye *apple* he syj,
And þe bowes of þe on *appel* samte oþer vante
So hard, þat he vet adoun in þe water afte laste.

R. Glouceter's, p. 233.

But Venus saide, if that she might
That *apple* of yow yefte sette,
She woulde it *seuer*more foryetne,
And saide, howe that in Grece longe
She wold byrye in to myn honde
Of all this with the fairst,
So that me thought it for the best
To hir and yefte the *apple* tho.

Gower. Con. A. book v.

TOLCHING. I was a spruce observer of formality; wore good clothes at the second hand, and paid for them quarterly. Together with my lady's my fortune fell; and of her gentleness-usher I became her *apple-squire*, to hold the door, and keep centinel at taverns.

Nabbes's Microcosmus, act v.

To satisfy the sharp desire I had
Of tasting those fair *apples*, I resolv'd
Not to defer; hunger and thirst at once,

APPLE.
—
APPLEBY.

Powerful persuaders, quicker'd at the scent
Of that alluring fruit, urg'd me no keener.
Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

After the conquest of Afric, Greece, the Lesser Asia, and Syria,
were brought into Italy all the sorts of their mules, which we in-
terpret *apples*, and might signify no more at first, but were after-
wards applied to many other foreign fruits.

Sir Wm. Temple's Works.

Cantabrig hills the purple saffron shew ;
Blue fields of flax in Lincoln's soles and blow ;
On Kent's rich plains, green hop grounds scent the gales ;
And apple-groves deck Hereford's golden vales.
Scott's Annot. Echegaray, ii.

APPLE, see PYRUS.

APPLE-BERRY, see BILLIARDIA.

In Gardening apple trees are produced in an artificial manner by ingrafting the scions or shoots of such apple trees as are valuable for their fruit, on stocks that have been raised from crabs. They flourish most when planted on strong deep loamy soils, or on such clayey ones as are not too retentive of moisture. In regard to situation Mr. Knight thinks that they succeed best in lands that are neither high nor low ; and a south eastern aspect is to be preferred. This tree requires frequent pruning, and the operation should be confined to the extremities of the bearing branch. Large branches should rarely or never be amputated.

APPLE ISLAND, a small uninhabited island of Canada, in the river St. Lawrence, on the south side of the river between Basque and Green islands. It is surrounded by rocks, which render the navigation dangerous.

APPLEBY, a town having separate jurisdiction, locally situate in the eastward, county of Westmoreland, in which are the following united parishes, viz. :—

Parish of	Value in the King's Books.	Patron.	Resident Population.	Money raised by the Poor in 1803.	Rate in the Pound.
St. Laurence, a Vic.	£. s. d. 9 5 2½	The Dean and Chapter of Carlisle	711	£. s. d. 302 16 5	
St. Michael, alias Bon- gate, a dis- charged Vic. 20 13 9		The Bishop of Carlisle	906	502 16 5	
			1619	502 16 5	

It is 270 miles N.N.W. from London. This town sends two Members to Parliament ; the Mayor is the returning officer. The Corporation consists of a Mayor, Recorder, 12 Aldermen, 9 Chamberlains, 16 Capital Burgesses, a Town Clerk, and other Officers. Here is a Free School. The Assizes in the summer circuit are holden here ; and also the General, Quarter, and Petty Sessions. " Here was a small Hospital dedicated to St. Nicholas, which was given by John de Veteripont, to the Abbey of Shapp ; this donation was confirmed by Walter, Bishop of Carlisle, upon condition they should maintain bare three lepers for ever. It was granted 36th Henry the VIIth, to Thomas Lord Wharton." *Tanner's Not. Mon.*

APPLEBY, in the north division of the Wapentake of Manley, parts of Lindsey, county of Lincoln. A discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £10. 4s. ; Patron, Sir R. Wyane, Bart., Church dedicated to St. Bartholomew. The resident population of this parish is 394. The money raised by the parish rates, in 1803, was £235. 5s. 4½d., at 3s. 1½d. in the

pound. It is 7 miles N. W. by N. from Glandford APPLEBY Bridge.

APPLEBY, partly in the hundred of Repton and Gresley, county of Derby, and partly in the hundred of Spurkenhoe, county of Leicester ; a Rectory valued in the King's books at £30. 9s. 4½d. ; Patron, E. Dawson, Esq., Church dedicated to St. Michael. The resident population of this parish is 935. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was, viz. :—

For that part which is in £. s. d. s. d.
the county of Derby..... 245 19 1 at 1 0 in the pound.

For that part which is in
the county of Leicester.... 283 0 2 at 1 0 in the pound.

£528 19 3

APPLEDERCOMBE, or APPLE-DURWELL, in the south east half hundred of east Medion Liberty, in the Isle of Wight, county of Southampton, in the parish of Goshill ; the Chapel, (which is now in ruins, and which was dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen) is valued in the King's books at £4. It is 6 miles S.S.E. from Newport.

APPLEDORE, a seaport town of England, in the county of Devon, on Burnstaple bay, at the mouth of the rivers Taw and Towridge. Here Hubba the Dane landed during the reign of Alfred, but was defeated and slain. Distant 2½ miles from Bideford, and 203 from London, W.

APPLEDRAM, in the hundred of Box and Stockbridge, rape of Chichester, county of Sussex. A Vicarage (not in charge) of the certified value of £14 ; Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Chichester ; Church dedicated to St. Mary. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 136. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £305. 1s. 0½d., at 3s. 8d. in the pound. It is 1½ miles S. W. from Chichester.

APPLEFORD, a township of England, in the county of Berks, on the banks of the Isis or Thames. Population 160. Distant five miles from Abingdon.

APPLESHAW, in the upper half of Andover, Andover division, county of Southampton ; a Chapel, (not in charge) to the Vicarage of Amport. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 245. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £336. 5s. 8d., at 6s. in the pound. It is 5½ miles N. W. by W. from Andover, and 3 miles E.S.E. from Ludgershall, in the county of Wilt.

APPLETON, in the hundred of Ock, county of Berks, in the parish of Appleton ; a Rectory valued in the King's books at £13. 5s. ; Patron, Magdalen College, Oxford ; Church dedicated to St. Laurence. The resident population of this township in 1801, (including the township of Eaton), was 341. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £163. 15s. 8½d., at 2s. 5½d. in the pound. It is 5 miles N. W. from Abingdon.

APPLETON, in Lynn division, in the hundred and half of Freethridge, county of Norfolk ; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £8. Patron, E. Panton, Esq., Church dedicated to St. Mary. It is 3½ miles N. E. from Castle Rising.

APPLETON, in the Street, or Appleton Le Street, in the Wapentake of Ryedale, North Riding of the county of York, in the parish of Appleton in the

4 x 2

APPLE-
TON.

APPOGIA-TURA.
APPOINT.
 posed to occupy any portion of time, a bar appearing complete without it; but the time which is given to this little note is subtracted from the time belonging to the note which precedes.

APPOINT, } Fr. appoinctier, appointer; from
APPOINTER, } the Lat. ad, punctum, to a point.
APPOINTMENT. } To point, or bring to a point;
 to point out, to fix or establish a point; to provide or furnish at all points.

To fix, settle, or agree upon a precise point of time or place.

To fix, settle, or establish, to provide or furnish.

Though nache an hope of lone asterte,
 Yet should he not appointe his herte
 With Jelousie, of that is wrought;
 But feigne, as though he wist it nought.

Gower. Con. A. book v.

But nacheles, betwix earnest and game;
 He at the last appointed him on,
 And let all other from his herte gon,
 And chere him of his owen autoritee,
 For love is blind all day, and may not see.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. l. p. 386.

Out of the stile by the dark night there fell
 A blinding starre, dragging a brand or flame:
 Which with much light chiding on the house top,
 In the forest of Ida hid her beames:
 The which full bright conding a furrow shone,
 By a long tract appointing vs the way.

Spenser. Amoretti, book ii.

The physicians of the bodies, haue practicyers, and puttyers
 that dose minstre they arte vnder theyn; and themselves are
 the greyners and appoynters what it is that muste be given to
 the sycke: so Chryste alone it is and none els, that hath pre-
 scrib'd the medicine of everlasting saluacion.

Uell. Pref. to Luke.

Thus havinge lost by that ship both money, his coveys mod
 tyme, he came in another shipe to Hamborough, where at his
 appoyntment M. Conscience tryed for hym, and helped hym in the
 translating of the whole five bookes of Moses.

The Life of Wm. Tyndall.

When the Danis perceyved [this toun] shulde be wonne, they
 reforted the towne, and took the towre, or castell, and defendyd it
 in so stronge manner, that they held it tyll a peace or appoyntment
 was concludedd betwene the kynges and them.

Fabyan, p. 163.

SAM. Appoint not heavenly disposition. Father,
 Nothing of all these evils hath befall'n me
 But justly; I myself have brought them on,
 Soe Author I, soe cause.

Milton. Sam. Agon.

Man hath his daily work of body or mind
 Appointed, which declares his dignity;
 And the regard of Heaven on all his ways;
 While other animals inactive range,
 And of their doings God takes no account.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

—This derives me to desire you,
 That presently you take your leave for hence;
 And rather mune then sake say I leave you,
 For my respects are better than they serve,
 And my appointments howe in them a neede,
 Greater than shewes it selfe at the first view.

Shakespeare's All's Well that Ends Well, act. ii.

God desires, that in his church, knowledge and piety, peace
 and charity, and good order should grow and flourish; to which
 purposes he hath appointed teachers to instruct, and governors to
 watch over his people.

Burrow's Sermons.

He (Rouvière) had the appointments of an Ambassador, but
 would not take the character, that he might not have a clasp, and
 mane sold in R.

Barnet's Own Times.

Low at his feet, in pomp display'd,
 The world's collected wealth was laid;
 Where bags of ammon, pil'd around,
 And chests on chests, o'erwhelm'd the ground,
 With bills, bonds, parchments, the appurtenance
 Of doweries, settlements, and jointures.

Brooks's Fables.

A foreign minister should be a most exact accountant; an ex-
 pence proportioned to his appointments, and fortune is necessary;
 but, on the other hand, debt is inevitable ruin to him.

Chesterfield's Maxims.

Appointment used to express a portion or salary, is
 a French term, and borrowed from that language only
 since a few years.

In Law the word appointment is used in contra-
 distinction to a bequest. See Black. Com. book ii.
 vol. ii. p. 376.

APPORTION, } Fr. apportionner; from the
APPORTIONNEMENT. } Lat. ad, partio, (quasi
 partio, says Vossius.) from pars, a part or share.

To part, to share; to divide into portions, to allot
 the portion, part or share.

A man cannot do all the particulars of repentance for every sin;
 but out of the general hatred of sin picks out some special in-
 stances, and appoints them to his special sin; as to acts of un-
 cleanness, he opposes acts of severity, to intemperance he opposes
 fasting.

Taylor's Doct. and Prac. of Repentance.

God having placed us in our station, he having appointed us
 to our task, we bring in transaction of our business his servants,
 we do owe to him that necessary property of good servants, with-
 out which facility cannot submit.

Burrow's Sermons.

There is not a surer evidence and criterion, by which to di-
 scern the great excellency of moderation in that book, and so the
 appointments of it (the English Liturgy), to the end to which
 it was designed, than the experience of those no contrary facts
 which it hath constantly undergone, betwixt the persecutors on
 both extremest parts.

Husmand, Pref. to View of the New Directory.

APPOSE, or } I believe, says Skinner, for op-
POSE. } pose. Junius thinks the same.

The French opposer is very differently applied. To
 oppose or object, by question or interrogation; to
 question, to examine.

What ben the two, tell on quod her?

My father this is one, that shce
 Comendeth our my mouth to close,
 And that I shulde his mouth appose
 In loun.

Gower. Conf. Am. book i. p. 27.

May I not see a lbel, sire Scomour,
 And answer ther by my procurator,
 To swiche thing as men wold appose men?

Chaucer. The Reeve's Tale, v. l. p. 289.

One of the Clerke's answered:—'Syr, he said right now, that
 this certification that came to you from Skerelery is utterly
 forged against hym; therefore, syr, appose you hym now here in
 all the points which ar certified against hym, and so we shall know
 of his owne mouthe his answers, and witness them.'

Hovell's State Trials, v. l. p. 191. Trial of Thorne for Hecceury.

Do not by very Mahometan vsmals tell they, that the same
 power, which made man, can so well remove him? And can't
 thou be other than apposed with the question of that Jew, who
 asked, whether it were more possible to make a man's body of
 water or of earth? All things are alike to an infinite power.

Hell's Satire's Fiery Devils Quenched.

I have seen her [Elizabeth], (said Inghelpham) often, when
 being yet but a babe, I came to see my father, dwelling in the
 King's Court. And often, coming from school, when I mette
 her, shee would appose mee touching my learning and lesson, and
 telling from grammar to logicke, wherein she had some know-
 ledge, would subtilly conclude an argument with me.

How's Chronicle.

APPOINT.

APPOSE.

APPO-
SITE.
—
AP-
PRAISE.

APPOSITE,
APPOSITELY,
APPOSITENESS,
APPOSITIOUS,
APPOSITIVELY.

Appono, appositum, to place
near to; from ad, and pono, to
put or place.
Put or placed near to; fitted,
adapted, suited.

The first took away my lord in the mask: 'twas apposite.
Barton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

The duty of thanksgiving seems to be a duty of a more noble
nature than even prayer itself, because it answers more appositely
and closely to the noblest end in the world; namely, the glory of
God, which certainly is a more ultimate and noble end than even
the very good of the creature.

Hale's Contemplations.

They perceived that many things might not be done without
the presence of the Kings, as well for the apposition of their seals
for the ratifying of the articles of this peace, as for the solemniza-
tion of the matrimonial.

Steu's Chronicle.

The words in the parenthesis being only appositives to the words
going immediately before.

Knight's Bull. Fr. p. 45.

The appositiveness of our Saviour's answer, in relation to the
persons who made the enquiry, is what we are next to consider.

Atterbury's Sermons.

From the mixture of English and Indian characters, [in Mr.
West's picture], and a variety of apposite appendages, the story is
not only well told; but, as every picturesque story should be told,
it is obvious at sight.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

The remaining clause being added, to use a grammatical term,
by apposition to some word preceding; or coming in as an ad-
junct, or circumstance depending on the former part, and com-
pleting the sentence.

Louth's Isaiah. *Perlinian's Dis.*

APOSTILL. Fr. apostille. It, postilla, from po-
nere; because they are placed (apposuitur) to the
text in the margin. Pono, posui, positum, posuimus,
postilla. Menage. And Cotgrave explains apostille,
an answer unto a petition (any writing) set down in
the margin thereof.

In Lord Bacon's Works, vol. iii. p. 480, are the
Heads of the Charge against Robert Earl of Somerset,
with "Apostyles of the King," in the margin.

APPRÄISE, or } Fr. apprécier, to set a price;
APPRÄISE, } from ad, and pretium, a price.
APPRÄISEMENT, or } To set, or fix a price; to rate
or estimate the value, to ap-
preciate.

The assessors were certain men appointed by them, whosoever
one had been burnt in the hand for the mark of his truth, to ap-
prise all the goods that were in the house: which they accordingly
executed with all diligent severity; not leaving so much as a
dozen of trenchers, or my children's pictures, out of their curious
inventory. Yea, they would have appraised our very wearing
clothes, had not Alderman Towley and Sheriff Rowley, to whom
I sent to require their judgment concerning the ordinance in this
point, expressed their opinion to the contrary.

Sp. Hall's Account of Himself.

By law they (the purveyors) ought to make but one appraisement
by neighbours in the country; by whose they make a second
appraisement at the court-gate.

Bacon. *Speech teaching Purveyors.*

The statute therefore granted this writ, (called an elegit, because
it is in the choice or election of the plaintiff, whether he will use
out this writ or one of the former,) by which the defendant's goods
and chattels are not sold, but only appraised; and all of them
(except cases and beasts of the plough) are delivered to the plain-
tiff, at such reasonable appraisement and price, in part of satisfaction
of his debt.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

On poems by their dictates writ,
Critics, as sworn appraisers sit,

And more upholders in a trice,
On gems and paintings set a price.

Green's Speech.

AP-
PRAISE.
—
APPRE-
HEND.

APPRECIATION, } Apprecor, apprecatum, to
APPRECIATOR, } pray to from ad, and precor, (of
uncertain etymology) to pray, to beseech.
Prayest, beseeching, (for some blessing, in opposi-
tion to deprecate, against some evil.)

The heathen Romans entered not upon any public civil business,
without a solemn appreciation of good success.

Sp. Hall's Art of Divine Meditation.

If either the blessing or the curse of a father go deeper with us,
than of any other whatsoever; although but proceeding from his
own private affections, without any warrant from above; how
forcibly shall we extenuate the (not so much appreciatory, as declara-
tory) benedictions of our spiritual Fathers, sent to us out of
Heaven!

Hall's Cases of Conscience.

APPRECIATE, } Fr. apprécier, to set a price;
APPRECIATION, } from ad, and pretium, a price.
To set or fix a price; to rate or estimate the value;
to appraise or apprise.

The holy Angels and Saints which were before the throne, set
down before the Son of God, in way of adoration of him; having
every one of them melodious instruments for the celebration
of the praise, and golden vials full of sweet incense; representing
both their acceptable thankfulness, and their general apprecia-
tions of peace and welfare to the Church of God upon the earth.

Sp. Hall's Paraphrase.

A sin, a vice, a crime, are the objects of theology, ethics, and
jurisprudence. Wherever their judgments agree, they corroborate
each other; but as often as they differ, a prudent legislator
appreciates the guilt and punishment according to the measure of
social injury.

Gibbon's Roman Empire, v. viii.

In appreciating the evidence of Christianity, the books are to be
combined with the institution.

Paley's Evidences.

APPREHEND, } Apprehendo, to take hold
APPREHENDER, } of; from ad, preh, and habeo,
APPREHENSIBLE, } (used in composition,) which
APPREHENSION, } Took derives from the A. S.
APPREHENSIVE, } hent-an, to hunt, catch,
APPREHENSIVELY, } seize,
APPREHENSIVENESS, } To take or seize, to catch,
to hold.

To take the meaning; to understand; to conceive;
to suspect; to suspect danger, to fear.

When the Duke of Exeter heard, that his complies were taken,
and his counsellors apprehended, and his friends and allies put
in execution, he lamented his own chance, and beweped the
misfortune of his friends.

Hall. *Henry the fifth*, fol. xlv. c. i.

For he knew the Pharisees sayings how that they had been a
great while about in their civilities and secret conveinies to fayne
an occasion upon the holy daye to strake and apprehend him.

Udall. *John*, c. vii.

PAR. This is that banished laughable Mountague,
That murthered my loves cousin; with which griefe,
It is supposed the faire creature died,
And here is come to do some villanous shame
To the dead bodies; I will apprehend him.
Stop thy unhallow'd teyle, vile Mountague;
Can vengeance be pursued further than death?
Condemned villain, I do apprehend thee.

Shakespeare's Rom. and Jul.

There is nothing but half a double handle; or at least we have
two hands to apprehend it.

J. Taylor. *Holy Living.*

— Can we woe obedience then
To him, or possibly his love desert?
Who turn'd us from the dust, and plac'd us here
Full to the sturmiest measure of what bliss
Human desires can seek or apprehend.

Milton's Par. Lost, book v.

APPRE-
HEND.
—
APPREN-
TICE.

Even amidst the throng of thine *apprentices*, in the heat of their violence, in the height of their malice, and thine own instant peril of death, thou breakest that unnecessary ear, which had been guilty of hearing blasphemies against thee.

H. Hail's, Christ apprehended.

The Christian's best faculty is faith; his felicity, therefore, consists in those things, which are not perceptible by sense; not fathomable by reason, but *apprehensible* by his faith, which is the evidence of things not seen.

Hail's Saint's Fiery Darts Quenched.

Qu. Behinde the arras, hearing something stir,
He whips his rapier out, and cries a rat, a rat,
And in his brainish apprehensions kills
The venereal good old man.

Shakespeare's Hamlet.

— Let me not lose (quoth hee)
After my flame laches oyle, to be the saufe
Of yonger spirits, whose *apprehension* serves
All but new things disdaine; y whose iudgements are
Merre fathers of their garments whose constancies
Expire before their foolishnes: 'twill be wish'd.

Shakespeare's All's Well that ends Well, act i.

My father and mother fancying me then beautifull, and more than ordinarily *apprehensive*, applied all their cares, and spard no cost to enproove me in my education.

McKenzie of Col. Hatchinson.

Mad and fantastical men are very *apprehensive* of all outward accidents, because their soul is inwardly empty.

Hale's Golden Remains.

The eye in children (which commonly let them rove at pleasure) is of curious observation, especially in point of discovery; for it lores or hates before we can discern the heart. It assaults or detests before the tongue; it resolves or rushes away before the feet: nay, we shall often mark in it a dulness or *apprehensiveness*, even before the understanding.

Wetton's Remains.

How can he be so moved willingly to serve God, who hath an *apprehension* of God's such merciful design to save him; of his having done so much in order thereto?

Burrow's Sermons.

Some overtures have been made, by a third hand, to the bookseller, for the author's altering those passages which he thought might require it; but it seems the bookseller will not hear on any such thing, being *apprehensive* it might spoil the sale of the book.

Swift's Tale of a Tub. Apo.

It was once proposed to *discriminate* the slaves by a particular habit; but it was justly apprehended that there might be some danger in acquainting them with their own numbers.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

To be anxiously fearful what will become of us, and discontented and perplexed under the *apprehension* of future evils, whilst we are in the hands and under the care of our Father who is in heaven, is not to act like children.

Mamus. On Self Knowledge.

It may be true perhaps, that the generosity of the negro slaves are extremely dull of *apprehension*, and slow of understanding.

Porteus, on the Civilization of Negro Slaves.

'Now from the page of Richardson bestow
On Clementina's face the lines of woe;
O let sweet Harriet's livelier beauty wear
The soul-fraught eye and *apprehensive* air.

Scott's Essay on Painting.

APPRENTICE, v.

APPRENTICE, n.

APPRENTICE, n.

APPRENTICE, n.

APPRENTICE, n.

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APPRENTICE, n.

APPRENTICE, n.

Fr. *apprenti*, a learner, from
appreindre, to learn; from the
Lat. *apprehendo*, to take hold

Estimé wren for to sing
Thine birdies, that not reckoning
Were of the craft, and a pretence
But of song subtil and wise.

Chaucer. The Remount of the Rose, fol. 119. c. 3.

Alla kyne crafty men. curven mede for here *aprentys*

Marchandise and mede. mote noles go to grederes.

The Vision of Peire Ploucman, p. 52.

BOLING. MUST I not serve a long *apprenticeship*

To foreign passages; and in the end,
Having say freeman, boast of nothing else,
But that I was a journeyman of grief!

Richard II. act i. sc. 4.

ACB. ———— Now appears the object

Of my *apprentice's* heart: thou bring'st, Spinalia,
A welcome in a farewell.

Ford's Lady's Trial, act i. sc. 1.

CON. He speaks like master *Practicer*, not that is

The child of a profession he is vowed to,
And servant to the study he hath taken,
A pure *apprentice* at law!

Ben Jonson's Magnetic Nedy, act iii. sc. 2.

Like as he were ridiculous, and worthy to be laughed at, who should say, that no man ought to lay his hand upon the sword for to row, but he that had been *prentice* to it; but not at the stern and guid the helm he may who was never taught it: even so he, who maintaineth, that in some inferior art there is required *apprentice*, but for the attaining of vertue none at all deserveth *likewise* to be mocked.

Holland's Plutarch's Morals.

JOH. GROSS (was) educated while a boy in English learning, bound an *apprentice* to a haberdasher of small wares, which trade he mostly followed, tho' free of the Drapers' Company.

Wood's Ath. Oxon.

Another species of servants are called *apprentices*, (from *ap-prende*, to learn,) and are usually bound for a term of years, by deed indented or indentures, to serve their masters, and be maintained and instructed by them.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

So much as the wildest savage is inferior to the polished citizen, who, under the protection of laws, enjoys every convenience which industry has invented; so much is this citizen himself inferior to the man of virtue, and the true philosopher, who governs his appetites, subdues his passions, and has learned, from reason, to set a just value on every pursuit and enjoyment. For there is no art and *apprenticeship* necessary for every other trade.

Hume's Essays.

APPRENTICE, APPRENTICESHIP. A young person bound by indenture to a tradesman, who upon certain covenants is to teach him his trade or mystery.

By common law no infant or person under 21 years of age can bind himself apprentice, so as to entitle his master to an action of covenant; which renders it necessary, according to the usual practice, for some of his friends to be bound for him; but by the custom of London an infant unmarried, and above fourteen years of age, may bind himself apprentice to a freeman of London, by indenture with proper covenants; which covenants by the custom of London, are as binding as if he had been full of age.

By a statute of Elizabeth it was enacted that no person who had not served an apprenticeship for seven years, or served as an apprentice, should exercise any art, mystery, or manual occupation; this section of Elizabeth's act was repealed by the 54th Geo. III. with a saving for the customs and bye-laws of the city of London, and of other cities, and of corporations legally established.

The word apprenticeship is sometimes employed to denote the contract by which an apprentice is bound, and sometimes the term of his service. The custom which the word designates appears to have been entirely unknown to the Roman law; it arose in modern times out of that system of corporations which formed so distinguishing a feature in the domestic policy of the middle ages; and became at length the general and public law of the land, both in England and else-

APPREN-
TICE.

APPRENTICE. — where, with respect to all market towns. The principle upon which it was founded, is obviously the notion that labour employed in mechanical trades requires more skill and experience than is requisite in husbandry; but the true origin of the custom would perhaps be found in the interested policy of a few individuals.

With respect to the usual duration of apprenticeships, seven years appears to have been formerly considered all over Europe as the prescriptive period, in all incorporated trades, for learning the several arts which they respectively professed. Such incorporations were called by the latin name of *universities* and thus we read in old charters of ancient towns, of the university of tailors, the university of smiths, &c. A similar principle of incorporation seems also to have been extended to the learned professions, and to learning itself. Barristers, in our old law books, are called apprentices, *apprentici ad legem*, though their novitiate extended to sixteen years, after which they might be called to the state and degree of *serjeants*, *servientes ad legem*. And in those learned incorporations which are still known by the name of Universities, the term of apprenticeship was the same as that prescribed in other arts; seven years being the period allotted for a student to become a master, and for entitling him to have scholars or "apprentices" under him. On the policy of apprenticeships, the reader may consult Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, b. i. ch. x.

APPRIZE, v. Fr. *appris*, from *apprendre*, to APPRIZE, n. learn, in teach; from the Lat. *apprehi* SAL. prehendo, to take hold of.
To learn, to teach, to inform; to give notice or information.

Between the life and death I herde
This prestes tale er I overlede
And thus I preich him for to mite
His will: and I it wolde obeie
After the forme of his apprise.

Gower. Con. A. book i.

But our this so as I dare,
With all myn herte I you beseeche,
That ye me wolde enforme and teche,
What there is more of your apprise
In lowe, as well as otherwise.
So that I maie me cleene shrine. Id. B. book v.

As we well *apprize*, that no judgment can be made of uncommon and remarkable things; much less that any new ones should be brought to light; unless the causes, and the causes of the causes of common things, are justly examined and discovered; we are necessarily obliged to receive the commonest things of all, into our history.

Bacon's *New Organon*.

To me her actions did unherded die,
Or were remark'd but with a common eye;
Till more *appriz'd* of what the rumor said,
More I observ'd peculiar in the maid.

Prior's *Solomon*, book ii.

Since then the expiation of sin by the sacrifice of Christ is a doctrine not only taught in the Gospel itself, but enforced also by him who came only to prepare the way for it; it is evident, from the care taken to *apprize* the world of it even before Christianity was promulgated, how important and essential a part this sense be of that divine religion.

Porteus's *Lectures*.

APPROACH, v. Fr. *approcher*. It. *approc-*
APPROACH, s. *iare*. Barb. Lat. *approximare*,
APPROACHABLE, from *ad*, and *proximus*, (from
APPROACHES, *prope*, *propius*, *proximissimus*,
APPROACHMENT. *proximus*, *proximus*. Vossius.)
Nearest.

To be, or come near to; to advance towards.

My heart is full of such folie,
That I my selfe must not chuse
When I the court see of Capide
Approche unto my lorde side
Oft tyme, that lusty ben and freshe,
Though it smale them not a resche.

Gower. Con. A. book ii.

What man art thou? quod he,
Then lowest, as thou without fide art here,
For ever upon the grime as ere there.

Approche thee, and like up meery.

Chaucer. *Prologue to Sir Thopas*, v. li. p. 60.

Then like the larks that put the night
In lunny sleepe with tunes apprest:
Till when shew spires the pleasant light,
Shee sends sweete notes from out his breast.
So sing I now because I thinke
How ioyes *approch*, when sorrowes shrinke.

Goswain.

The towne being thus abandoned, the French men had the more ease *approch* to the castle, who thinking to fynde quiet lodgings in those vacant houses, entered the same without any feare.

Greffius, v. li. p. 539.

Pao. Unhappy were you (madam) ere I came:
But by my conning, I have made you happy.

Sil. By thy *approach* thou hast mak't me most unhappy.
Jul. And me, when he *approcheth* to your presence.

Shakespeare's *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, act v. sc. 4.

Let us the causes of our feare condemn,
Then death at his *approach* we shall contemn.
Though to our heat of youth our age seems cold,
Yet, when resolve'st, it is more brave and hold.

Drake's *Old Age*, part iv.

Seeing each part is distinct, and hath proper bounds and limits apart, this conjunction and *approach* of the clear to that which is dark, making a semblance of high and low, do expresse and resemble the similitude of a figure, with eyes and lips.

Holland's *Plutarch's Morals*.

Let matter be divided into the subtillest parts imaginable, and these be moved as swiftly as you will, it is but a senseless and stupid being still, and makes no nearer *approach* to sense, perception, or vital energy, than it had before.

Ray, on the *Creation*.

Boyle observed him well, and soon discovered the helmet and shield of Philiris, his friend, both which he had lately with his own hands new polished and gilt; rage sparkled in his eyes, and leaving his pursuit of Wotton, he furiously rushed on against this new *approacher*.

Swift's *Battle of the Books*.

The *approach* of summer, says our Lord, is not more surely indicated by the first appearances of spring, than the final destruction of the wicked by the beginnings of vengeance on this impatient people.

Hesley's *Sermons*.

What a magnificent preparation is this for the great Founder of our religion! What an exalted idea must give us of his dignity and importance, to have a fore-runner and a harbinger such as John to proclaim his *approach* to the world, and call upon all mankind to attend to him.

Porteus's *Lectures*.

He that regards the welfare of others, should make his virtue *approachable*, that it may be loved and copied; and he that considers the wants which every man feels, or will feel, of external assistance, must rather wish to be surrounded by those that love him, than by those that admire his excellencies, or solicit his favours.

Johnson's *Hamlet*, No. 72.

APPROBATE, v. } Approbo, to approve; from
APPROBATION, } ad, and proba, which Tooke
APPROBATORY. } derives from the A. S. *prof-an*,
to prove, to try. See *APPRAVE*.

To try, to examine, fully, satisfactorily; to be satisfied with; to think or judge favourably of, to commend, to maintain.

AP-
PROACH
—
APPRO-
BATE

APPRO-
BATH.
APPRO-
PRE.

The cause of this battail, every man did allowe and *approbate*,
and to the attynges fourth of the same, promoyed their iudicarie,
labour, and all that they could make.

Hell. Henry VII. fol. 23. c. 1.

The very Jewe in dede is he, whose conscience is poured from
synne, and hath wholly given hymselfe to Christe: which man
albeit among men he bee defended of his prayre, yet dorth God
acknowledge and *approve* him, whose *approbation* is perfitte blasse
and saluacion.

Udall. Rome. c. 2.

Or [would you] hold on your way with a good chere & a glad
heart, thinking your selfe muche honored by the lawde & *approba-
tion* of that other honorable sort.

Sir Tho. More's Works, fol. 1252. c. 1.

And further our sayd father beside his letters patentes sealed
under his grete seale shall make or cause to be made letters
approbatory and commendacions of the piers of his realm and of the
lordes, citizens and burgesons of the same under his obedien-
ce, all which articles we have sworn to kepe upon the holy
Evangelistes.

Hell. Henry F. fol. 72. c. 2.

CLA. I pre'thee (Lucio) use this little service:

This day my sister should the *cloyster enter*,

And there receive her *approbation*.

Acquaint her with the danger of my state,

Implore her, in my voice, that she make friends

To the strict discipline.

Shakespeare's Mea. for Mea. act i. sc. 3.

Sir TONY. As thou draw'st, 'twere horrible, for it comes to
pass off, that a terrible oath, with a *swearing* scent sharply
twang'd off, gives manhood more *approbation* then ever *prode*
lascivie would have earn'd him.

Twelfth Night, act iii. sc. 4.

He that appoints the means, thereby declares his choice and
approbation of the end.

Clarke's Sermons.

I am very sensible how much nobler it is to place the reward of
virtue in the silent *approbation* of one's own breast, than in the
applause of the world.

Melmoth's Pilgr's Letters.

APPROMPT, v. Ad, and promptus, from promptu,
to bring out; to bring or draw out; to make ready
for use.

Neither may these *pleas* serve only to *approve* our invention,
but also to direct our inquiry.

Bacon, on Learning, book ii.

APPROPINQUATION, } Appropinquo, to ap-
APPROPINQUE, } proach; ad and propin-
quis, from prope near. See APPROACH.
Appropinquo is Hudibrastick.

There are many ways of our *approbation* to God. This
people, saith God, draw nigh me with their lips, but their hearts
are far from me. This is an approach, that God cannot abide.

Hp. Hell's Sermons.

To which he answer'd, " Cruel Fate
Tells me thy counsel comes too late;
The clotied blood within my bowe,
That from my wounded body flows,
With mortal crinia doth portend
My days to *approprate* an end.
I am for action now swift,
Either of fortune or wit."

Butler's Hudibras, part i. c. 3.

APPROPRE,

APPROPRIABLE,

APPROPRIATE, v.

APPROPRIATE, adj.

APPROPRIATE, n.

APPROPRIATELY,

APPROPRIATION.

Ad, and proprius; which
Vossius thinks is from prope,
near; for all usually endea-
vour to be near to those things
which they possess, which are
their own.

To belong properly, particu-
larly, exclusively to; to allot or assign to its pro-
per or to any particular purpose, person, or thing.

VOL. XVII.

Wherof *toucheth* this partie
Is rhetoric the science
Appropiate to the reverence
Of words that bee reasonable.

Gower. Con. A. book vii.

Utre may be an heir to old richesse,
But there may no man, all men may see,
Nigher his heir his vertuous noblesse,
That is *approprate* unto no degree.

Scogan in Chaucers, v. l.

And all the ornaments that Nabuchodonosor caried away from
Jerusalem unto Babylon, and *appropriated* unto his awne temple:
these brought Cyr^s forth agayne, and deliuered them to Zerobabel.

Bible, 1539. Esdras, book iii. c. 6.

Now doth the scripture ascribe both fayth & works not to vs,
but to God only, to whom they belong onely, and to whō they are
appropriate, whose gifts they are, and the proper worke of his
spirit.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndal, fol. 66. c. 1.

Among many other things in this king [Henry the Second]
memorable, this is one to be noted (follow it who can) that he
reignyng, XXXV. yeres, & having so many warres with his ene-
mies, yet he neuer put any tribute, impost, or tax upon his sub-
jects, nor yet upon the spirituality, first frutes, or *appropriation*
of benefices, beyke they were not then knowne, but sure it is,
they were not used.

Grafton, v. l.

If any one shall look upon this [five] as a stable chamber, and
fully *appropriate* unto trees, as bodens of rest and station, he hath
herein a great foundation in nature, who observing such variety in
legges and motive organs of animals, as two, four, six, eight,
twelve, fourteen, and more, both passed over five and ten, and
assigned them unto none, or very few.

Brown's Garden of Cyrus.

FEM. ———— If you can neglect

Your own *appropriements*, but praiseth that

In others, wherein you excel yourself,

You shall be much belov'd there.

Pord's Love's Sacrifice, act i. sc. 1.

The Spartans to their highest magnitude

The name of Elder did *appropriate*;

Therefore his fame for ever shall remain,

How gallantly Tarentum he did gain,

With vigilant conduct.

Denham's Old Agr, part i.

We ought, by the powerful operation of this grace to our hearts,
to find so heavenly an *appropriation* of Christ to our souls, as that
every believer may truly say, " I am one with Christ. Christ is
one with me."

Hp. Hall's Christ Mystical.

NEX. First there is the Neoplatonist prince.

Pon. I that's a colt indeede, for he doth nothing but talke of
his horse, and bee makes it a great *appropriation* to his owne good
parts that he can shoo him himselfe.

Shakespeare's Merchant of Venice, act i.

Not only a simple heterodox, but a very hard paradox, it will
seem, and of great absurdity unto obstinate ears, if we say attraction
is unjustly *appropriated* unto the loadstone, and that perhaps
we speak not properly, when we say vulgarly and *appropriately* the
loadstone draweth iron; and yet herein we should not want experi-
ment and great authority.

Brown's Falgar Errors.

In its strict and *appropriate* meaning, especially as applied to
our Saviour's parables, it signifies a short narrative of some event
or fact, real or fictitious, in which a continued comparison is car-
ried on between sensible and spiritual objects; and under this
similitude some important doctrine, moral or religious, is con-
veyed and enforced.

Parson's Lectures.

Those circumstances of the description which are properly charac-
teristic are evidently *appropriate* to some particular thing, —
not common to any and to all.

Horsley's Sermons.

A virgin shall conceive, and bear a son, in a prophesy as *appro-
priate* to Christ's birth as words can make it.

Gilpie's Sermons.

4 Y

APPRO-
PRE.

APPRO-
FRE.
—
APPROVE.

APPROPRIATION, in Law, denotes the annexing of an ecclesiastical benefice to the perpetual use of some religious house or chapter; in the same way as impropriation is the annexing of a benefice to a lay person or corporation. At the dissolution of monasteries the appropriations of the several parsonages which belonged to religious foundations of one sort or another, amounted to more than one third of all the parishes of England, which by a special act of parliament were all given to the king; and from these particular benefices have sprung all the lay impropriations now in England. See *Blackstone*, vol. i. p. 384. "It is computed that there are in England 3845 lay impropriations.

APPROVE,

APPROVEDLY,

APPROVABLE,

APPROVAL,

APPROVANCE,

APPROVEMENT,

APPROVER,

APPROOF.

And by this same reason shall ye eleven to your council your friends that be of age, scribe as I have said and be expert in many things, and be approved in councilmen.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. ii. p. 88.

I would not that any man should admit my word or learning, except they will stand with the Scripture, and be approved thereby.

J. Fryth, fol. 3. c. i.

That told him all the secret that they knew,
For his acquaintance was not come of new;
They were his approvers privily.

Chaucer. The Friar's Tale, v. i. p. 279.

For if I forget any thing, for your sakes forgive
I it, as Jesus Christ is my witness and approver.

Udall. 2 Corin. v. ii.

Hof. By heaven I cannot flatter I defy
The Tongues of Soothers. But a Braver place
In my heart's house, hath no man than your Selfe.
Nay, take me to my word; approve me Lord.

Henry IV. part i. act iv. sc. i.

Laf. But I hope your lordship thinks not him a soldier.
Bez. Yes my lord, and of very valiant approve.

Alf's Well that Ends Well, act ii.

As I gave your majesty fore-knowledge of my intention to enter into the church, and had your gracious approvement therein, so I hold it a second duty to your majesty, and satisfaction to myself, to inform you likewise by mine own hand, both how far I have proceeded, and upon what motives.

Watson's Remains.

Mine eyes and ears can witness, with what *approve* and applause divers of the Catholic royal, as they are termed, entertained the new translated Liturgy of our Church.

By. Hall's Censure of Tract.

To justify a person sometime denoth to approve him, or esteem him just, a mental judgment, as it were, being passed upon him.

Brown's Sermons.

When past all offerings to Ferretion Jove,
He Mars depost'd and arms to govern made yield;
Successful councils did him soon approve
As fit for close intrigues as open field.

Dryden's Death of Oliver Cromwell.

"Why hast thou, Satan, broke the bonds prescribed
To thy transgressions, and disannul'd the charge
Of others, who approve not to transgress
By thy example, but have power and right
To question thy hold entrance on this place."

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

A testimony is of small validity if deduced from men out of

their own profession; so if Lactantius affirm the figure of the earth is plain, or Austin himself deny there are Antipodes; though venerable fathers of the church, and ever to be honoured, yet will not their authorities prove sufficient to ground a belief thereon. Whereas, notwithstanding solid reason or confirmed experience of any man, is very *approvable* in what profession secret.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Writing my public letters to two famously learned bishops, Bishop Morton and Bishop Downham; and to two eminent and apparently orthodox doctors, Dr. Prideaux and Dr. Primrose, pastor of the French Church.

By. Hall's Letter of Apology.

There is besides in each [province of China] a superintendent, sent more immediately from court, to inspect the course of affairs: a censor of justice and manners, without whose approval no capital sentences are to be executed.

St. Wm. Temple's Works.

On the 14th of March, 1659, he [John Row] was appointed by act of parliament one of the approvers of ministers, according to the Presbyterian way.

Wood's Ath. Oxon.

To take a view of the nature and consequences of things or actions, before we reject or approve them, will prevent much false judgment and bad conduct.

Mason, on Self Knowledge.

It is lawful, in short, as our Saviour expresses it, to do well on the sabbath-day; to preserve ourselves, and to benefit our fellow-creatures. Thus far then we may go, but no further. In other respects, the rest of the Lord's day is to be observed; and those very exceptions which our Saviour makes, are a proof, that in every other case he approves and sanctions the duty of resting on the sabbath-day.

Piercy's Lectures.

Godden, forgive—my heart, surpris'd, o'erflows
With kind fondness for the hand you bless.

As parents to a child conscious of his
appearance, the celestial brightness smiled.

Thomas's Liberty, part iv.

But there is another species of confession, which we read much of in our ancient books, of a far more complicated kind, which is called *approvement*. And that is, when a person, indicted of treason or felony, and arraigned for the same, doth confess the fact before plea pleading; and appeals or accuses others, his accomplices, in the same crime, in order to obtain his pardon. In this case he is called an *approver* or *prover*, and the party appealed or accused is called the *appellee*. Such *approvement* can only be in capital offences.

Blackstone's Commentaries.

APPROVER in Law, is one that confesses felony committed by himself.

APPROXIMATE, *adj.*

APPROXIMATION, *adj.*

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APPROVE.
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APPROXIMATE.

APPROXI- a quantity sought, in cases where there is no possibility of even arriving at it exactly. See *Treatise ALGEBRA*.

APRON.

APPU'USE. Ad, petin, pulsus; to beat or dash; a beating or dashing against.

Enquire whether the tides in the new and full moon, and in the equinoxes prove high and large in different parts of the world at once; not understanding by cure, the same hour; for the hours differ according to the apices of the waters to the shores; but on the same day.

Bacon's Physical Essays.

(D and T) are commonly framed, by an *apalae* or collision of the top of the tongue against the teeth or upper gums.

Wilkins, on Real Character, p. 369.

APODERUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera, family Curculionites of Latreille.

Generic character. Head with a distinct neck; tibiae having a strong hook at the joints; antennae terminating in a club formed of three articulations; body ovate, abdomen quadrate, rounded behind; labium corneus, quadrate, the middle of the upper margin emarginate, obtusely unidentate.

The larva of *A. Coryli* feeds on the Hazel, the leaves of which it rolls up in a cylinder, closed at both ends for its protection.

APRICOT, see PECTUS.

In Gardening, apricot is a general name applied to a fruit tree of the plum kind. It is supposed to have come originally from Armenia, and was introduced into this country, according to Mr. Forsyth, in 1562.

The selection of Apricots which the writer recommends for a small garden, are the masculine, the Roman, the orange, the Breda, and the Moor Park; of these the Breda is the best standard.

APRIL, the fourth month of the year, from *aperio*, I open; because the spring opens with this month.

Candidus sarrasit aperit eum cornibus aksam Taurus.

Virg. Georg. l. ver. 217.

A PRIORI, in Logic, is opposed to a *posteriori*; to reason *a priori* is to reason from causes to effects; to argue from effects to causes, is an argument *a posteriori*. In pure mathematics we have examples of the former kind of reasoning; in experimental science, of the last.

APRON. } Of unsettled etymology. Minshew, *ΑΠΡΟΝΟ*, } proposes, afore one. Skinner, A. S. afore; afore.

Mr. Boucher thinks it "may perhaps be derived from *nappe*, whence our word *nappy*."

And the eyes of the both were opened, and they sowed figg leaves together, & made themselves aprons.

Bible, 1539. Genesis, c. 3.

And sees get a grain *apron*,
And waistcoat o' London brown;
And won't be so will be vaporing
Quaintly as gang to the town.

Percy's Reliques, v. iii.

Men, ——— You have made good works,
You, and your *apron-men*, you, that stood so much
Upon the voice of occupation, and
The breath of Gutta-serena.

Covidenus, act iv.

When he hath found out a fig-leaved *apron* that he could put on, or a cover for his eyes, that he may not see his own deformity, then he fortifies his error with irresolution and inconsideration; and he believes it because he will.

Taylor's Sermons.

Mr. Gal. Ha, ha, 'tis such a wisp: it does me good now to have let ting Mr. Little ropes!
Mrs. Gal. Now be, how you vex me! I cannot abide these apron husbands; such coxcombs.

Middleton's Boaring Girl.

Fortune in men has some small difference made,
One flouts in rage, one flutters in brocade;
The culbert *apron's*, and the parson gown'd,
The friar hooded, and the monarch crown'd.

Pope's Essay on Man, ep. iv.

APSIS, from *αψις*, connexion, in Astronomy, is the name given to those two points in a planet's orbit, which are at the greatest and the least distance from the sun and earth. The higher apsis is that which is nearest the sun or earth, and is the same as the perihelion, or perigee. The lower apsis is that which is farthest from the sun or earth, and is synonymous, with the aphelion or apogee. The line which joins the two apsides is called the line of the apsides.

APT, v.

APT, adj. } Apto, (Greek *απτω*), to bend, to join.
APTITUDE, } Aptus is dicitur qui convenienter alicui
APTLY, } junctus est. To join, fit, or suit;
APTNESS, } prepare, to be ready, quick, dexterous.
APTISE.

Brittle brittle, that nature made so frail,
Whereof the gift is small and short the season;
Flourishing to day, to morrow apt to fail.

Surrey.

Who would bear a sword which neither to kille nor to smite is nothing apt.

The Exposition of Dani-1 by Jope

Render it with a pure and a charitable heart, and with a single eye void of almslike partialities of affection or of enmity. And thus shall reap therein such edifying, as may be mete for thy state of knowledge and aptitude, what evert it be.

Chast. Pref. to the Reader, v. i.

And indeed as Christian prince there is, to whom the wisdom, protection, and publishing of any such bookes or treatises as concerne the pure setting forth of Christe and his gospell dooth so aptly or so duely upertaine, as to your mooste excellent Maiestee.

Id. Pref. to the Kynges Maieste.

But in my former parte there is a forwardness to sinne, & a certaine aptnes therunto, by means whereof it cometh to passe, that though we would well and gently, yet doe we the contrary.

Id. Rom. v. ii.

Neither doe we doubt most gracious Ladie, but that as the providence of God hath furnished and apted your grace to be a wourthe & mete spouse for such a houseband, so hath it by a speciall election deputed and preserved the same to some high and notable benefite of the common weale, and to be an instrument of his glorie.

Id. Pref. to Luk.

My father would have me learne Latine, and I was so apt that I outstript my brothers who were at schoole, although my father's chapsaine that was my tutor, was a pittifull dull fellow.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

Extol not riches then, the tale of fools,
The wise man's cumber; if not more; more apt
To slacken virtue, and abate her edge,
Than prompt her to do aught may merit praise.

Milton's Par. Reg. book ii.

Love was the son of Loneliness, begot in Paradise by that so-cial and helpful *aptitude* which God implanted between man and woman toward each other.

Milton's Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

POET. When we for recompence have paid the wild,
It stains the glory in that happy verse,
Which aptly sings the good.

Shakespeare's Times of Athens.

Where the mind and person please *apty*, there some unaccountable of the body's delight may be better born with, than when

APT.—
APTENO-
DYTES.

the mind hangs off in an unbecoming disproportion, though the body be as it ought.

Milton's Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

Vot. Hath bio; is it ended? Our state thinks not so; they are in a most warlike preparation, and hope to come upon them, in the heat of their divisions.

Row. The maine blase of it is past, but a small thinge would make it flame againe. For the nobles receive so to heart, the banishment of that worthy Coriolanus, that they are in a ripe aptness, to take all power from the people, and to plucke from them their tribunes for ever.

Shakespeare's Coriolanus, act iv.

This sort of flattery is therefore never dangerous, because it makes the temptation ready for mischief, apted and dressed with proper, material, and imitable circumstances.

J. Taylor's Sermons.

I do beseech yee, if you heare me heard,
Now, whilst your purpled hands do reeke and smoke,
Faditt your pleasures. Lave a thousand yeeres,
I shall not find myselfe so apt to die.

Shakespeare's Julius Cæsar, act iii.

GHOST. I finde thee apt,
And duller shouldst it thou be than the fat weeds
That rot it selfe in earre, on Lethe Wharfe,
Wouldst thou not sturre in this.

Shakespeare's Hamlet, act i. sc. 3.

It is true, that if the affection or aptness of the children be extraordinary, then it is good not to cross it.

Brown's Essay on Parents and Children.

Man is born with a faculty or capacity to know, though as yet without any actual knowledge; and the eye has a native disposition and aptitude to perceive the light, when fully offered, though as yet it never exercised any act of vision, and had no innate images in the womb.

Blackmore's Creation. Pref.

Observations are neither to be made justly by ourselves, nor to be rightly chosen out of those made by others, nor to be aptly applied, without the assistance of reason.

Wolston's Religion of Nature.

A rock is the most apt image that the material world affords of pure unadulterated truth.

Horsley's Sermons.

APT, a town in Upper Provençe, situated on the river Calavon, and now the capital of an arrondissement in the department of the Vaucluse. In the time of the Romans it was a place of considerable note, and it still contains a number of Roman antiquities. Here are considerable manufactures of woollen cloth and wax candles; and a trade is carried on in wine and fruit, particularly plums. Population by the last returns 4621. The arrondissement comprises the eastern part of the department, and has about 48,500 inhabitants. Ten leagues N. of Aix, and 104 E. of Avignon. Lon. 5° 28' E. Lat. 43° 50' N.

APTENODYTES, from a priv, *σπρος*, winged, *όρυς*, orinator. Forster Gmel. Cuv. Pinguin or Pinguin, Pen. Lath. In Zoology, a genus belonging to the Family Brachypteres; order Palmipedes; class Aves.

Generic character: bill strong, straight, more or less bending towards the point; wings very small, appearing at first as if covered with scales, but really with compact short thick feathers, having broad shafts pedulous and unfit for flight; legs short and thick, placed further behind than in any other bird, throwing the weight on the tarsus, which is very large like the sole of the foot of a quadruped, and containing three bones to which the anterior toes are connected, which are webbed; there is a loose toe behind.

"This genus of birds," says Dr. Latham, "seems to hold the same place in the southern parts of the

world as the hawks do in the northern, and are by no means to be confounded one with the other, however authors may differ in opinion in this respect. The Penguin is seen only in the temperate and frigid zones on that side of the equator which it frequents; and the same is observed of the hawk in the opposite latitudes; and neither of the genera has yet been observed within the tropics."

The anterior extremities of the penguin can hardly be called wings; they are neither adapted for flight nor are they intended for it, being solely employed by the bird in "rowing itself along with its finny wings as with oars," whilst the head and neck only appear out of the water, in which respect it differs from all other birds which swim on the surface. The feathers of these birds are very close, so that the wet cannot penetrate, and they are generally extremely fat, whence the name given to them by the Dutch, *Peagomius*, from *pinguis* fat, and since employed as a generic term by Pennant and Latham. It lives much at sea and has been found as far as seven hundred leagues from land; it rarely comes on shore but to lay its eggs, and gets to its nest with difficulty by crawling on its belly. For further particulars respecting their structure and classification, see COMPARATIVE ANATOMY and ZOOLOGY.

They have been divided by Cuvier into three subgenera from the form of the beak.

A. Aptenodytes, Cuv. the true Penguins.

Beak slender, long, pointed; the upper mandible slightly arched towards the tip, covered with feathers about one third of its length where the nostril is placed, and from which a furrow extends to the tip.

A. *Patagonicus*, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. le grand Manchot Buff. Patagonian Pinguin Pen. Is the largest species known, measuring four feet three inches in length, and standing three feet high; the wings hazel; the head, throat, and back of the neck brown; the back ash-coloured, the under parts quite white; on each side of the neck is a broad stripe of yellow, begiasing from behind and under the eye, and extending down the neck, growing paler till it is blended with the white on the breast; this however is only seen when the neck is extended, for as the bird generally sits with the head shrugged between the shoulders, it appears only as a thin necklace. It lives in large flocks in the neighbourhood of the Straits of Magellan, as far as New Guinea, and feeds on fish, crabs, shellfish, &c.

β. *Cetarrhæctes*, Briss. Cuv. The Hopping Penguin.

Beak strong, slightly compressed, pointed, rounded above, the point a little bent; the furrow which extends from the nostril, terminates obliquely just above the edge of the beak.

A. *Chrysorræus*, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. Manchot. Santem. Boff. Hopping Penguin, Boug. Crested Penguin, Lath. As large as a drake, black above, white below; over each eye a stripe of pale yellow feathers, lengthening into a crest on the occiput, which can be erected at will; the bill is three inches long, and red with a dark furrow on either side; insides of a dull red. They inhabit the Falkland Isles, Van Diemaa's Laad, and New Holland; are called Hopping Penguins or Jumping Jacks, from their leaping quite out of the water for three or four feet on

APTENO-
DYTES.

APTENG-DYTES. meeting with the slightest obstacle, and frequently without any cause, appearing to advance in that manner. They are very stupid birds, and will stand on shore till knocked down with a stick or taken by hand, as is related in Cook's Voyages.

To these may be added—

A. Cotarrhætes, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. *Phaeton demersus* Lin. le Gorfon. Bris. red footed Penguin, Edw. Lath.

A. Pappu, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. le Manchot pappu Son. Papuan Penguin, Lath.

A. Torquata, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. le Manchot à collier de la Nouv. Guinée Son. Collared Penguin, Lath.

A. Minor, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. Small Penguin, Cook. Little Penguin, Lath. About the size of a teal; length fifteen inches.

Spheniscus, Bris. Cuv. The wedgebeaked Penguins. Beak compressed, straight, irregularly furrowed at the base; the tip of the upper mandible hooked, of the lower truncated; the nostrils in the middle and uncovered.

A. Demersa, Forst. Gmel. Cuv. *Diomedes demersa*, Lin. le Manchot, Bris. Cape Penguin, Lath. Size of a large duck; black above, white below; the beak brown, crossed with a transverse yellowish band near the tip; the male has besides a white patch over the eye, a black line extending down the breast and along both sides. This is found in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope, and is an excellent swimmer, but hop and flutter strangely on land, and if hunted, tumble perpetually, and frequently run some distance, like a quadruped, making use of the wings instead of the legs till they can recover their upright posture, crying out like a gosse, but more hoarsely. See Forster's paper in the *Commentationes Societatis Regiæ Scientiarum Göttingensis*, vol. iii. Brisson *Ornithologie*. Latham's *General Synopsis of Birds*. Pennant's *Genera of Birds*. Cuvier *Règne Animal*.

APTEROGYNA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Hymenoptera, family Mutillidae.

The antennæ are setaceous, in the male nearly the length of the body; in the female a little shorter.—Mandibulæ: arched, without teeth.—Maxillary palpi long.—The other characters similar to those of the genus Mutilla. *Apterogyna Olivieri*, a native of Arabia.

APTUCHI FANUM, (Ptol. iv. 4.) a place on the coast of Africa in the Cyrenæa Pentapolis, between Ptolemais and Cyrene; probably the Aptungis of St. Augustin. (Epist. 86, 161.)

APULIA, or **PUGLIA**, the common name for the country comprised in the three Neapolitan provinces of Bari, Otranto, and Capitanata, which extend along the western shore of the Adriatic. That part of Capitanata which lies between the rivers Ofanto and Fortore is sometimes denominated Puglia Proper. It has a level, and in some parts a sandy soil, with little water. It abounds, however, in gardens and orchards, vineyards and olive plantations. But the great wealth of the country lies in its pastures, those belonging to the crown being so very extensive as to feed above a million of sheep. Flocks of these animals are driven hither for fattening from various parts of Italy, in particular from Abruzzo, and are subject to an impost on entering the province, at Foggia. The Apulian wool is much esteemed, and is exported to Venice, Switzerland, and Germany.

APURE, a large river of South America, in New Granada, which has its rise in one of the ridges that diverge from the eastern chain of the Andes, and penetrate the Caracacas in a north-east direction to the Atlantic ocean. The mountains in which it has its source are in the neighbourhood of St. Christopher, a dependency of the province of Santa Fe. The length of this river is 170 leagues, of which 40 are from north-east to south-east, and the remainder from west to east. It then takes its course to the south, to join the Orinoco; and in its course the volume of its waters is increased by a number of other rivers, of which some are navigable, and the more useful, because, after having irrigated a great part of Venezuela, they serve for the conveyance of the produce which springs from the luxuriance thus afforded to the soil. These rivers are the Tinaco, San Carlos, Cojeda, Aguahabana, Acarigua, Areyarua, Hospiría, Abaria, Portuguesa, Guannure, Tucupido, Bocono, Masparro, La Yuca, St. Domingo, Tisnados, &c. These successively conformed their waters in the immense plains of Venezuela. Almost the whole of them are united above Santiago, and form a considerable volume of water, which, at 12 leagues below that place, throws itself into the Apure, at the distance of 20 leagues to the north of the Orinoco. This quantity of water being too much for the bed of the Apure to contain, is forced into a division of many branches, and so falls by several mouths into the Orinoco. Its rush is so violent that the Orinoco, although it be a league in width, resigns its current entirely to the influence of the waters of the Apure for upwards of a league. The shock of the two streams is so violent, that it occasions a great agitation in the middle of the river; and such dreadful eddies and whirlpools are formed, that even the crafty and dexterous Indian has been known to shudder at them. The Apure runs for the space of three leagues more, amicably with the Orinoco, though its waters are still distinguishable from their bright and crystal appearance, until they become at length confounded with the dark stream of the Orinoco. Upon the banks of the Apure, and its tributary streams, there are numerous commons, the animals of which are very much esteemed. They are composed of bees, horses, and mules, but principally of the last. Their exportation is naturally by Guiana, on account of the advantage afforded by the pastures in that route to the very mouth of the Orinoco. All that portion of Venezuela, which at the present day forms the new province of Varinas, and all the southern part of the province of Venezuela itself, are induced, by the easy means of conveyance afforded by the river, to send their coffee, cotton, and indigo, to Guiana, instead of carrying them on the backs of mules to Caracas or to Porto Cabello, and travelling 100 leagues in a country almost impassable, and inundated by rivers that continually overflow their banks. See Humboldt's *Personal Narrative*, vol. iii.

APURIMAC, a large river, which rises in the province of Abancay, in Peru. It afterwards pursues a northerly course, passing through Cuzco, and after running 120 leagues through the mountains of the Andes, it enters the Amazons under the name of the Ucayali, in such an augmented stream, that it is not easy to say which is the tributary one. It traverses the high road which leads from Lima to Cuzco, and

APURE
APURIMAC

APUR-
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AQUA-
PIM.

other provinces of the same ridge. It is crossed by a bridge made of thongs or cords of 80 yards long, and 3 wide, at which there is paid a toll for all goods passing.

APUS, or BIRD OF PARADISE, the name of a constellation, consisting of 12 stars, in the southern hemisphere.

APUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class Crustacean, order Entomostraca, family Aspidota.

Generic character. Body soft. Shell crustaceous membranaceous, orbiculo-ovate, deeply emarginate behind; back carinated except the anterior part. Eyes two, inserted at the anterior middle part of the back, somewhat prominent, slightly lunate, contiguous anteriorly.—Antennae two, short, filiform, having two articulations, scarcely exerted.—Mandibulae two, horny, transverse.—Feet branchial, foliaceous, in number about sixty pairs, decreasing in size, the last less elongated, more rounded and broader than the others; tail elongated, somewhat conical, truncated at the apex, consisting of numerous very short articulations. Two long setae.

Monoculus apus of Linnaean authors, is *Apus Productus* of Latreille. It is found in stagnant waters, and after having been left dry in the summer by evaporation, it revives on the return of moisture.

AQUA, in Pharmacy. This title is given to the various distilled waters, directed by the Pharmacopoeias, to be kept in the shops.

AQUA FORTIS, the name by which Nitric Acid is known in Commerce and the Arts. The refiners apply the term double and single to the acid in two different states of dilution, the former containing twice as much real acid as the latter. For the production and properties of this substance, see ART. CUMULISTY.

AQUAMBO, a country on the Gold Coast of Africa, to the East of the river Volta; formerly powerful, now dependent upon the Tonaus. It abounds in gold. (Bowditch.)

AQUAMBOE, a kingdom in the interior of the Gold Coast of Africa, immediately behind Aquapim, from which it is separated by the Rio Volta. It extends 30 miles along the bank of that river, and 100 miles inland. In the time of Bosman it was the most warlike and powerful state on the Gold Coast, and all the others were its subjects or tributaries; even Acre was a mere dependency upon Aquamboe. It appears to have entirely lost this pre-eminence, which now indisputably belongs to Ashantee; and the Aquamboes are satisfied if they can maintain their own independence. The king exercises the most absolute authority over his subjects, which has given rise to a saying, that in Aquamboe there are only two classes, the royal family and their slaves. Although the country is fertile, the people are not so industrious as in Aquapim, and scarcely supply themselves with grain.

AQUAPIM, a kingdom in the interior of the Gold Coast of Africa, immediately behind Acre, and to the west of the Fantee country. For beauty and fertility it is said scarcely to have its equal in the world. It consists of mountains covered with wood, interspersed with valleys of the most luxuriant fruitfulness. The towns and villages, seventeen in number, being situated on the tops of the hills, add greatly to the beauty

of the scenery. Aquapim, before the late war, was the granary of the surrounding countries. Sugar canes grow to an enormous size, but are destroyed by ants, which abound every where. The government is an absolute monarchy, and the people pay the most implicit obedience to the sovereign. They are of the middle size, neat in their persons, of good natural parts, and particularly polite and kind to Europeans. Agriculture is almost their sole employment, and their exports consist in the produce of the soil, for which they receive in return salt, dried fish, gunpowder, iron, guns, and cotton manufactures.

AQUAPIM, a country on the Gold Coast of Africa, east of Assin and Akim, the capital of which is Akropong. It is subject to the Ashantis. (Bowditch.)

AQUA REGIA, a name given by the Alchemists to the combination of nitric and muriatic acids, which they found formed the only solvent of gold, by them considered the king of metals. See ART. CUMULISTY.

AQUARIUS, is the name of the eleventh sign of the Zodiac, emblematical of the rainy season. The constellation of the same name contains 108 stars, in the Britannic Catalogue, and 119 in that published at Berlin.

AQUATICK, } Aquæ, water; applied to that
AQUATICAL, } which dwells or grows on water,
AQUATILE, } watery.
AQUEOUS.

There is a treatise of Aristotle extant, wherein he putteth down four kinds of animals, to wit, terrestrial, aquatic, celestia, and celestial.

Holland's Plutarch.

Hereby I understand the aquatic, or water-frog; whereof in ditches and standing places we may behold many millions every spring in England.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Neither is the aqueous humor, as some may supinely imagine, altogether useless or unprofitable, as to vision; because, by its help, the *visus rectus* is sustained, which else would fall flat upon the crystalline humor.

Ray's Wisdom of God.

Another cure of this kind was experimented by Dr. Daniel Major upon a goose, anno. 1670; the aqueous humour of both whose eyes they let out, so that the eyes fell, and the goose became quite blind. But without the use of any medicine, in about two days time, nature repaired the watery humour again, the eyes returned to their former turgency, and the goose was in a week after produced seeing before twenty-eight or thirty spectators.

Derham's Physico-Theology.

I might here take notice of those amphibious creatures, which we may call aquatic quadrupeds, the toes of whose feet are joined by membranes, as in water-fowls, for swimming, and who have very small ears and ear-holes, as the cetaceous fishes have for hearing in the water.

Ray, on the Creation.

AQUEOUS, the name of one of the humours of the eye, so called from its resemblance to water. It fills that part of the eye which lies between the crystalline lens and the cornea; and is divided into the anterior and posterior chambers, by the iris.

AQUATINTA, a method of engraving by aqua fortis, the impressions from which very much resemble drawings in Indian ink. It is effected in the following manner: After the intended figure is outlined by etching or otherwise, the plate is covered all over with a ground of resin, Burgundy pitch, or mastix, dissolved in rectified spirits of wine; this is done by holding the plate in an inclined position, and pouring the above composition over it. The spirit of wine almost imme-

AQUA-
PIM
—
AQUA-
TINTA.

AQUA
TINTA.
—
AQUE-
DUCT.

diately evaporates and leaves the resinous substance in a granulated state, equally dissolved over every part. The granulations thus produced, if examined through a magnifying glass will be found extremely regular and beautiful. When the particles are extremely minute and near to each other, the impression from the plate appears to the naked eye exactly like a wash of Indian ink. But when they are larger, the granulations appear more distinct. This powder or granulation, is called the aquatinta grain. The plate is next heated to make the powder adhere; and in those parts where a very strong shade is wanted, it is scraped away; but where strong lights are wanted a varnish is applied. The aqua fortis properly diluted with water is then put on with a piece of wax, as in common etching or engraving, and by repeated applications of this process, scraping where darker shades are required, and covering the light parts with varnish, the final effect is produced.

Engraving by aquatinta was invented by Le Prince, a French artist, by whom the processes were long kept secret. It is even said, that for some time he sold his prints, (which are still reckoned excellent specimens,) for drawings.

AQUEDUCT, aqua, water, and dico, doctum, to lead.

That which leads or guides the course of water.

*Into this lovely vale our steps we bend,
I and my sullen discontented friend;
The marble cavern and aqueducts we view,
But how shall I rate now and different from the true,
Dryden's Journal.*

We left the road for about half a mile to see the sources of a modern aqueduct. It is entertaining to observe how the little springs and rills, that break out of the sides of the mountain, are glean'd up, and convey'd thro' little cover'd channels into the main hollow of the aqueduct. Addison's Italy.

The city of Nicodemus, sir, have expended three millions three hundred and twenty-nine sesterces, in building an aqueduct; which, not answering the intent, the works are entirely fallen into ruins. Melmoth's Pilgrimage.

AQUEDUCT or aqueduct in Architecture or Hydraulics, is a construction upon, or through, an even ground, for the purpose of forming a level canal for conducting water from one place to another. Aqueducts were either formed by erecting one or several rows of arcades across a valley, and making these arcades support one or more level canals, upon one or each of the ranges; or by piercing through mountains which would have interrupted the water course. They were built of stones or brick, and covered with a vaulted roof or with flat stones, to shelter the water from the sun and rain. Some aqueducts were paved; but others conveyed the water through a natural channel of clay, to reservoirs or castella of lead or stone, whence it was brought to the houses by leaden pipes.

Aqueducts had also ponds disposed at certain distances, where the sediment of the water might be deposited. When the water was conveyed under ground there were openings at about every 240 feet. Some of the Roman aqueducts brought water from the distance of upwards of 60 miles, through rocks and mountains, and over valleys, in places more than 109 feet high. The declivity of the aqueduct, according to Pliny, was 1 inch; and according to Vitruvius $\frac{1}{2}$ a foot in a hundred. The principal aqueducts now remaining are Aqua Virginia, repaired by Pope

Paul IV.; Aqua Felici, constructed by Pope Sextus V. in the year 1611, and that built by Louis XIV. at Maintenon, to convey water from the river Buo to Versailles. For an account of Roman aqueducts, see Julius Frontinus *De Aqueductibus Urbis Rome*. Montfaucon, vol. iv. plate 128. Plin. *Hist. Nat.* lib. 36. cap. 15. For an account of modern aqueducts, see *Phil. Trans.* abridged, vol. i. p. 594.

AQUILA, a small isle off the east coast of Minorca. It is of a circular form, considerably elevated, and often proves dangerous to navigators.

AQUILA, a province of the kingdom of Naples, known also by the name of Abruzzo Ultra. The chief town, Aquila, is situated on a hill, at the foot of which flows the river Aterno, and is the seat of the governor and court of judicature for the province. The bishop is under the immediate cognizance of the pope. The town received considerable damage from the earthquakes in 1703 and 1706. It is very large, and contains, exclusive of the cathedral, 24 parish churches (whereof 16 are collegiate), and no less than 29 cloisters. The country in the environs abounds in saffron, from which the inhabitants derive great profits. Population 13,615, in the year 1600. 30 miles S. E. of Rome, and 93 N. of Naples.

AQUILA, or the eagle, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, containing 71 stars.

AQUILARA, a town of Africa Propria (Ces. B. Civ. lib. 22.), not far from Clypea and the Promontory Hermaum; now Larhark. (Shew's Travels.)

AQUILARIA, in Botany. A genus of plants, containing one species, a native of Malacca.

AQUILEGIA, in Botany. A genus of plants, class Polyandria, order Pentagynia. Generic character. Calyx none. Petals five. Nectaries five, coriaceous, alternating with the petals. Capsules five, distinct.

One species of this genus, the common columbine, so frequently met with in gardens, is a native of this country.

AQUILEIA, a once famous, but now decayed town, in the Austrian Littoral, at the confluence of the Versa and Torre, among the Lagoons of Marano, a few miles from the gulf of Venice. It formerly had communication with that gulf by a spacious canal constructed by the Romans, but now dried up. Previous to its destruction by Attila, king of the Huns, in A. D. 453, Aquileia was one of the largest and strongest cities in the Roman empire; but since that calamitous event, it has sunk so low that it is now a common country town, containing only a few scattered buildings. An attempt was indeed made to restore it to its former grandeur in 1765, but owing to the unhealthiness of the situation, and other causes, it failed of success. The marshes were at that time drained, and the canal partly cleared, but the proximity of Venice and Trieste prevented the town from reaching any high degree of commercial prosperity. The population was given out in 1775, at 2815, but it has since sunk so low as 600, or even 500. Many of the inhabitants assume the title of noblesse. Aquileia is now included in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, which belongs to the House of Austria. 20 miles S. of Friuli. Lon. 13° 25' E. Lat. 42° 19' N.

AQUILINE, Aquila, an eagle.

Like an eagle: arched and hooked like the beak of an eagle.

AQUE-
DUCT.
—
AQUIL-
INE.

AQUILINE.

ARABIA.

His nose was equiline, his eyes were blue,
Ruddy his lips, and fresh and fair his hue.

Dryden's Pal. and Arcite.

His eyes (were) hollow, yet piercing; his nose inclined to equiline, his beard neglected and mixed with grey.

Inscribed to Men. of Moutons Scrib.

Twere well, says one near equiline, profound,
Terribly arch'd and equiline his nose,
And overbush'd with most impudent brows,
Twere well, could you permit the world to live
As the world pleases.

Cowper's Task.

AQUITANIA, a province of Transalpine Gaul, which was divided into Aquitania Prima, Secunda, and Tertia; the two first of which were conquered by Cæsar, and the last by his lieutenants. This part of France is now called Guienne and Gascony.

ARA, or the ALTAR, a constellation in the southern hemisphere, containing 24 stars.

ARABAH (ARABAT), a four-wheeled tilted wagon with latticed windows, almost the only carriage used by the Turks. See Muradigma d'Ohsson's *Empire Ottoman*, tom. ii. pl. 84.

ARABGIR, n. Sanjak (or Captaincy) in the Pashalik of Sivas, producing a revenue of 21,000 aspers, and containing seven Ziameh and 153 Timars. Its Kiziliks (jurisdiction) are Egin and Shidi. The town and castle of Arabgir, are two or three miles west of the Euphrates; one day's journey east of Divrigi, and one south of Egin. A small stream runs by Arabgir, and falls into the Euphrates near Zilah on its eastern bank. (Jehin-numa, 624.)

ARABESQUE, or MORESQUE, a style of ornament in painting or sculpture, in which no animal representations are used.

ARA.

ARABIA.

A R A B I A.

Boundaries. ARABIA, a vast Peninsula, bounded by the Indian Ocean on the east and south, the Red Sea on the west, and the Persian Gulf on the north. The country between the two last mentioned seas, is almost entirely a desert, and is occupied by tribes who have no fixed abode. This region, which extends northwards to the banks of the Euphrates, and westwards to the confines of Syria, and the Arabian Irak, is entirely occupied by Arab Tribes, and is properly, at least in part, the Rocky Arabia (petraea) of the ancients. The continual warfare and wandering habits of these tribes will readily account for the different limits assigned to Arabia by different ancient writers; (see SYRIAN DESERT), but the most convenient division is that which would be formed by a line drawn from the head of the Arabian to the head of the Persian Gulf, nearly in the parallel of 30° North Latitude. The earlier Greek geographers divided Arabia into two parts, the Happy and the Desert (Felix and Deserta.) Ptolemy adds a third division, the Rocky (Petraea), and his partition has been generally followed. But the Arabia Petraea of Ptolemy, is the southern part of the great Syrian Desert, and beyond the imaginary limit of Arabia assigned above. Arabia Felix contained the fertile, habitable, regions to the south and west; Deserta, the barren countries intervening between them and the Syrian Desert.

The most ancient name of this country was Kedem, the East, (Is. xi. 14., Jer. xlix. 28., Job. i. 3.); and the Arabians were called Beni Kedem, "Children of the East;" but it was afterwards named Arab, from Arabah, a desert; and this name occurs in the later books of the Old Testament, (Ezek. xxvii. 21., 2 Chron. ix. 14.) By the Arabians themselves, their country is called Jezirat-el-Arab, i.e. Peninsula of Arabia, and by the Persians and Turks Areebia. Various and fanciful etymologies of this name have been given; but none is so probable as that mentioned above, which is applicable to much the greater part of the region comprehended within the limits which we have assigned.

The division made by the native geographers, **Divisions.** appears to have existed almost from the earliest times, and to have arisen from the physical distribution of the country. Beginning from the southern and most fertile part of the Peninsula, we have,

I. *Yemen (or Yeman).* The happy Arabia of the Greeks, between the parallels of 12° and 16° N. Lat., and 41° and 43° E. Long.,—containing the Districts of Tehayim el Yemen, Mahrah, Hadramaut and Yemen, properly so called,—Sheh'r is also mentioned by Abū 'l-feda, but belongs to the Tehayim-el-Yemen.

II. *Hijaz (Hedjaz, Hegias, Hedjaz),* a part of the Rocky Arabia of the ancients. This is the holy-land of the Musselmans, and has been more fully described by the Arabian geographers, than any other part of their country. It contains the sacred cities of Mecca and Medinah.

III. *Nejed (Nedjed, Nodjed),* lying between Hijaz and the Arabian Irak, and bounded by Yemen on the south; by the Syrian Desert on the north. The mountains are fertile, but the plains, like most of those in Arabia, deficient in water. Its inhabitants are, for the most part, wandering tribes. (Niebuhr, *Besch.* p. 342-3.) At the north western extremity of Nejed is Darayyeh, the head quarters of the Wah-habis.

IV. *Yemamah or Ara'd,* to the south west of Hijaz. V. *El Ah'sa or Hajar (or Hejar), (Lachas, Hodjar; Hadschar),* to the west of Bahrein, between it and Nejed, stretching to Irak Arabi on the north, and Oman on the south.

VI. *Bak'reia,* (i. e., the two Seas). Islands, and a sandy district on the western shore of the Persian Gulf, celebrated for their pearl fishery.

VII. *Oman.* The eastern extremity of the Peninsula. Its capital is Muskat.

The whole Peninsula, taken in the strictest sense, is comprehended between 12° and 31° N. Lat., 33° and 59° E. Long., measuring about 1100 geographical miles in its greatest length, and 1150 in its greatest

ARABIA. breadth, from Cape Räs-el-hadd to the port of Jiddah; and forming an irregular triangle, the area of which contains about 130,000 square miles.

The whole of the western, and a considerable part of the other coasts, is a belt of sand, separating the mountains from the sea; and though there are no alps or mountains of an extraordinary height, the elevation of the greater part of the interior is very considerable, and sufficient materially to affect the climate. Frost and snow in the night are not very uncommon in these regions, during the winter months, while the low, sandy plains, stretching along the coast in the district of Tehâmeh, and the barren, rocky, provinces of Hîjâz and Nejed, suffer the excess of heat in summer, and are deluged with torrents of rain in winter. At Mecca and Mokhâ particularly, the heat and drought during the day are such, that were it not for the heavy dews which fall at night, no vegetation could exist. (Niebuhr I. 485.)

The seasons, of course, vary much in a country where so great a difference of elevation occurs. In Yemen, the rains commence in June and end in September; at Maskat they last from the middle of November to the middle of February. The seasons therefore in Arabia, like the monsoons in India, are the converse of each other on the opposite sides of the Peninsula, and this is a strong confirmation of the opinion that the central deserts are an elevated plateau, like that between the two ranges of Ghâts on the coasts of Malabar and Comorand. The Nejed, or highland country, towards the centre of the northern part is extremely barren, and probably a vast sandy plain, more or less interspersed with naked rocks; but it is almost entirely unknown; and is probably occupied by a thin population of wandering tribes. Yemen itself, and all the states or provinces dependant upon it, which have been already enumerated as belonging to that division of Arabia, are fertile and well cultivated. The vallies, hills, and in several places even the sides and summits of the loftier mountains produce grain, especially durrâh (sorghum vulgare), which is the common food in the interior of Africa as well as Arabia, figs, dates, apricots, pomegranates, coffee, (the best is grown in the district called Uddein), and many kinds of esculent roots and seeds. A considerable quantity of cattle is bred, and there is a vast variety of the monkey tribe in the woods. Iron, lead, and copper are found in various places; but, as Niebuhr expressly says, none of the precious metals for which Arabia is so often celebrated by the ancients. Cornelian, agate, and the onyx, are not very uncommonly found; and the pearl-fishery on the coast produces a considerable revenue. The inhabitants of Yemen are all stationary, settled in towns and villages. The same is the case with regard to the greater part of Hîjâz and Omân; but in Yemâmah, El-Ab'sâ, Bah'rein, and particularly Nejed, many, if not the greater part of the inhabitants are always encamped, and change their abode as want of fresh pastures for their cattle, or predatory excursions, may lead them. The whole country is divided into petty states, independent of each other. Yemen is governed by an absolute prince, who is called the Imâm, a title which implies guidance rather than command, and is more properly an ecclesiastical,

than a civil appellation;* but civil and ecclesiastical laws are so blended together in the Koran, that such an intermixture of offices and titles will be found in every musselman state. He maintains a small standing army, and Niebuhr estimated his revenue at 450,000 dollars (=£250,000. nearly). The different districts or provinces of his kingdom are governed by Dôlahs or Emirs, who have troops under their command, and collect the revenue for the Imâm. Justice is administered by the Kâ'dis or Judges, who are not dependant upon the Dôlah. A brisk trade is carried on by the inhabitants of Yemen; and at the port of Mokhâ, they have considerable intercourse with the Europeans, particularly the English established in India; whose brokers are Banians (banîyas), or Hindûs, who pass a few years there, and in other parts of the Indian ocean, and when they have amassed a considerable sum of money return home. There are also many Jews in every part of Yemen; who generally live, as in other Mohammedan countries, separately from the rest of the inhabitants.

The province of Hîjâz, which has Nejed and Yemâmah on the east, Yemen on the south, and the Syrian Desert on the north, is bounded on the west by the Red Sea. It forms a part of the Arabia Petrea of the ancients. It has its Tehimâh, or sandy plain near the sea, as well as Yemen; but its mountains are fertile, and in many places torrents descend from them and fertilize the plains below. It has, however, fewer productive tracts of land than Yemen, and the central part of the northern, as well as of the southern half of the Peninsula, is, it can hardly be doubted, one vast sandy desert. The inhabitants are principally stationary, and in the interior, governed by independent Chiefs or Sheikhs. The towns on the coast, and a few others, are now subject to the Pasha of Egypt; who, a few years ago, subdued the Sherif, or Prince, of Mecca, their sovereign, on account of his connection with the Wahhabis. No part of Arabia is more frequented by strangers than this; as the pilgrimage to Mecca annually brings many thousand strangers from every part of the Mohammedan world to the holy cities; and most of them make it a trading as well as a religious journey. The neighbourhood of Mecca is also remarkable for producing, in the greatest perfection, that species of Amyris, from the gum of which, its celebrated balsam is formed, (Bruce's *Travels*, Append.) Near Khaibar, there are still, as in the time of Mohammed, whole tribes of Jews, who are governed by their own Sheikhs.

The provinces of Bah'rein, El-Ab'sâ, and Yemâmah are the least known and the least civilized of any part of Arabia. Some of their inhabitants are settled in towns, but the greater part are Bedowins, or wandering shepherds, who maintain themselves by the produce of their sheep and camels. (See BRADSHAW'S, SYRIAN DESERT.) Omân is less fertile than even the Hîjâz, but is more so than the countries last mentioned. It is subject to a Prince, commonly called the Imâm of Maskat (or Maskat), from the place of his residence, a town on the coast nearly at the

* So, on the western coast of Africa, the Negro Kings, who have embraced the Mohammedan religion, are always called *Almamy*, i. e., Al-Imâm: i. the Imâm.

ARABIA. eastern extremity of the Peninsula. This Prince has long been in strict alliance with the English government at Bombay, and has more than once been indebted to the assistance of our troops for ridding him of enemies who were too strong for him. The districts of Aden, 'Hadramaut, Sheh'r and Mahrah, which are narrow strips of hilly country, between the Desert and the Sea, are least known, though in some respects more interesting than any other part of Arabia; for they (more particularly 'Hadramaut and Sheh'r), are the original countries of myrrh and frankincense, and are frequently mentioned in the most ancient books of the Arabians, as well as in the Pentateuch. Had the unfortunate Setzeo not fallen a victim to the jealousy and rapacity of the Düläh of Mokhi, he would probably have visited those countries, and it is much to be wished that some enterprising traveller, properly qualified, would undertake to explore them.

Natural
History.

As a very large portion of Arabia, perhaps two-thirds, is entirely deprived of water, the soil must necessarily be barren and burnt up, and except to a mineralogist, can present few objects of an interesting kind. But the mountains are in many places well wooded, and, together with the valleys which they enclose, highly productive. Forskäl, in the small extent of country which he examined, discovered several new genera, and Setzeo, had he lived to bring his treasures home, would, no doubt, have greatly added to their number. 'Hadramaut, Sheh'r, Mahrah and Omäo have never been visited by any naturalist. The difference of elevation, and consequently of temperature, in different parts of the same region, occasions a greater diversity of vegetation within a small space, than is usually found under the same parallels of latitude. Among those worthy of notice may be mentioned the Küdi, or Pandanus odoratissimus, the fragrance of which is celebrated by Arabian as well as Indian writers; the *Celastrus edulis*, or Käi, a tree cultivated by the Arabs, in their coffee plantations; the green leaves of which are chewed by them, as the Indians chew the Betel-out; they are believed to be a preservative against the plague. (*Fl. Egypt. Arab.* p. 64.) The most valuable vegetable productions of Arabia, are, however, the Opobalsamum and other species of Amyris, the myrrh and frankincense, though inferior to that from Africa and India, and most especially coffee, (see *Correa*), which is cultivated with great care on the hills of Yemen, at no great distance from Mokhi. Their fruits are figs, pears, quinces, almonds, filberts, peaches, apricots, oranges, lemons, tamarinds, dates and cocoa-nuts. Esculent vegetables, such as melons, gourds, and all the cucurbitaceous tribe, with a variety of others less palatable to Europeans. Fodder for cattle is also abundant in the woods and fertile parts of the country; and even the deserts produce a few plants, such as the *Avicennia tomentosa*, (the Rack of Bruce's Trav. v. 44.), which afford a scanty meal for the camels.

Of all the quadrupeds found in Arabia, none are more celebrated than its horses, but as the genuine breed is only to be met with among the Arabs of the desert, we shall reserve our account of it for that article (see SYRIAN DESERT). An account of the camel also, which, next to the horse, is the beast of burden

ARABIA. most used by the Arabians, will come more properly under that head. The oxen and cows are nearly of the same breed as those common in India, and have a hunch of fat above their shoulders. They are very small and produce little milk; their flesh also is not at all to be compared with European beef. There is too little water in Arabia for the buffalo; but goats and sheep are abundant, and the milk of the former nearly makes up for the dryness of the cows. Asses are a domestic animal, much used in these countries; and the Arabian, like the Egyptian breed, is incomparably superior to the small sluggish race predominant in Europe, and is better suited for travelling in that country and climate than even the horse. (Niebuhr, *Besch.* p. 164.) Mules do not appear to be so much used here, as in most other parts of Asia. Beasts of prey are found wherever the woods or caves in the mountains afford them a shelter. Jackals (*Benüt-el-wäwi*), and foxes, are the most common, but it cannot be doubted that hyænas, lions, tigers, leopards, and other ferocious animals, natives of tropical countries, are found there, though Niebuhr did not meet with them. The Jerboa (*Yerböb*), one of the prettiest of the rat or opossum species, is the constant inhabitant of the sandy deserts. These regions also are the favourite abode of the antelope, that light and elegant species of deer which supplies the Arabian poets with so many metaphors and similes.

Of birds, the Arabs have poultry in abundance, guinea-fowl are found wild, and are so common in the hilly part of Tehämah, that the boys knock them down with stones, and bring them to market. Pigeons are met with in the woody districts. The red-legged partridge, pheasants, and bustards, (*Otis Huhari*), plovers, storks, eagles, vultures, and hawks, with other common birds of prey, are also usual in places adapted to their habits.

Besides locusts, the pests of a great part of Asia, the Arabs have innumerable insects, many of which have not yet been described; and among their reptiles, many serpents deserving of notice; particularly a small one called *bethen* or *beten*, about a foot long, spotted black and white, about twice as thick as the thumb; the bite is said to produce instant death. The bruised leaves of the *Aristolochia sempervirens* (*Ghiakab* and *Lebyrah*), are considered as an antidote for the poison of serpents, and a decoction of it, as a preservative against the effects of their bite.

The mountains in Arabia run parallel with its shores, one range excepted, which seems to stretch across from Bah'reio on the east, to the neighbourhood of Mecca on the west; but the position and direction of these ranges is extremely uncertain. They are craggy and precipitous, basaltic columns are probably found in some places (Niebuhr *Reisebesch.* I. 333.); but gypsum, schistus, iron-stone, and calcareous rocks are those of the most frequent occurrence. These hills are, in the rainy season, every where traversed by torrents, which are generally lost in the sand of the plains below. There is scarcely a stream of any magnitude which reaches the sea,—for that which is laid down in our maps as discharging its waters into the Persian Gulf, near Bahrein, is said expressly by Niebuhr, to be dry in summer, and there seems to be no authority for the lower part of the

ARABIA. course of the river near Sanââ, which passes through Hadramaut, and falls into the Indian Ocean near Khajjah. The river marked Prim on the maps, running into the sea, near the gulf of Curia Muria, (i. e., Khurtian wa Murian), should be written Terim, as appears from Idrisi, and seems to be nothing more than a torrent (widi) from the neighbouring mountains.

Manners
and cus-
toms.

The natives of Arabia, (we are now speaking of those who are settled in towns and villages; for the nomade tribes, see Bano-wins), are of a middle stature, thin and sallow; having black eyes and hair, and thin wiry beards. They are very abstemious. Their common food consists of thin cakes of wheaten or durrah bread, and pillau which is made of fowl or mutton boiled in rice; their beverage is water and coffee, or kisher, a preparation from the husks of the coffee-beans, which is almost the only luxury they indulge in. They seldom transgress the law of Mohammed by drinking any fermented liquors, and never do it in public. The use of tobacco is universal; and they often make up for the want of intoxicating liquors, by smoking h'ashishah (hemp-leaves). (See De Sacy's *Chrestomathie Arabe* li. 130. 44.) At dinner time they sit round on the floor of the room, spread a cloth or a piece of leather before them, place the dishes upon it, and helping themselves with their fingers, for they have no knives and forks, they finish their meal very quickly. This is the custom among the rich and great, as well as among the poor. Their religion requires frequent ablutions, and they are naturally cleanly, so that this use of their hands in eating is not so filthy as might be supposed. Their temperance is probably the chief cause of the constant health they usually enjoy. Tedious illnesses are uncommon among them, and the worst disorder to which they are liable is the leprosy, the prevalence of which is in a great measure owing to the ignorance of their physicians. They are extremely fond of anointing themselves; even the poorest people do it on holidays. Those who are in good circumstances, are fond of burning incense, and sprinkling their clothes with sweet scented waters, and both are done when a stranger comes in, as is usual in most Mohammedan countries. The Arabs are fond of society and great frequenters of the coffee-houses. The women, as must always be the case where the law of Mohammed is observed, are kept in great seclusion. They have the care of all the children in their earliest years, but the boys, after a certain age (eight or nine years), are removed from the h'arem and kept entirely with their male relations. In wealthy families they are placed under the care of a tutor. They are extremely careful, in marriage, to ascertain that their wife's virginity is unspotted, and if the contrary proves to be the fact, they either require a compensation in money from her father, or return her upon his hands. The hospitality of the Arabs is almost proverbial; they are, also, civil to strangers, and were not, when the Danish travellers visited their country sixty years ago, inclined to look upon Christians with that abhorrence which characterises so many of the followers of Mahomet. They did not seem anxious to make proselytes. The Arabs have been accused of being crafty and revengeful. The former charge does not at all apply to that part of the nation of

which we are now speaking; the latter does to a certain extent, since they are sometimes provoked by very gross insults to commit murder, and even to revenge themselves on the relations of the offender; but it must be remembered, that the law of retaliation is prescribed by the Koran; and that a disposition to revenge is therefore almost enjoined upon Musselmans. The dress of the Arabs is very simple; large wide trowsers, a blue and white striped shirt with very wide sleeves, a leathern girdle, a short jacket without sleeves, a capot thrown over the shoulders, and a turban, consisting of a cap with a shawl twisted round it, together with a pair of slippers, constitute the whole of their attire. A short crooked knife or dagger is stuck into their girdle; and it is here that the poor carry their purses, smoking utensils, &c. A coarse shirt, hanging down to the knees, and girded round the loins, is all the clothing the labourers wear. The women's dress is much like that of the men, but nose and ear rings, together with bracelets and rings round their ancles, are worn only by them. They also stain their nails red with hinnâ, (*Lawsonia inermis*), and their eye-lids with atium.

This nation is divided into two distinct classes of men, who differ materially in their habits and manners; the inhabitants of the towns and those of the desert: the latter are always encamped, and continually changing their place of abode. (See Bano-wins). The former have settled in cities and villages, and are those of whom we now intend to speak. Their character appeared in a very favourable light to the Danish travellers, in 1762 and 1763, but it may be feared that the wars in which the Wahhabis have involved most parts of Arabia, in these latter times, have had a mischievous effect upon the habits of that people. The traders and public officers in the cities are, indeed, often crafty and fraudulent, and sometimes oppressive and rapacious, but the inhabitants of the villages are simple, inoffensive, and industrious, and surprisingly free from that fanaticism, which is the genuine offspring of the Koran. They are often much oppressed by the exactions of their rulers, for the imperfections of Mohammed's system pervade every Musselman government, and are felt under the unostentatious Courts of Yemen, as well as under the splendid ones of Constantinople or Dehli. The education of the Arabs, as Niebuhr observes, (*Besch. v. Arab.* p. 27), is so different from ours, that it must produce a vast difference of habits and character. Their children are removed from the h'arem, as we before remarked, when they are five or six years old, and from that time accustomed to sit for hours together with their fathers; familiar intercourse with the other sex, and such amusements as music and dancing are also considered as unlawful by the Arabians; they therefore acquire habits of seriousness from a very early age. But they do not dislike society: the coffee-houses are much frequented, and they delight in acute and pointed discourse. They are not quarrelsome, though noisy in their disputes. They have not so many terms of abuse as most European nations.

Hospitality.

Hospitality is prescribed by the Koran; the traveller is peculiarly the object of the charitable; and the good effects of their benevolent precepts are felt in Arabia, as well as among Mohammedan countries. Fountains and caravanserais are as common in Yemen

ARABIA. as in other parts of Asia; and though nothing but house room is provided by the one, or water by the other, the abstemiousness and simple habits of the Arabians render every thing beyond that, superfluous. The heroes of all their romances are celebrated for their liberality as well as their bravery; and those virtues were fostered by the doctrines of Mahomet. His uncle Abdallah, was one of the three who had the reputation of being the most liberal men of their age; and the account of the method by which it was determined to which of the three preference should be given, is very illustrative of the manners of the Arabians. These men, who had been disputing the point together, determined to go, each to the one whom he preferred, to ask his assistance. Abdallah was just mounting his camel for a long journey—"Son of the uncle of the Apostle of God," said the man who wished to try his liberality, "I am a traveller and in distress." Abdallah, immediately alighting, gave him the camel with all her trappings, only requiring him not to dispose of a sword slung from the saddle, because it had belonged to Ali. The camel carried, besides robes of silk, 4000 pieces of gold, but the sword was still more valuable. The second of the disputants went to Kais, the next of the three about whom they had been debating, and learned from a servant that his master was asleep;—"Take, however," said he, "these 7000 pieces of gold; it is all we have in the house, and show this token to my master's camel-driver, he will provide you with a camel and a slave for your journey home." Arābah, the third of these generous men, was leasing on two slaves (for his eye-sight failed him), and on his way to the Mosque, when he met the man who wished to put his liberality to the test. No sooner had he heard the request, than clapping his hands together, and lamenting his misfortune in having no money, he desired him to take the two slaves, which the other refused to take then, till Arābah declared that he would liberate them if he did not, and dismissing his slaves, went onwards feeling his way by the wall. The pain for liberality was given, as may be supposed in favour of Arābah. (*Sale's Prelim. Disc. to Koran*, p. 59.)

The Arabs are extremely courteous; inferiors in rank or age always kiss or attempt to kiss the hand of their superiors. Equals embrace each other putting cheek to cheek. They use, when addressing Mussulmans, the common salutation, *Es-salām* Aleikum, which properly signifies, 'God save you!' and that explains why Mohammedans are unwilling to give it to Christians; the latter also dislike to use it, as being connected with the faith of Mahomet. They have a good deal of etiquette in the form of their visits, and it appears from Niebuhr's plate of his audience at Sana, that subjects are not allowed to sit down in the presence of the Imam. They sit cross-legged as most of the other Asiatics do, and inferiors may be said to sit upon their heels when in the presence of their superiors, a most uncomfortable posture. Their houses are not luxurious, even those of the great have few conveniences, while the habitations of the lower orders are miserable hovels; when those who have no separate apartments for the women, carry a stranger home, they detain him at the door, till they have gone in and cried 'tarik, i. e.,

away! away!—which sends all the women out of sight immediately. It may reasonably be doubted, whether the seclusion of the women in the east is really considered as a hardship by them. It is not improbable, that the exposure of their persons without a veil would shock them to such a degree, as to render European society highly irksome. Concealment and retirement are as essential in the eyes of Mohammedan women, as decent clothing in those of a Christian.

The language and literature of the Arabs have justly attracted much attention among the learned in Europe. The Arabic has been, in consequence of its being the language of Mahomet, more widely diffused than any other, and is studied and understood, if not spoken, from the shores of the Atlantic to the banks of the Ganges; and from the Steppes on the Volga to the countries on the Niger. But independently of that circumstance, it is highly deserving of notice from its antiquity and copiousness, and particularly from its close affinity to the Hebrew, which it resembles nearly as much as the Doric does the Attic Greek. It belongs to that class of languages, which German philologists have very conveniently termed Semitic, and together with the Ethiopic, forms the southern division of it. The earliest specimens of this language which we possess, do not ascend much higher than the age of Mahomet; we cannot therefore form a decided opinion as to the time and process by which it acquired its present form. The traditions of the country ascribe the separation of their language from the Syriac to Yareh, son of Kah'tin (the Joktan of Scripture), whom they call the Father of Yemen:—but it may be observed, that this reference to the Syriac, rather seems to shew that the tradition is of no considerable antiquity. The two leading dialects prevalent before the time of Mohammed, were that of H'myar (or Homeir, and thence the Homerite) in Yemen and the south; and that of the Koreish and other descendants of Ismael in the north-west. The first, or H'myarite, dialect bore, as has been reasonably conjectured, a strong affinity to the Ethiopic; which, in many respects, approaches to the Hebrew and Syriac, more nearly than the Arabic of the Koran. This conjecture is confirmed by a tale told by the Arab grammarians of a man who threw himself over a precipice, because the King of H'myar said to him *thab*, meaning 'sit down,' instead of 'leap down,' as that word signifies in the dialect of the Koreish. (*Pococke Spec. Hist. Arab.* p. 151.) The other dialect mentioned by the grammarians, as the Hudheil, the Tayi, Temimi, &c., differed more in pronunciation and provincialisms than in essential points;—as is clearly shown by the *Divan* Hudheil, a collection of poems written in one of them. The second, or language of the Koreish, being that which Mohammed himself spoke and consequently the dialect of the Koran, has become, with his religion, universal throughout the Mohammedan world, and has nearly, if not entirely, suppressed its ancient rivals. The extent to which it is, or has been, current, has been already noticed; and when we add that the greater part of Spain and the whole of Sicily, together with the eastern coast of Africa as far as Madagascar, ought to be mentioned among the countries where this lan-

ARABIA. guage has been prevalent, it will be evident that not even the Greek itself was ever spread over so vast a portion of the earth. Mohammed boasted continually of the divine origin of his book, and challenged his opponents to produce any thing that could compare with it; but copious and emphatic as its style is, it is greatly surpassed by the poets of that, and the immediately preceding ages; and nothing perhaps shews more strikingly the effect which their veneration for the Koran has had upon the literature of the Mohammedans, than a comparison between the productions of the ages before and after the establishment of their religion. The earlier poets, and even prose writers contain so many words and phrases not to be found in the Koran, that an intimate knowledge of it is far from being sufficient to render them intelligible; while later writers have comparatively fewer words and fewer idioms, which are not to be found in their sacred volume. It is remarkable that the written language, that of the Koran, for example, differs much more from the Hebrew and other Semitic dialects than the spoken idiom does; and this arises from a peculiarity which appears, at first sight purely artificial, and has been summarily condemned as such by Michaelis and other orientlists; yet there are strong grounds for considering those peculiarities as an integral part of the language, and ascribing nothing more to the labour of the grammarians, than the stricter regulation of what was before less determinate. The peculiarity we speak of, is this; in Hebrew and Syriac, every noun ends in a consonant or long vowel, and there is no change of termination to indicate a change of case; in Arabic, on the contrary, one of the three short vowels is appended to the last letter of a word, and denotes a corresponding change of case in nouns, and of mode in verbs; thus *malika* signifies *rex*, a king; *maliki*, *regis*, of a king; *malika*, *regem*, a king; *yemlika*, he does or will reign, *regat* or *regnabit*; *yemlika*, he may reign; *lan yemlika*, he shall not reign. These terminations are never used in the spoken dialect, in which *malik* signifies *rex*, *regis*, *regi*; and *yemlika* is used in every mode, and with or without a negation. These distinctions, it is evident, contribute materially to perspicuity and accuracy of style; but as they are marked by short vowels, which are not usually expressed by the Arabs in their writings, it might seem that they are entirely arbitrary; some words, however, ending in long vowels such as *abi*, *abu*, *fi*, and *fa*; shew this distinction of termination by long vowels which are always expressed, and the measure of the most ancient poems proves, that even the tenwin or nasal termination of the final vowels was in use when those poems were composed. (See Jones *For. Asiat. Comment.* p. 73.) Other arguments might be adduced, such as the analogy of the Ethiopic, in which short, as well as long vowels are expressed, which all tend to prove that the mode of expressing the unwritten vowels, now in use in the Arabic language, is much more ancient than Michaelis and other writers supposed.

It is not indeed impossible that these forms were anciently used even in common life; since this language has undergone much the same changes as the Greek and Latin in the middle ages. For the last four centuries learning has been on the decline throughout Asia,

and the Arabic has suffered a proportionate deterioration. It has lost much in the variety of its grammatical forms, (the dual number, for example, has almost fallen into disuse,) and more in copiousness of expression, and as we find in Homer forms subsequently peculiar to each of the different dialects of Greek, so does the literal Arabic furnish us with almost all the words now used only in particular countries and provinces. Out of more than a hundred words and phrases, collected by Forskal (Niebuhr, *Bech.* 86), to illustrate the difference between the dialects used at Kahirah (Cairo), and in Yemen, there are not ten which are not commonly and promiscuously used in the literal Arabic, and which a very slight knowledge of that language will bring immediately to the reader's recollection; though we have seen this very vocabulary cited to prove the entire disagreement between the ancient and modern Arabic. Its relation to the modern Arabic has been justly compared to that which the Greek, of the age of Pericles, bears to the style of the latter Byzantine writers (Gesenius in Ersch. and Gruber's *Encyclop.*) The resemblance indeed is closer; for the well educated Arabs of the present day, like the Greeks of the lower Empire, always used the literal language in their correspondence and literary composition. Niebuhr represents the discrepancy of the dialects prevalent in Arabia, as greater than we have supposed it to be, in the preceding remarks; but his observations apply more to a difference of pronunciation than a real diversity of language, and he speaks of the corrupt jargon of the populace, which can never be admitted as a just criterion of the real state of the language in any nation. (Niebuhr, *Bech.* 83-4); besides which, he had too slight a knowledge of the literal Arabic, to be aware that it embraced almost all the expressions he heard in different provinces. It is surprising to observe how little alteration has taken place in the language of the higher classes; the phraseology of a modern letter is essentially the same as that of one written in the time of the Khalifs, eleven centuries ago; and though not perhaps quite intelligible to the lowest ranks of people, is perfectly so to those who have any tincture of education.

The riches of the Arabic with respect to words, have long been known by the learned in Europe; but the number and variety of its grammatical forms have not been noticed as they deserved; though power and accuracy of expression depend as much, perhaps more, upon this than upon the other. It has not only augmentatives and diminutives, forms to indicate individuality, and a dual number both in nouns and verbs, but no less than thirteen conjugations both in the active and passive voices, which, with the modifications of the future or *nostris*, noticed above, afford means for expressing every modification of time and action. The forms of the plural are extremely diversified, and also calculated in some cases to express a greater or smaller number. These forms are termed by the Arabian grammarians broken plurals, and are remarkable, inasmuch as they are peculiar to the southern class of Semitic dialects, and we rarely meet with any thing similar to them in other languages.*

* They arise from change of the vowels assigned to the three radical consonants. *Shahid* signifies a witness; its regular plural would be *shahidun*; its irregular or broken plurals are *shahid* and

ARABIA.

ARABIA.

The Arabic has borrowed very little from other languages; but as the physical sciences were cultivated by the Mohammedans when the Christian states were sunk in barbarism, much of our knowledge, at the first revival of learning, was obtained by translations from the Arabic; hence the many technical terms in astronomy, medicine, and chemistry, derived from it.* To the ears of an European it is peculiarly harsh, especially in the mouth of a native of Algiers or Morocco; and the Maltese dialect is perhaps the most inharmonious of all. But the Egyptians and Syrians have a softer and fuller pronunciation; and their language deliberately altered with all its different inflections, must be far from disagreeable, as soon as the hearer is reconciled by habit to the strong gutturals and deep intonation so foreign to our softer ears. The extreme reserve of the Asiatic literati, their fanaticism, (they are generally ecclesiastics,) and consequent dislike of Christians, render it difficult for Europeans to have much intercourse with any but the illiterate; hence arise the exaggerated notions of the harshness of this language commonly entertained. In the mouths of the vulgar, indeed, it loses much of its natural harmony; for they not only cut off the final vowels, when they are short ones, but omit or displace them at the beginning and middle of words; saying, *mišireh* or *embāreh*, for *mošāreh*; *Mh'amed*, or *Imh'ammed*, for *Moh'ammed*; *H'amed*, for *Ab'med*; *Arshid*, for *Rashid*, &c.

A few of the more remarkable peculiarities of the vulgar dialect may be worth noticing. The dual number, in the verbs and pronouns is almost obsolete. The passive voice is seldom, if ever, used. The personal pronouns are united with the word to which they belong, by a particle rarely used in the ancient language *metā*; (*tā* in Maltese) *kāh m'tāh*, for *biā*, in the western dialects, *kitābi*, my book; *kāh h'tāh* ah, for *kitāb'ah*, the father's book. The pronouns, and some other parts of speech have a closer affinity to the Hebrew and Syriac, in the vulgar, than in the literal dialect: so in our own language many provincialisms retain a portion of the ancient British or Saxon, long since lost

every where else. The idiom of the Arabs in the north-western part of Africa, is much the most corrupt of any, except that of Malta; Spanish, and Berber words, transpositions, distortions, and barbarisms without end, disfigure these varieties of the Arabic; but even there the well-educated speak and write in a style sufficiently intelligible to their eastern brethren; and such is the effect of the study of the Koran, and the law-books derived from it, that the sheikhyah, in Dängolah, transcribe with as much elegance and correctness as the best scribes in Cairo (Burckhardt's *Travels*, p. 70.) The Maltese deviates a good deal from the other dialects, and must at first present considerable difficulties to Arabs who have never heard it spoken before, but they soon become familiarized with it; and we have been assured by natives of that island, that they were able, in a short time, to make themselves intelligible to the people of Syria. As the only complete grammar and dictionary of the Maltese, those of Vassalli, are extremely rare, we shall give a short account of their contents in our art. on MALTA.

The affinity between the Maltese and the Arabic, gave rise to one of the most impudent forgeries committed in modern times. The Abbate Giuseppe Vella, a native of Malta settled at Palermo, and pretending to a knowledge of Arabic, which no one there understood, was appointed professor, and published, between 1789 and 1792, in parallel columns, Arab. and Ital., his *Codice Diplomatico Siciliano*, a work which professed to be nothing less than the code enacted by Roger the Norman, king of Sicily. He pretended to have found a MS. in one of the public libraries of the city, and actually disfigured a copy of some other work, expressly to deceive those who might suspect the truth of his account. Had his scheme succeeded, it might have occasioned a revolution in Sicily; for this pretended code vested all property as well as power in the crown; and it has been strongly surmised that the Marchese de Camerote, governor of the island, was not ignorant of the fraud. However that may be, Vella certainly triumphed for a time, notwithstanding every page of his book bears the strongest internal evidence of falsehood. It is written in such a style as no Arab ever used, full of anachronisms and blunders; and there are documents existing which show how remote the dialect really used by the secretaries of Roger was from that invented by Vella. But in 1794, Dr. Hager, afterwards professor at Milan, completely detected the forgery. Vella, whose protectors had then lost their influence, was punished by imprisonment, and his book burnt by the hands of the public executioner. It is now, we believe, extremely scarce, and is, in truth, of no value, except as a monument of impudence, ignorance, and credulity. Vella used to dictate to his hearers sentences in Maltese, which they wrote down in the Latin character, and were told by the professor that it was Arabic. Other natives of Malta have persuaded themselves, and tried to persuade others, that it is a relic of the Punic. Hence we have Agius de Soldania's book, *Della Lingua Ponica, presentemente usata da' Maltesi, ovvero nuovi documenti, li quali possono servire di lume all' antica lingua Etrusca*, (In Roma 1750, 8vo.) and not long ago, Bellermann's *Phaniscie (lingue vestigio-*

ARABIA

shimsh: *ān*, an eye; *āyūn*, *āyūn*, and *āyūn*, eyes: so in *Ethiopic*, *ān*, an eye; *āyūn*, eyes; *debr*, a mountain, pl. *āyūn*. Something like this is found in the widely extended language of the Berbers, in North Africa, e.g. *edrus*, a mountain; *idrus*, mountains. Our own irregular phrase, mice, from mouse; teeth and feet, from tooth and foot, bear an apparent, not a real resemblance to these.

* Algebra, from *al-mukābalaḥ wa'l-jabr*; juxtaposition and intervention. *Zāh* (l. e. *arrah*) *al-samī' rāḥ*, that which is immediately over the head. *Asimāḥ*, so-somit, the direction or path; *asimāḥ*, *asimāḥ*-samt, corresponding with, opposite to the *asimāḥ*; *asimāḥ*, from *al-asmāḥ*, the upper part of a chemical still; *alcali*, from *al-kālī*, ashes of samphire; *julep*, from *jūḥḥ*, rosewater; *rob*, from *rub*, the impregnated juice of fruits, (these two are Persian words introduced into the Arabic.) A few other Arabic words, through the medium of the Spaniards or the Italians, have also found their way into the English; as *magazine*, from *makhḥan*, a treasury; and *alcove*, from *al-kubbaḥ*, a hut or hemispherical tent made of skins, and thence a building covered with a dome; cotton, from *kuṭūn*; *unsin*, (in French, *noosin*;) from *muṣṣin*, brought from *Mūsā*, in Mesopotamia; *dimity*, from *dumyāt*, made at *Damietta*, celebrated for its manufactures of cotton cloths (see *Geograph. Nubien.*) In Spain many names of places, and rivers, and edifices, are of Arabian origin; e.g. *Guadalquivir*, *Wād' al-kabīr*, the great river; *Alextoria*, *Alexandria*; *rah*, the bridge; *Alcazar*, *al-kasr*, a castle; *alguzal*, *al-wal*, an officer of justice.

ARABIA. rum in *Meliteni* Spec. 1. (Berolin. 1809): but very little, if any of the present Maltese can be referred to that source, and Giesenheim has given some very cogent reasons for believing that the Punic differed little, if at all, from the Hebrew. (*Geschichte der Hebr. Spr.* 1815. p. 229.)

There is as great, or a greater difference in the pronunciation of different letters, as in the phraseology of remote dialects. Below we have given a tabular view of the principal variations noticed by writers on this subject.¹ The dialects of the modern Arabic, hitherto distinctly characterised are the following ones — 1. The Syrian distinguished by the first peculiar words, the prefixing of *h* or *m* to the first person future, and a softer enunciation than the Egyptian.² 2. The Egyptian, which is, on the whole, purer and more strictly grammatical than the Syrian; one of its peculiarities is the pronunciation of *jīm* and *kīt* like *g*; another the use of *maye* for *mā*, water.³ 3. That used at Tripoli and Tunis; which, to judge from the specimens found in Capt. Lyon's Travels, must be very corrupt.⁴ The sounds of elip and *āin* seem to be confounded, and a multitude of foreign words are current.⁵ That of Algiers and Morocco which comes very near to the Tripolitan.⁶ 4. The dialect of Yemen, some account of which may be found in Niebuhr.⁷ 5. That of Omān and the eastern parts of Arabia.⁸ The Mapulian, spoken by an Arabian colony, on the coast of Malabar, (Adelung's *Mithridates*, i. 413), rests on no good authority, and the dialect of Melidan, (*Ibid.* p. 382, iv. 119), is pure Arabic, if it resemble the specimen given by D'Avity. The traveller, Ibn Batūta, mentions a dialect used

by the people of Felh'an, in the territory of Sheh'r, which adds the syllable *lā* to every word.⁹

"The only monuments of old Arabian history are collections of poems;"¹⁰ versification must therefore have been introduced among the Arabs at an early period, and though the earliest works on Prosody were written under Harūn ar-rashīd, the principles of the art must have been known and practised long before. Al Khatel, Ibn Ah'med, al Ferhīdī,¹¹ the first metrical writer of whom we read, flourished at the close of the 8th century. He probably was the first who collected and arranged the laws of prosody, for poems are still extant anterior to the age of Mahomet, more than 200 years before the time of this writer, and the measure of those poems is correct according to the rules laid down in the Arabian prosody, which could not therefore be a mere invention of the grammarians, as Pococke seems hastily to have concluded.¹² Their tents, which, like the palm and the camel, productions of their deserts, supplied them with so many poetic images, and metaphorical expressions, suggested the technical terms of this art. Every verse, or distich, called *Beit* or *Tent*, consists of two hemistichs or *misrā'ah*, wings of a folding-door; each of which corresponds with the other in measure, and frequently, as in Hebrew, in sentiment and expression. All the distichs of the same poem have a similar measure and termination, or *kāfiyeh*; and in the ghazals or sonnets, and *kāsidahs* or elegies, the two first hemistichs also rhyme. In more ancient poems, that is the case with every line. The rules for forming the rhyme are more rigid among the Arabs than among ourselves. The agreement in sound should extend at least to the three last letters, and from the terminating letter, the poem itself often receives its name. Thus we have the *Lāmiyyāt* l'Arab, or Arabian Elegy ending in *L*, of Toghrāvi, and the *Nūniyyah*, or verses ending in *n*, by Ibn Zaidūn. The metres, or section of the verses (*ijzā'*) consist of three or five syllables, called, *sebec* or *wetud*; i. e., ropes or stakes—to stretch or pin down the sides of the *beit* or *tent*; and the principle by which the quantity of each syllable is determined is a very simple one; every syllable, consisting of a consonant followed by a short vowel, forms a short foot; if another consonant be added, a long foot is formed; thus *me* is a short syllable, *med* a long one, and *medīdūn* is a bacchius; *medfūnn* a molossus. The syllables, marked as having long vowels in our characters, fall under the above rule, since the quiescent letters are considered as consonants by the Arabian grammarians. The different kinds of versification, or metres, are called *Bah'ūr*, *seas*, and are sixteen in number, with various subdivisions according to their length and licences. Besides their regular and proper versification, the Arabs delight in rhyming cadences, and a sort of irregularly-measured prose. It is the constant recurrence of such beauties which constitutes one of the transcendent merits of the Koran in the estimation of the Asiatics. Another rhetorical figure, in which they delight, is the *paronomasia* or play upon words, and the antithesis in

* 1. *ā = e*

ث *th = f, j.* in Egypt, Barbary, and Syria.

ج *j = g* in Egypt, at Maest, &c.

ح *ch = d* in Egypt and Syria.

ض *'d = z* among the Turks and Persians.

ظ *z = c* in Asia Minor and Persia; *d* in Egypt and Barbary.

غ *gh = r* or *rg* amongst the Moors.

خ *h = g* in the west, as Barbary, Egypt, &c.

ك *k = ch* at Masket; *ky* among the Turks.

The Turks also pronounce some vowels and the final consonants differently from the Arabs, but they are foreigners, and their pronunciation does not properly belong to our present subject. Those who wish for further information on this point, will find it in De Sacy's *Grammaire Arabe*, l. p. 18, sq. Vahl's *Elementarbuch*, p. 54. Arab. *Anthologie*, p. 12, sqq. Herbel's *Principes*, Pref. li. sqq. Ardy's *Arab. Gram.* Savary's *Grammaire Arabe*, par Langlès. Domby's *Gram. Manro-Arabica*.

¹ See Ardy's *Arab. Gram.* Gr. Arab. *Morentium*, Anton. ab Aquila *Arab. ling. novæ et method. Institut.* Fabriva *ovære* *Dictionario della lingua volgare Arabica dal P. Germano de Silens, &c.*

² Savary's *Grammaire de l'Arabe Vulgaire*, published by Langlès. Ruyff *Dictionnaire Français Arabe*.

³ Lyon's *Travels in Northern Africa*, postm.

⁴ Tully's *Narrative of a Ten Years' Residence at Tripoli*.

⁵ Domby's *Gram. Manro-Arabica*.

⁶ Niebuhr's *Rechtschreibung von Arabisch*, p. 83, sqq.

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Misc. d'Orient*, l. p. 47.

⁹ Sir W. Jones in *As. Res.* 2. 14. 8vo.

¹⁰ Cleric *Præf. Arab.* p. 2.

¹¹ Pococke, *Spec. II. A.* p. 160.

ARABIA, which the different members of the same sentence exactly correspond with each other. For more particular information on these subjects, the reader may refer to Sir William Jones's *Poetical Asiatick Commem-*

tarii, Lond. 1774, part ii. c. 2., p. 29, 77. Clerici *ARABIA. Tractatus de Prosodia Arabica*, Oxon. 1661, 12mo. Gladwin's *Dissertations on the Rhetoric, Prosody and Rhyme of the Persians*, Calcutta, 1798. *ARACE.*

ARABIC GUM. See GUM.

ARABICI, a sect that sprang up about the year 907, whose lending tenet was, that the soul died with the body and rose again with it. Eusebius lib. vi. c. 37, relates that a council was called to stop the progress of this rising sect, at which Origen attended, and by his eloquence and learning induced its leaders to abjure their error.

ARABIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Tetradynamia, order Siliculosae. Generic character. Silique linear, crowned with the nearly sessile stigma; valves veined or nerved. Seeds in one row. Cotyledons accumbent. Calyx erect. Brown, *Hort. Kew.*

Several species of this genus are natives of Britain.

ARABLE, } Aro, to plough; which Tooke de-
ARATION, } rives from the A. S. Erian; to ere, to plough.

That may be erod or ploughed.

The most part of the *arable* land within the territory of Rome, was become heathy and barren for lack of ploughing, for that they had no time nor men to cause corn to be brought them out of other countries to sow.

Norri's Plutarch.

It would suffice, if, after the manner of halls in Oxford, there were only four professors constituted to teach those four parts of it. (agriculture) first, *aration*, and all the things relating to it. Secondly, &c.

Cowley's Essay on Agriculture.

But if the sullen earth, so press'd, repines
Within its native mansion to retire,
And stays without, a heap of heavy mire;
Tis good for *arable*, a plow that asks
Tough teams of oxen, and laborious tasks.

Dryden's Virgil, Geor. 2.

Lo, how the *arable* with barley-grain
Stands thick, o'ershadow'd, to the thirsty land
Transporting prospect!

Philips's Cyder.

Some laws had been enacted during the reign of Henry VII. against depopulation, and converting of *arable* lands into pasture.

Hume's History of England.

ARABO-TEDESCO, a style of architecture exhibiting a mixture of the Moorish or low Grecian, with the German Gothic.

ARAC, or ARRACK, a spirituous liquor imported from the East Indies, chiefly used in punch. The name *arac* is said to be a generic name for all ardent spirits in the East Indies; but that which we know by the name, is a spirit produced by distillation from a vegetable juice, called *toddy*, which flows by incision out of the cocoa-nut tree, and some others.

ARACAN, ARAKAN, RACKAN, ROSSUAN, GREEKIN, or Moo, a country of Asia, situated on the Bay of Bengal, to the east of the mouth of the Ganges. It is bounded on the north by Meckley, on the east by the Birman empire, and on the south by Pegu. It extends from the river Naff to Cape Negrais, and is nearly surrounded by the lofty range of mountains called Anoupectoumoun. Aracan is one of the finest regions in India; its climate is salubrious, its soil

highly productive, intersected with numerous rivers, and rich in valuable mines. The southern part is wild and uncultivated, inhabited by tigers and other wild animals; but Schooter describes the northern parts as having been, before it had been ravaged by foreign and intestine wars, one of the most beautiful and best populated countries in the world.

The trade of Aracan was formerly in the hands of the Dutch and Portuguese, but it is now chiefly carried on by the Mahometans, who exchange the produce of the country, which consists in cloths, spices, iron, porcelain, &c. for whatever articles the natives esteem valuable.

These last are distinguished by large and flat foreheads, which is produced in infancy by artificial means. Their nostrils are extremely large, and their ears so long as almost to reach their shoulders. The common food of the inhabitants is mice, but the delicacies of their table are rats, serpents, and various other vermin. They are worshippers of Boodha, and maintained their independence until the year 1783, when the country was conquered by the emperor of Ava, and annexed to the Birman empire. See *Symes's Embassy to Ara*, in 1795. *Pinkerton's Geography*, vol. li.

ARACAN, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, is about 50 miles from the sea, and is a place of great strength, according to Indian notions of fortification. The population is now 16,000; but it is said to have formerly been one of the most magnificent cities in the east, containing 160,000 inhabitants, 600 temples, magnificent palaces, and to have been 15 miles in circumference. The city is traversed by the river Aracan, which, notwithstanding many difficulties that endanger its navigation, forms a beautiful harbour, capable of containing vessels of almost any magnitude. The principal inconvenience to which it is exposed, proceeds from the violence of the tides, which rise from 15 to 30 feet. E. lon. 95° 6'. N. lat. 80° 47'.

ARACANGA, in Ornithology, a species of *Pastinaca* or parrot.

ARACARI, in Ornithology, a species of *Rhamphastos*. ARACE. Fr. *arracher*, *evellere*. Skinner, to tear up, or away, from *eradicare*. Menage, to tear up by the roots.

Arace, v. Fr. to draw away by force. Tyrrwhit.

G. Douglas, renders *renovere*, and *lacerare*, to *arace*.

So at the last the shaft of tre
I drench out with the fetters there
But yet the loked hedge iwin
The which beauty ealed is
Gan so depe in mine heart pace
That it is might not erre
But in mine heart still it stood
All bled I not a drop of blood.

Chaucer Remount of the Rose, fol. 124. a. 2

ARACE.

ARAFAT.

And in hire wrough so sully hohlieth she
Hire children two, when she gan leen embrace,
That with greet sleight and greet difficultie
The children from hire arm they gan erre.

Id. The Clerk's Tale, v. l. p. 365.

ARACHIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dialephilia, order Decandria. Generic character. Calyx bilabiate. Corolla resupinate. Filaments united. Legumes gibbous, torulose, veined, carinaceous.

The *A. apogosa*, American earth-nut, or Pindars, is a native of South America.

ARACHNIDES, in Zoology, a class of animals, placed between the crustacea and insects, and including the Linnean genera oniscus, julus, scolopendra, lepisma, podura, pediculus, scorpion, aranea, phalangium, acarus, hydrachna. See ZOOLOGY.

ARAD, a town of Hungary, divided into two parts by the river Marosch. It is remarkable for a bloody battle fought near it, in 1685, between the Turks and the Imperialists, in which the army of the former was totally destroyed or taken prisoners.

ARAD-VÁRMEGYE, a county in Hungary, 48 miles long, and from 9 to 14 broad. On the south it is bounded by the river Marosch, which separates it from Temeswar, on the north by the county of Sarand, on the west by that of Ichanad, and on the east by Transylvania. A great proportion of it is mountainous, woody, and full of game. The vallies are fruitful, and the sides of the hills covered with vineyards, which produce a pleasant liquor. The cattle are in good condition, and the agriculture is much on a level with that practised in the rest of Hungary. The inhabitants are mostly Wallachians, who, whether in internal troubles or foreign wars, have always preserved their attachment to the reigning house. The rest of the population is made up of Hungarians, Germans, and Armenians. In the whole county there are six market towns and 41 villages, six Catholic, and 42 Greek parishes. It contained in 1787, along with the county of Sarand, 152,930 inhabitants.

ARADUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order Hemiptera, family Cimicidae.

Generic character. Antennae cylindrical, inserted into the sides of the anterior prothoracic portion of the head. Body much depressed, membranaceous. Head stretched out, elongated at the fore part. Thorax having the margins often eroded or denticulated.

AREOMETER, from *areos*, rare, and *metron*, a measure; is the name of an instrument invented for measuring the density or specific gravity of fluids. See CRYMISTRY.

AREOPAGUS, see AREOPAGUS.

ARAFAT, the hill or mountain near Mecca, which is visited by all the pilgrims of the Hôj, on pilgrimage to the Kâbah. It is properly an elevated mound to the east of the Sacred Mosque, and the district round it extends along the vale of Urah to the mountains opposite to the "Walls of the Beoi Ahair," and El Mâsimain in Ifjâz. Its name is derived from the assemblage of the pilgrims there, recognizing each other, or a fable respecting the unexpected meeting of Adam and Eve, after an absence of some centuries. Mount Arafat is surrounded by a wall, and ascended by staircases, partly cut in the rock, and partly composed of masonry. On the

VOL. XVII.

summit is a chapel, believed by the orthodox Mahometans to have been built by Adam; but the interior was demolished by the Wahabees in 1807. There are fourteen large tanks or basins of water at its base. A grand day of pilgrimage to the Mount being appointed, the whole devotees who have visited Mecca, as well as multitudes from the surrounding country, resort thither. On the 17th of February 1807, this ceremony was performed by the astonishing assemblage of 80,000 men, 3000 women, and 1000 children; in whose service were employed about 70,000 camels, horses, and asses. The hill, and its whole environs, were covered by this vast multitude, of which one portion consisted of 45,000 Wahabees mounted, and almost entirely naked. The pilgrims must approach the foot of the hill to await the setting of the sun; and an evening prayer must also be said an hour and a half afterwards, at a chapel six or seven miles distant, not later than the last moment of twilight. A dreadful noise and tumult ensues as the sun disappears, from such a disorderly assemblage of people hastening to fulfil this injunction; and, contrary to expectation, few accidents happen, though the way leads through a narrow valley. See D'Herbelot *Bibliothèque Orientale*, *Art. Arafat*; Schultens *Ind. in Hist. Timuri*.

ARATSE A. S. arecian, to raise. See RAISE.

Homicide is also in yering of wicked conceit by fraud, as for to yere caused to arise wrongful customs and talvage.

Chaucer. The Pervous Tale, v. l. p. 330.

And but if thou yearlyly mayest waiste out of thy wit, this figure amonesteth thee that asketh the heauen with thy right vinger, and hastenest thy forbedde, to becomen up on high thy countrey, so thy thought be not bestridde, be put low vnder foot, with that the body is so high arched.

Id. Boecius, book v. fol. 243. c. 2.

—Whose simple touch
Is powerful to awe King Pippin, nay
To give great Charlemaine a pen in his hand
And write to her a love line.

Shakespeare's All's Well that Ends Well, fol. 235.

ARAL, next to the Caspian, the largest lake in Asia, extending from 43° to 47° N. Lat., and 58° to 69° E. Long. Its length is from 60 to 70 geographical miles; its breadth, which, on the southern, is twice as great as on the northern side, never more than 30; its circumference about 150. Its name signifies "the Lake of Eagles." It is separated by a sandy isthmus, from 150 to 200 geographical miles wide, from the Caspian, and has all the peculiarities of that internal sea. Sturgeons (*Acipenser Sturio*), Husoes (*Acip. Huso*), and Sea Dogs (*Squali*), are the fish most commonly found there. It is placed in the midst of Steppes or sandy deserts, and has no creeks or havens, so that it is only navigable by flat-bottomed boats; and is so separated from all other regions by barren wastes, occupied by hordes of predatory tribes, that it is little used in a commercial view, though two large rivers, the Amû (Jah'ûn or Oxus) and Sirr (Jaxartes), discharge their waters into it. It is filled with islands, and is for that reason called, "the Sea of Islands" by the Tartars. Its level is said to be lower than that of the Caspian, and the same difficulty, with regard to the absorption of their superfluous waters, occurs in both. It appears rather to have diminished than increased in size. Ibn H'sâkal, an Arabian geographer of the

ARAL.
ARANEA.

10th century, is the first modern writer who mentions it, and calls it the Lake of Khwarezm. Jenkinson, who travelled in Bukharia in 1820, speaks of it as being probably distinct from the Caspian, and yet his observations were entirely overlooked by the geographers of the 16th century. It is probably the Lake Oxianes of Ptolemy, in lat. 45, and the Oxia Palus of Ammianus Marcellinus, though the ancients commonly supposed the Oxus and Jaxartes, to flow into the Caspian, whence some have been inclined to infer that the Aral did not exist, as a separate body of water, at so early a period; and as they speak of many stagnant pools and marshes near their entrance into the Caspian, it is not unlikely that their original course has been changed by the accumulation of alluvial matter, and the basin of the Aral separated from the Caspian, by this accretion of the soil between them. The saltiness of the water, marine productions, and sandy bottom of this and the Caspian, are difficult to account for, except on the supposition of their having, in very remote times, formed a part of the Mediterranean. There are still extant strong indications of the ancient junction between this Lake and the Caspian, in the narrowest part of the Isthmus between them, which does not exceed 80 geographical miles. *Arr. na*, lii. 29, 30, p. 145, 149; vii. 16, p. 295. *Ptolem. Geogr.* vi. c. 12. *Am. Marcell.* 23, 6. *Larcher, Herod.* 8: 338. *Kephalides* in *Ersch and Gruber's Encycl.* *Sainte Croix, Exam. des Hist. d'Alexand.* p. 195. *Rennell's Geogr. of Herod.* p. 132.

ARALIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pentandria, order Pentagynia. Generic character. Involucre bearing an umbel. Calyx five-toothed, superior. Corolla of five petals. Berry five-seeded. *Botanical Magazine*, 1085.

This genus occurs both in the old and new world. Two species have been employed in medicine but have not attained any great celebrity. *Dr. Coxe's American Dispensary*.

ARANEA, in Entomology, the spider: a genus of the class Arachnides, order Acera, family Araneides.

Generic character. Eyes eight, disposed in two transverse lines, near each other, and bent somewhat backwards. Maxillæ straight, longitudinal, of equal breadth, apex rounded, inner angle truncated. Lip nearly quadrate, of about equal length and breadth, becoming gradually a little narrower towards the superior angles. The fourth and first pairs of feet of nearly equal length, and longer than the second.

The habits of the different species of spiders, are, perhaps as interesting as those of almost any other tribe of animals; and the ingenuity with which some of them form their beautiful geometrical web, has in all ages excited the admiration of the most casual observers of nature, and supplied allusions and illustrations to the moralist and the poet.

There are two distinct kinds of web formed by different species. The one consisting of a close gauze-like texture, the other of a number of regular radii diverging from a centre, and decussated by a series of concentric circles, and to which the term net may be properly applied. The Linnæan genus *Aranes* has been necessarily divided into many genera, of which the one now under consideration retains the name, and of which the common house spider (*Aranea do-*

mestica) is the type. The web constructed by this *ARANEA*, species belongs to the first description, and the manner in which this destructive snare is formed is exceedingly ingenious and interesting.

On a careful examination, four papillæ or spinners are found at the extremity of the abdomen. These constitute the machinery by which "the fine attenuated thread" is spun. Each of them is pierced by foramina so extremely minute, that according to the most accurate microscopic observations, not less than a thousand are found in each; through every one of these passes a thread of almost inconceivable tenuity, those of each papilla immediately uniting, and at about the tenth of an inch from their origin the four again combine, and form the continuous line of which the web is ultimately composed, and which consists therefore of at least four thousand different threads.

The spider having selected a convenient situation, and paced the ground to ascertain its extent, proceeds in the following manner to the formation of the web. She presses the papillæ against the surface, and thus one extremity of the thread is fixed to it. From this spot she walks to the opposite side, and there fastens the other end. In order to strengthen this important part of her work, she passes and repasses along this first thread, adding another to it at each turn; and thus renders it strong enough to give a degree of firmness and support to the whole. From this she draws other threads in every possible direction, and fills up the interstices with a close irregular gauze-like net-work. In places where there is sufficient room, in addition to this net, several finely drawn threads are carried up to some support above; in these the prey becomes slightly entangled, and by its exertions to escape rarely avoids being precipitated into the snare below. The web being thus completed, a close silken apartment is constructed below it, in which the spider sits concealed watching for her prey. From the edge of this hole to that of the web, several other threads are drawn, which not only give notice by their vibration of the capture of a fly, but along which also the spider runs with equal swiftness and safety to seize it.

The manner in which the net of the geometrical spiders is constructed, differs materially from this account, but is perhaps still more curious; it is described under the article *EREISA*.

The construction of the web is not the only interesting circumstance in the economy of the spider. The attachment of these insects to their young, and the astonishing efforts which they make to retain possession of their hag of eggs when attacked, rather suffering themselves to be destroyed than to be deprived of their future progeny, are equally extraordinary. See the article *DOLOMERA*.

Strongly opposed however to this trait of disposition, is the furious hostility they evince towards each other. Two of them rarely meet without a combat, which usually terminates only with the death of one of them. And what is remarkable, this is more particularly the case with the female, who, even the instant after her union with the male, attacks him with such violence that nothing but a hasty flight can possibly save him from furnishing a nuptial meal to his unnatural mate. *De Geer* says, that he has been filled with indignation and horror at witnessing a

ARANEÆ.

ARAN-
JUEZ.

male spider seized in the midst of his preparatory exercises, enveloped in a web, and instantly devoured.

The courage of the araneæ domestica, however, is not at all commensurate with its ferocity. Bonnet relates some interesting observations on this subject, from which it would appear, that one of a much smaller species will frequently drive it from the possession of a newly-taken fly, although the usurper has not any intention of feeding on the prey himself, and that this curious manœuvre is sometimes repeated several times. See Bonnet, *Observations sur les Insectes*, p. 45, 46.

Spiders which are naturally of the web spinning tribe, have the power of assuming the habits of the predacious species when deprived of any of their legs which are essential to the proper formation of their web. Sir Joseph Banks observed one in which this change of economy had taken place in consequence of such a loss; and what is more remarkable, the animal after changing his skin, was found to have renewed the lost legs, though but imperfectly. Another change or two however completed the restoration of these organs, and the spider then recommenced his former habits, spinning his web and entrapping his prey in the natural manner. An interesting account of this fact is given by Dr. Lesch in the *Linnæan Transactions*.

ARANEUS, aranea, which Vossius thinks is from the Hebrew *arug*, texere.

Araneux, Fr. Fall of spiders, spinners; or of cobwebs, Cotgrave.

Its curious *araneæ* membrane that contracteth and dilateth it, and so varieth its focus (if any such variation there be, so some affirm with great probability.)

Dorland's Physico-Theology, 1737. 101.

ARANJUEZ, a beautiful palace belonging to the kings of Spain, situated on an island formed by the Tagus, the Xarama, and a canal, in the province of Toledo, 6½ Spanish leagues from Madrid. The country in which it stands is one of the most delightful in Spain. The ground was appropriated to the purpose by Charles I. and the foundation laid by his son Philip II. Succeeding monarchs (in particular Ferdinand VI. and Charles III.) contributed their share to its enlargement and embellishment. This palace is remarkable, not for its magnitude, but for combining various claims to admiration, on the score of beauty and interest. It contains an excellent collection of paintings, of ancient and modern busts, marble staircases, superb mirrors from the manufactory of St. Ildelfonso, and an apartment filled with beautiful specimens of porcelain from the works at Madrid. But even these are exceeded in interest by the gardens, which are in the form of a star, and excite the admiration of every observer. The elm-tree alleys are particularly fine, being so wide that four carriages can go abreast, while between each double row there flows a small canal. The main alley is between 600 and 700 paces long and 12 feet broad, and is enclosed with a lofty hedge. At every 70 or 80 paces are resting places in the form of squares or hexagons, while fountains and jets d'eau play beautifully in every corner. The water is brought by an aqueduct from the small lake called Mar de Ontigola, about a mile distant. Near this lake is the village of Ontigola, the usual residence of foreign ministers,

when the court is at Aranjuez. The common practice is for the court to move hither a little after Easter, and to remain till the end of June. In July and August the air becomes unwholesome, and engenders violent fevers. The adjoining town of Aranjuez was at first an inconsiderable village, and is indebted for its enlargement and present importance to Ferdinand VI. It is built somewhat in the Dutch style, in conformity to a model laid down by government, who make over lots of ground to those who undertake to build according to the prescribed plan. Broad and parallel streets, with fine pavements, here intersect each other at right angles. The houses are built in the simplest form, two stories high, painted white, with green doors and window-shutters, and double rows of trees planted before them. The principal church stands in the great square, along with the Franciscan monastery, and covered market place. The inhabitants are comfortable, and even opulent, deriving handsome incomes from the expenses of the court, and from letting part of their houses. The high road from Aranjuez to Madrid is constructed on the model of the ancient Roman roads, and each mile is said to have cost three millions of reals (233,250. sterling.) It was begun under Ferdinand VI. Population of the town, during the residence of the court, about 10,000.

ARARAT, a district of Armenia, on the right side of the Araxes (Er-rus), southwards from Erivan, containing the lofty mountain of the same name. It was anciently called Bacia. The eastern tradition of its having been the resting place of the ark is firmly believed by the Armenians and Persians, who therefore call it Kūhi Nūh, the mountain of Nōuh. It forms an angle of one of the branches of Caucasus; its summit is almost inaccessible; Tournefort and other travellers have made fruitless attempts to reach it. A considerable depression on one side has much the appearance of a crater, and Reineggis affirms, that he witnessed an eruption from it, which lasted three days; but this is one of the many fables with which that traveller has embellished his book. There is a miserable convent at the foot of the crater, and shepherds inhabit the skirts of the mountain, which they regard with a sacred horror, and have the same superstitious dread of attempting to reach its summit, that their neighbours at Stephan Zminda have of trying to ascend the highest peak of Elhoruz. It is visible at Echmiadzian, many miles distant, and from a common optical deception, often appears very near. See Tournefort, Reineggis, Macdonald Kinneir, Morier, Parret, and Engelhardt; Gardanore, &c.

ARAS, anciently ARAXES, a river of Asia, over which the ancients believed a bridge could not be thrown. It rises in Armenia, in the mountain Bim Girel, or Mountain of the Thousand Streams, 20 miles south of Erzerum, and flowing to the east, takes a south-easterly course, in 45° E. lon. 40° N. lat. which is continued to about 39° 15' N. lat. It then flows to the north-east, and bounding the province of Azerbaijan, in Persia, joins the Kur, on the north side of the plain of Mogan, in about 48° 30' E. lon. 40° 5' N. lat. 50 miles from the Caspian sea. Its course is extremely rapid, but fordable in many places during summer. About 60 or 65 miles north of Tabriz it is crossed by a fine bridge, built by Shah Abbas the Great.

ARAN-
JUEZ.
ARAS.

ARAU.
— ARBELA.

ARAU. A small town of Switzerland, in the canton of Aargau, lying on a hill on the Aar, with inhabitants who profess the reformed faith. A covered bridge serves to unite the two sides of the river. The trade and the manufactures of linen, cotton, and silk are considerable, for the size of the place, which hardly contains more than 2000 inhabitants. It became subject to the canton of Berne, in 1415, and has been commonly chosen for the general assembly of the Protestant cantons. Here was concluded, in 1712, a peace between Zurich and Berne, and here too were held the last general meetings of all the cantons in 1797 and 1798. During the revolution which followed, it was at different times the seat of the Helvetic government; and, since the erection of Aargau into a separate canton, it has been its chief town. 30 miles N. N. E. of Berne. Lon. 7° 54' E. Lat. 47° 23' N.

ARAUCANIAN, a barbarous nation of Indians, of the kingdom of Chili, who inhabit that delightful country situate between the rivers Biobio and Valdivia, and between the Andes and the sea, extending from 36° 44', to 39° 50', of S. lat. They derive their appellation of Araucanians from the province of Arauco, which, though the smallest in their territory, has given its name to the whole nation. They are enthusiastically attached to their independence, and pride themselves in being called Auen, which signifies frank or free. They are the implacable enemies of the Spaniards, who have never been able to reduce or subject them.

For an interesting account of this people see *Matteo Saggio sulla Storia Naturale del Chili*, Bologna 1728; and his *Saggio sulla Storia Civile del Chili*; both of which works have been translated into English. See also Raynal's *History of the East and West Indies*.

ARAUCARIA, in Botany, a genus of trees, belonging to the coniferous tribe.

ARBA, or ARBE, an island in the Gulf of Quarnero, in the Adriatic, off the coast of Croatian Littoral, which has belonged successively to Hungary, Venice, and Austria. It is about 30 Italian miles in circuit, and contains 4000 inhabitants, whose dwellings are scattered in various parts of the island. The part next the coast of Morlachia is mountainous, and uninhabited; but the four great valleys are uncommonly pleasant and fruitful. Besides corn and olives, they yield excellent wine and figs; but the severity of the climate in winter and spring, and especially the sharp north wind, often blasts the prospects of the husbandman. Hides, wool, sheep, hogs, fish, and excellent horses, are its principal exports.

ARBELA, a town in a plain of eastern Assyria, between the Lycus (Great Zab), and the Tigris (Little Zab). It was of great antiquity, and ascribed to different founders. It is ten miles to the east of the village of Gaugamela, where Alexander completely defeated Darius. A few days journey to the south of Arbela, there are some springs of naphtha. The ancient name of this town is still preserved in the modern Arbil (or Erbil), it is now in a state of great decay, consisting of a few ruinous houses, of sun-burnt brick, round a hill on which there is a castle garrisoned by a body of Janissaries, and a Dizdar or Commander under the orders of the Pasha of Bagdad. It is placed in 36° 11' N. L., by Niebuhr.

(Strab. xvi. Steph. Byz. Niebuhr, ii. p. 342. Otterboyl, ii. 245).

ARBALIST, } Fr. arbaliste. Bar. Lat. arcu-
A'RBALIST, } bulist, from arcus, a bow, and
A'RCULIST, } bulist, from bellus, to cast,
A'RCULIST, } shoot; one who casts or shoots
from a bow; a bow-man, an archer.

So great power of bulke lond & of France he none
Myd hym in to Exagelond, of knyghts & of myghtys,
Sperman aunte & bowmen, & al so arbalistys.

R. Gloucester, p. 278.

Meo seine over the wall stond
Great egion, who were nerechond
And in the hercelis here and there
Of arbalistors great plenty were.

Chaucer, *The Romance of the Rose*, fol. 135. c. 4.

Within XX. dayes after, he won the sayd castell, to y^e great
loue of meo on both parties, and toke prysoners there wth.
XXXVI. knyghtis, besyde the other nombre of yowen and
arbalistors.

Fabyan, p. 315.

An arbalaster, (or archiballiter) standing upon the wall, & securing his time, charged his steele bow with a square arrow or quarrell, making first his prayer to God, That he would direct that shot, and deliver the innocency of the besieged from oppression.

Sperdy, *Richard I.*

It is an historical fact, that Richard was killed by the French from the shot of an arbalist, a machine which he often wore skilfully with his own hands.

Warrior, *Hist. Eng. Poet.*

ARBITER, v.

A'RBITER, v.

A'RBITERABLE, v.

A'RBITERARY, v.

A'RBITERADLY, v.

A'RBITERARINESS, v.

ARBITERADNESS, v.

ARBITERADLY, v.

ARBITERADNESS, v.

ARBITERADLY, v.

ARBITERADNESS, v.

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ARBITERADNESS, v.

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Lat. arbitus; which Vossius and Janus think is from ar for ard, and the ancient bito for eo, to go. The proper meaning of arbitus, being one who goes, to inspect, to examine.

One who examines, tries, determines, judges; an examiner, a judge.

Arbitrator, i. e., iness, ious, iously, are used when the judgment wholly depends upon the uncontrolled will of the arbitus.

The noble lord Hamfrey erle of Stafford, the worshipfull person, Maister William Alnowike keeper of the keynes priy seal, and Raude lords Cromwel, promysing and bechtyng, by the faith of hys body, and wroke of his princehode and knyghts sounce, to do, kepe, observe and fulfill, for hym and hys behalfe, all that shal be declared, ordeined and arbitred, by the forsaide Archebischop, Dukes, bisshoppes.

Hall. Henry VI. fol. 92. c. 1.

[Christe] refused to be so much as a judge or an arbitour, in a temporall matter concerning the diuylgion of a pryuate enuytance betweene two brethren, sayng to the iour, who hath appoynted me iudge or dyuylgion betweene you?

Sir Tho. More's *Workes*, fol. 1300. c. 1.

And this thynges onely suffieth ynough, to destroye the freedom of our arbitus, that is to sayne, of our free will.

Chaucer, *Buccas*, book v. fol. 242. c. 3.

Certes, quod Prudencor, it is an hard thing and right perilous, that a man putte him all outwey in the arbitration and judgement, and in the might and power of his enemye.

Chaucer, *The Tale of Melibee*, v. 3. p. 126.

In the name of God, we Henry Archebischop of Cantuarbury, &c. &c. arbitratours in all manner of causes, &c. betweene the high and worthy prince Hefrey Duke of Gloucester, on the one partie, and the worshipfull father in God, Henry bishope of wychester and Chawmehour of Englande, on the other partie, by either of them for the peacage of the said quarrells and debates, taken and chosen, &c.

Hall. Henry VI. fol. 98. c. 1.

ARBITER. Faery man hath free *arbitrement* to chose good or yuel to per-
form.

Chaucer. Test of Love, book iii. fol. 309. v. 2.

And sire, repute it not amall, that I committe to your charge
& *arbitrement* that thing which Princes ought most to regarde,
that is, to see to whom they commit the nourishing of their
children.

The Golden Bunch.

'Tis not the triall of a woman's wure,
The bitter clamor of two eager tongues,
Can *arbitrate* this cause betwixt us twaine.

Shakespeare's Richard II. fol. 23.

But now, the *arbitrator* of Despaire,
Just Death, kinde Vampiire of mens miseries,
With sweet enlargement doth dissolve me hence.
Shakespeare's Henry VI. fol. 104.

Prepare thy Battell early in the Morning,
And put thy Fortune to the *arbitrament*
Of bloody strokes, and mortall staring Warre.
Shakespeare's Richard III. fol. 201.

Might the child be made *arbitrator* of his own chastisement, do
we think he would award himself so much as one lash?

Bp. Hall's Balm of Gilead.

But in all this, we will see what it is, that was stood upon; an
arbitrable precedence of these churches, in a propriety of order.

Bp. Hall's Polemical Works.

There is no law, that requires a mere *arbitrariness* in the com-
municators

Bp. Hall's Cases of Conscience.

Yet so tender I see some men are of their being subject to *arbi-
trary* government, (that is, the law of another's will, to which
themselves give no consent,) that they care not with how much
dishonour and absurdity they make their king the only man that
must be subject to the will of others.

Eliza Barlike.

Before some indifferent *arbitrators* and friends, the matter was
heard betwixt man and wife, and commonly composed.

Barton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Contrariwise, certain Laodiceans and lukewarm persons think
they may accommodate points of religion by middle ways, and
taking part of both; and willy reconclements, as if they would
make an *arbitment* between God and man.

Bacon's Essay on Unity on Religion.

The purest dialect of the Castilian tongue is held to be in the
town of Toledo, which above other cities of Spain hath this pri-
vilege, to be *arbitress* in the decision of any controversy that may
arise touching the interpretation of any Castilian word.

Howell's Letters.

The sun was sunk, and after him the start
Of Hesperus, whose office is to bring
Twilight upon the earth, short *arbitrator*
'Twixt day and night.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

For what peace will be giv'
To us enslav'd, but custody severe,
And stripes, and *arbitrary* punishment
Inflic'd?

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

I in thy preserving shall rejoice,
And all the best: stand fast; to stand or fall
Free in thine own *arbitrament* it lies.
Perfect walkio, no outward aid require;
And all temptation to transgressen repel.

Milton's Par. Lost, book viii.

Overcome with the earnest prayers of Masanius, who brought
and importuned him to relieve the matter over to Scipio, for to
arbitrate and decide unto whether of the two kings Sophonias
should be awarded.

Holland's Liry.

What shall we think! Can people give away,
Both for themselves and sons, their entire sway.
Then they are left defenceless to the sword
Of each unbounded *arbitrary* lord:
And laws are vain, by which we right enjoy,
If kings unstation'd can those laws destroy.

Dryden's Absolon and Achitophel.

I offer you the combat; you refuse it; all this is done in the
forms of honour. It follows that I am to affront, censure you, or
kick you, at my own *arbitrament*.

Dryden's Amphitryon.

Virgil gives us an example of this, in the person of Meneftius.
He govern'd *arbitrarily*, he was expell'd, and came to the deserved
end of all tyrants.

Dryden's Deck to the Æolis.

When it is said again and again, that faith is *imputed* to right-
eousness, it is plain enough, that no other thing in man was re-
quired thereto; to say, that he is thereby sanctified, or hath gra-
cious habits infused, is uncouth and *arbitrarious*.

Barrow's Sermons.

Obj. 3. Is it not in holy Scripture sometimes asserted, that
God doth act *arbitrarily* and absolutely; dispensing his bounty
and mercy without regard to any quality of men, or deed com-
mitted by them, either in whole, or in proportion.

Barrow's Sermons, v. ii. p. 223.

Do not mistake, and imagine that, while I am only exposing a
prejudice, I am speaking in favour of *arbitrary* power; which
from my soul I abhor, look upon as a gross and criminal viola-
tion of the natural rights of mankind.

Chesterfield, let. clxxvi.

Allice, sea-embrace'd,
The Joy of freedom, dread of treacherous kings,
The destin'd mistress of the subject main,
The *arbitress* of Europe now demands
Thy presence, goddess.

Glover's London, p. 20.

Resolving all events, with their effects
And manifold results, into the will
And *arbitrariness* wise of the Supreme.

Cowper's Poems, p. 42.

Fierce the dispute, whate'er the theme, while she
Fell Discord, *arbitress* of each debate,
Perch'd on a sign-post, holds with even hand
Her undecisive scales.

Cowper's Poems.

It is a sign from Jove.
Now follows war with all its woes again,
Or peace between us, by his fix'd award
For Jove is *arbitrator* of both to man.

Cowper's Iliad, book iv.

ARBITRATION.

ARBITRATION.

ARBITRATION, in Law, is an amicable mode of settling differences, in which by the consent of the parties, they are referred to the decision of some third person or persons, selected by themselves, and invested with more or less authority according to their pleasure. The act, by which the parties refer is called their submission; the person, to whom they refer, the arbitrator, or if there be more than two, the third who is to decide between them, if they differ, is styled the umpire, and the judgment pronounced is the award. Excellent as the trial by jury undoubtedly is as a mode of investigating the truth, and coming to a safe conclusion upon a disputed fact, yet there are some cases to which from its rapidity, and other causes, it is not applicable. Thus when long and complicated accounts are to be examined, it can hardly be expected that twelve men placed at hazard in the jury box, or indeed that any set of men, upon the single *viva voce* statement of the sums by the opposite witnesses, should be able to determine very accurately upon the allowance of particular items, or to strike a nice balance between the contending demands. Again, it will often happen that each of two parties lays claim to the whole of the same thing as a matter of mere right; which under proper regulations might very well suffice for both, and of which it may be ruinous to either to be wholly deprived. A familiar instance of this is the use of a stream of water; yet in such a case the judgment of a court of law can only determine to whom the right belongs; it cannot look to the consequences, nor make a beneficial division of the use between both. For these, and many other reasons, it has been a practice of very early date in this country to refer disputes to arbitration; in this way the parties have the benefit of a more deliberate investigation; if the matter be of a scientific nature, or removed from the common information of men, they may select some one to decide it, whose habits have made him conversant with it; and by investing him with more or less power, they may have a decision less single and unbending than that of the law; prospective in its operations, and limiting in detail the future exercise of the disputed rights.

This submission to arbitration might always take place either before or after the commencement of an action; but convenient as it was in many respects, it laboured in early times under some disadvantages, which for a long time very much diminished its frequency. For (not to mention that the courts of law had established subtle and narrow grounds of construction upon awards, and often set them aside upon mere technical and frivolous objections) it is obvious, that in whatever way the parties had bound themselves to the performance of the award, still the arbitrator was not the judge of any court; there was no process to compel obedience; and therefore an obstinate person might still oblige the other party to resort to his action for the original matter in dispute, or for the breach of the agreement to perform the award. In this case not only was all the benefit of the reference

ARBITRATION.

lost, but delay and expense were occasioned by it; the party's case was disclosed, and perhaps by the death or departure of some necessary witness, a serious ultimate disadvantage was sustained. On the other hand the arbitrator might prove wrong-headed or corrupt; and yet as the parties had voluntarily put themselves upon his judgment, the courts would not permit that to be assigned as an excuse for the non-performance of the award, when an action was brought to enforce it, and the party was compelled to obey, or at a great expense to seek relief in a court of equity.

Both these inconveniences have been gradually removed, partly by the enlarged application of legal principles by the courts of law, and partly by the interference of the legislature. For in the first case, where the submission had taken place after the commencement of an action, the parties were obviously before the court, and within its jurisdiction; a cause was pending, and neither party could regularly or safely suspend the proceedings in the cause, and rely on another jurisdiction, unless by the consent, and under a rule of the court. The judges then made it a part of this rule that the parties should perform the award, when published; and as disobedience to a rule of the court is a contempt of the court, and punishable summarily, as all other contempts, by attachment of the person, the court in this case gained a double power; the one direct, the other incidental, but almost equally beneficial. On the one hand it could enforce performance of the award, without driving the party to a second action; on the other as the exercise of this power was purely discretionary, it could abstain from it, wherever the conduct of the arbitrator could be successfully impeached; and therefore in order to inform its discretion, the court opened its ear to those complaints, which the rules of law prevented it from receiving in the shape of a formal plea to the action. Nor was this negative relief all that was afforded; for in process of time it came to be held, that as the arbitrator acquired the main sanction of his authority from the rule of court, the same rule gave the court a general superintendence over the award; and therefore, though the judges wisely abstained from scrutinizing too nicely the decisions of that authority to which the parties had voluntarily submitted themselves, and refused to examine over again those questions upon which the arbitrator had come to an honest and deliberate opinion; yet, where the award appeared upon the face of it to be illegal, or there was manifest misbehaviour or error in the arbitrator, they not only refused to enforce performance by attachment, but held themselves empowered, if the application was made within a reasonable time, to set aside the award itself. And thus, both inconveniences were removed, and the proceeding rendered complete by the judicious interference of the courts, in cases where the pendency of an action had given them jurisdiction.

This interference of the courts is said to have commenced in the reign of Charles the Second, while Sir

ARBITRATION.

John Kelynge presided in the Court of King's Bench; and it was found so beneficial, that in the reign of William the Third, the legislature resolved to place arbitrations entered into where no action was pending upon the same footing. Accordingly, by the 9th and 10th Will. III. c. 15, it was enacted, in substance, that all persons desiring to end by arbitration any controversy, for which there was no other remedy but by personal action, or suit in equity, might agree that their submission should be made a rule of any of the king's courts of record, and might insert that agreement in their submission; which agreement so inserted might be entered of record in the court, and a rule be thereupon made by the court, that the parties should be finally concluded by the award; and in case of disobedience the party should be subject to all the penalties of contemning a rule of court, unless it should be made appear that the arbitrator misbehaved himself, and that his award was procured by corruption, or other undue means. The second section provides that any award so procured shall be judged of none effect, and accordingly be set aside, so as complaint of such undue practice be made in the court before the last day of the next term after such award made and published to the parties.

This statute gave a complete remedy to the first inconvenience, the want of a power to compel performance; as to which both classes of submissions now stood on the same footing. With respect to the second, the giving relief against an illegal or unjust award, the statute in terms confines the objections to the corruption or undue practice of the arbitrator, and also limits the time for making these objections to the last day of the term following the publication of the award. The courts have construed this clause liberally; they will listen to all such objections as might be taken to an award made under a rule of court at common law; and although no application to set aside an award under the statute can be made after the time limited by the statute; still if an application to enforce it by attachment be made at any time, they will hear the same objections in answer to that application, and use them as reasons, if well founded, to influence their discretion in withholding the attachment. So that, to speak generally, for our limits forbid us from entering into minute distinctions, the course of justice now flows nearly in the same stream in respect of both species of arbitrations.

There is still a case however which remains unaided either by the common law, or under the statute; this is, where parties between whom no suit is pending, agree verbally only to submit their controversy to arbitration. As this case is obviously not within the first class, so it cannot be brought within the second, for the statute clearly contemplates a written agreement. Neither can it be considered necessary or desirable to extend any relief to such a case; for it is perfectly easy for the parties, if they please, to agree in writing instead of verbally; it is far more desirable for the sake of certainty that they should do so; and there might be even some difficulty in reducing to a rule of court an agreement, about the very terms of which the parties might be at variance.

The situation and acts of the parties have hitherto been considered in making the submission, and in enforcing or seeking relief against the award; but it will

often happen that one of the parties even before the making of the award, may desire to withdraw himself from the jurisdiction of the arbitrator. This he may do, at any time before the publication of the award, by a formal revocation of his submission, the instrument of revocation being, however, at least, of as high a nature as that of the submission; for it is a known principle of the law that no instrument can be discharged or revoked by any instrument of less validity and weight than itself. But then it is to be considered that this revocation is in itself a substantial breach of the submission, for which an action may be maintained on the instrument of submission; and if the agreement has been made a rule of court, it is also a contempt of the court, for which the party may be liable to an attachment. In common cases however the court will not interfere; it may be safely laid down, that it never will where the revocation has been made before the rule of court, or in ignorance of it; because then there can have been no real contempt of the court; and where these decisive circumstances do not exist, still unless the revocation appear to have been made in manifest breach of good faith, it has been held preferable to leave the complaining party to his action; and not to punish summarily and conclusively by attachment, what, upon the full investigation and open examination of witnesses at a trial, may appear on the whole to have been justifiable.

Such is in brief a history of the progress, and an account of the nature of the Law of Arbitration; and under the circumstances, with a commerce immensely increased since the passing of the statute of William, and of course generating those disputes, which of all others it is most desirable to refer to arbitration, it can be no wonder that appeals have become daily more frequent to this mode of decision. Not only lawyers, but manufacturers, merchants, and country gentlemen, are constantly called upon to act as judges in these occasional tribunals; and interests of the most serious magnitude and difficulty are often referred to their decision. With this view it may not be improper to close this article with a few observations, which may be of use to such persons in conducting the reference, and in framing the award.

The extent of the arbitrator's power will usually be defined by the instrument of submission under which he acts; that will ordinarily specify, whether he is to decide upon a particular matter in dispute, or on all controversies between the parties; whether he may examine the parties themselves, and call for their books and papers; whether he may assign the costs at his discretion, or is to leave them to the common course of the court; whether he is to be tied up to strict technical rules, or is left more at large either as to admitting the claims of the parties, or the evidence offered in support of them. On these and all other points, whenever the instrument speaks, it is conclusive upon the arbitrator; he has no power to exceed it; but then he must construe it liberally, always remembering that a narrow and timid interpretation of it may tend to defeat the very object for which he is appointed.

Where the instrument of submission refers to him all matters in dispute between the parties, he should not refuse to hear legal evidence adduced by either party upon any point in controversy, on which he

ARBITRATION.

founds a claim against the other. When he has heard it, he may think, perhaps, that it requires no answer from the other side, and that it can form no ingredient in his award; but till he has heard it, it is impossible for him to say how relevant, or how important it may be. This is not only the just, but the safe course. If the claim comes by surprise on the other party, the arbitrator has it in his power to avoid any prejudice accruing to him, by giving him time to produce his evidence in answer to it. The improper refusal to take cognisance of a claim will be a ground for setting aside the whole award, if the objection can be maintained at all; while the introduction of improper matter into it will generally affect it in part only, and leave all that, which is material and relevant, still binding on the parties.

The same principle should guide the arbitrator as to the reception of disputed evidence upon a claim of which the relevancy is admitted. If he rejects it improperly, he can neither say to what extent he may have prejudiced the claim of the party, nor has he any means of remedying the injury, if he should be afterwards convinced of his mistake; but if he receives it improperly, he has an opportunity of reconsidering that determination more at leisure, and if he sees reason to repent of it, it is very easy for him to strike the evidence out of his notes, and to give it no effect in framing his award.

In respect of the examination of the parties themselves, the exercise of that extraordinary, but sometimes necessary, power, and the mode of exercising it are matters, which will often require a very delicate consideration. It may safely be said, however, that it is a power to which he should not resort but in the last instance, and then, not at the request merely of the other party, unless his own mind remains unsatisfied with the result of the previous inquiry. He will probably find it convenient too to conduct this examination himself, and not leave it to the other party.

Where the submission is to an umpire, (in case the arbitrators do not make their award within a given time,) the instrument in general either leaves the choice of such umpire to the arbitrators, or itself nominates him. In the former case, the arbitrators do not determine their own authority by the choice of an umpire; and it is better for many reasons that they should proceed to the choice in the first instance; they are certainly more likely to make a discreet one, before they have come to a disagreement on the terms of the award. In both cases the umpire may sit with the arbitrators from the beginning of the reference; and if it should come to him to make the award, he may of course do so on that hearing of the evidence.

When the examination is closed, the framing the award will be the next subject of consideration, and the preliminary remark to be made on this, is as to the absolute necessity of the publication taking place within the time limited to the arbitrator. It is usual

to give him, (and he should always require it,) a discretionary power of enlarging the time originally fixed, which he may then do by indorsements on the instrument of submission as often as he finds necessary; but when that is not the case, or he fails to exercise the power, his authority expires with the expiration of the prefixed time.

In the matter of the award the arbitrator should be careful not to exceed his jurisdiction, or to direct that to be done, which is either impracticable in itself, or which the party has no legal ability of performing. Particularly he should be cautious not to make the acts which he imposes on one party depend upon the unauthorized or unfeasible commands of the other. For it would be contrary to all reason and justice to sustain an award, and compel one party to perform certain acts under it, when the intended compensation for those acts could not be enforced upon the other.

Neither should the award fall short of the limits of the submission; but it should contain an express adjudication upon every thing submitted to the arbitrator. The inducement to one party to submit a certain controversy to arbitration may have been the procuring the settlement of another; and if the arbitrator determines the one, and takes no notice of that other, the party does not receive that benefit for which he stipulated, and may well seek relief against the award.

Both these rules are founded upon a principle of mutuality, which in former times was pushed to an extreme; the subtilties of the old decisions are now abandoned, but still awards must be mutual so far as is essential to justice; that is, they must show an attention to the claims of both parties, and give to each what they profess to give, effectually and with adequate legal remedies.

The award must be final: that is, it must not refer the parties to any other tribunal to ascertain that which is within the limits of the arbitrator's power to decide. This is a most reasonable rule, for the very object of the reference is to put a solemn and absolute end to the controversy referred.

It is hardly necessary to add, that the award should be expressed with certainty; no reasonable doubt ought to arise upon the face of it as to the intent of the arbitrator. This is a rule that was formerly the subject of much artificial and subtle reasoning. The mode of construction is now more liberal, and a great anxiety is felt by the courts to sustain the decisions of those, whom both parties have voluntarily constituted the judges of their disputes. They do not require the precision or formality of legal language, (indeed it is desirable in all cases that legal terms should be avoided by those who cannot be certain that they shall use them correctly,) but merely that certainty and clearness of expression, with which every man of common sense and common education may declare his intention, when he writes with care, and has a settled and definite intention in his mind.

ARBOGA, a small but very old town of Sweden, in the province of Westmanland, with 1200 inhabitants. It is only the 26th in order of the towns that vote at the diet, but has been not unfrequently the place of session. The senate of Sweden sat there during the

plague at Stockholm, in 1710. Although inconsiderable in size, it is a trading place of some consequence, and stands on a navigable river. A canal, called the canal of Arboga, brings it into communication with Stockholm, through the lake of Mulur, and with

ARBOGA. Orebro, through the lake of Kielmer. The chief objects of trade are saddlery, and the iron wrought in the neighbouring forge at Jader. In the vicinity of the town there is still to be seen a sacred grove, and other remains of Pagan worship. Dr. Thomsen, who travelled through Sweden in 1819, describes the country around Arboga as delightful, and inferior to no part of Sweden. 65 miles W. of Stockholm. Long. 15° 30' E. Lat. 59° 55' N.

ARBOIS, a town of France, in Franche Comté, with 900 houses, and 6420 inhabitants. The environs produce excellent wine. The celebrated Piesgru was a native of this town. 7 leagues N.E. of Lons-le-Saulnier. Long. 5° 51' E. Lat. 46° 54' N.

ARBON, a small town in the Swiss canton of Thurgau, on the lake of Constance, which at one time belonged to the bishop of Constance, and is now the capital of a district. Here is a castle which was the residence of the governor. The inhabitants, however, who are almost all Calvinists, enjoyed great liberties, and are joined in a friendly compact with other places in Switzerland. The parish church is the joint property of the Calvinists and Catholics, six of the town counsellors being of the one denomination, and a like number of the other. It is a place of some trade. 7 miles N. of St. Gall. Long. 9° 47' E. Lat. 47° 30' N.

ARBOR DIANE, this name is given to the result of an amusing chemical experiment, in which silver is precipitated in the metallic state, from its solution in nitric acid, by mercury or an alloy of that metal. The fine spicula of metallic silver having something of the appearance of a tree, gave rise to the appellation. (See *Silver*, Art. *CHIMISTRY*.)

ARBOR PORPHYRIANA, otherwise called *scala pedimentalis* among the school men, was a scale or figure formed by three rows of words, the middle of which contained the genus or species, and on each side the pediments were placed.

ARBOR, in Mechanics, is the principal part of a machine, which supports the rest; also the spindle or axis on which the instrument turns.

A'RBORATOR,

A'RBOROUS,
A'RBORISCENT
A'RBORET,
A'RBORIST,
A'RBOROUS.

Arbor, a tree.
One who plants, who cultivates the growth of trees.

In the time of this work would our ingenious *arborator* frequently incorporate, mingle and unite the arms and branches of some young and flexible trees, which grow in consort, and near to one another.

Evelyn. Sylva.

Yet do I not know / let me speak it with patience of our cunning arborists; any thing within the compass of human affairs so necessary, and so little regarded.

Evelyn. Sylva.

Nomin supposes the tall rose (*arborescent* holliboeks) that bears the broad flower, for the best.

Evelyn.

No dainty flower or herb that grows on ground,

No arborist with painted blossoms dress,

And smelling sweet, but there it might be found

To bud out faire, and her sweet smells throw all around.

Spencer's Fairy Queen.

They surely speak probably who make it an *arborescent* excrement, or rather super-plum, bud of a viscous and superfluous sap, which the tree itself cannot assimilate.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Never he drew, and many a walk travers'd
Of staidest covert, cedar, pine, or palme,
Then voluble and bold, now loud, now even
Among thick-wor'n arborets and flowers
Imborder'd on each bank, the hand of Eve.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

So all was clear'd, and to the field they haste,
But first from under shade arborets root,
Soon as they forth were come to open sight
Of day-spring, and the sun, who scours up even
With wheels yet bor'ring o're the ocean brim.
Shot parallel to the earth his dewy ray,
Discovering in wide landscape all the east,
Of Paradise and Eden's happy plains,
Lowly they bow'd adoring.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

They run
To grots, and caves, and the cool embrace seek
Of woven arborets, and oft the rills
Still streaming fresh revisit.

Philips's Cyder, book i.

ARBORFIELD, in the hundred of Sonning, county of Berks; a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £8; Patron, Richard Hayes, Esq., Church dedicated to St. Bartholomew. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 171. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £325 12s. 4d., at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles W. S. W. from Wokingham.

ARBOR VITÆ. See *TRUJA*.

A'RBOUR, n. s. Commonly derived from arbor, a tree. Dr. T. Hickeys thinks it is air-bower. And Skinner (since Chaucer and others write it herber, that it is from the A. S. Herberg. Mansin, from herebeorgan, herebyrgan, to harbour. See *HARBOUR*.

ARBOUR, is usually applied to a place of retirement in gardens or pleasure grounds formed of trees for shade or shelter.

Deiphobus ran this letter for to valde
In earnest press, so did Helene the Queene
And running outward, that it gonse helde
Downward a stile, into an herber greene.

Chaucer. Troilus, book ii. fol. 166. c. 1.

And so I followed till it me brought
To right a pleasant herber well ywrought
That benched was and with turfs new
Freshly turned whereof the greene grass
So small, so thicke, so short, so fresh of new
That most like unto green wel wet it was
The hegge also that yede in compass
And closed in all the green herber
With vicamour was set and oplate.

Chaucer. The Fluore and the Leofte, fol. 366. c. 1.

At last it led me where an arbore stood,
The sacred receptacle of the wood:—
'Twas bench'd with turf, and goodly to be seen,
The thick young grass arose to fresher green
The mound was newly made, no sight cou'd pass
Betwixt the nice partitions of the grass;
The well-unsod sods so closely lay;
And all around the shades defended it from day.
For vicamours with egantine were spread,
A hedge about the sides, a covering over head.

Jayson, v. iii.

After dinner we walked into y^e garden, and there shortly sitting in an arbor began to go forth in our manner.

See This. More's Works, fol. 177. c. 2.

Others within their arbours swelling sat,
(For all the room about was arboured)
With laughing Bacchus, that was grown so fat,
That stand he could not, but was carried.

G. Fletcher's Poems.

ARBOUR.

ARC.

Are paradise is sent to draw here
 Their gilded carriages, and eke even herbers.
Daughters. Prologue to look xii. p. 401.

Downe fro the tower she gan to runne
 In to no herber all hir orow,
 Where many a wonder woulde haue none
 She made.

Guerr. Can. A. book iv.

For when he on a tyme was fold dead in an herber, a hole of
 curious art was fold vnder his piliere, made by Julius Fir-
 micus, whome he vied to reall to himselfe in the same tyle.

Bale's Fatales.

When this was sayd, they came to the storkes where was a
 quadrant stage where on was an herber full of roses, lillies & all
 other flowers curiously wrought, and byrdes, beastes and all other
 thynges of pleasure. And aboute the herber was made the water
 full of fyshes.

Hall. Henry VIII.

This lady walked on-right, till he might see her enter into a
 fine close arbor: it was of trees, whose branches so lovingly inter-
 branched one the other, that it could resist the strongest violence of
 eye-sight.

Solory's Arcadia.

So to the silvan hedge
 They came, that like Penelope's arbor should
 With flowers deck'd and fragrant smells.

Milton's Par. Lost, book v.

See meads with purling streams, with flow'rs the ground,
 The crocuses cold, with shady poplars crown'd,
 And creeping vines on arbours wend around.

Dryden's Virgil, post. ix.

ARBOREAL, see ARBORVITUS.

ARHUTUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
 Decandria; order Monogynia. Generic character.
 Calyx five partite. Corolla ovate, its base pellucid.
 Berry superior, five celled.

A. Ura Ura. Stems decumbent, leaves entire.

This plant is a native of Britain, and is found
 abundantly in dry, heathy, rocky places in the high-
 lands of Scotland. It has several English names, as
 Trailing Arbutus, Bear's Berry, Bear's Whortle-berry
 or Bilberry.

As a remedy the Ura-Ura was used by the ancients,
 in many diseases where stringents were necessary;
 it was, however, for a long time disregarded, but has
 at length re-appeared in our pharmacopoeias, being
 recommended chiefly in diseases of the bladder and
 kidneys. It is commonly given in powder, in doses
 of from 30 to 60 grains, three or four times a day.
 In some parts of Russia this plant is used for tanning.
 Another species of this genus, the *A. Urelo*, or
 Strawberry Tree, a native of Ireland; is a well known
 ornamental shrub.

ARC. } Arcus, a bow, or arch. See ARCH.

Our hosts saw well, that the brighte sonne
 The ark of his artificial day had rounde
 The fourth part, and half an houre and more.
Chaucer. Prologue, The Man of Lawes Tale, v. l. p. 176.

There is one difference above all others between vailles and
 sailles, that is the most remarkable, as that whereupon many
 smaller differences do depend: namely, that vailles, except lights,
 are carried in right lines, and sailles in arcuate lines.

Bacon. Nat. Hist.

It is also very remarkable which Casper Bartholine hath ob-
 served in the pullet, that where it perforateth the midriff, the car-
 neous fibres of that muscular part are infected and arcuate.

Ray, on the Creation, p. 224.

Yet shall (my lord) your just, your noble ruden
 Fill half the land with imitating fools;

ARC.

ARCADIA.

Who random drawings from your sheets shall take,
 And of one braudy many blunders make;
 Lend some vain churck with old theoric state,
 Turn area of triumph to a garden-gate;

Pope's Moral Essays.

ARCA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Conchifera,
 under Dimyaria, family Arcaeae, in Lamarck's sys-
 tem.

Generic character. Shell transverse, subequivalve,
 inequilateral; nates distant, separated by the area of
 the ligament. Hinge linear, straight, not ribbed at
 the extremities. Teeth numerous, arranged closely
 in a line. Ligament entirely external.

The Linnean genus of this name comprehended
 those shells which now form the family arcaeae, and
 consist of the genera *Cucullata*, *Arca*, *Pectunculus*, *Natu-
 la*, *Arca Noe*, and *A. barbata*, are both English spe-
 cies of the restricted genus.

ARCA'DE, Arcade, Fr. An arch, an half circle.
 Cotgrave.

Shall call the wind thro' long arcades to roar,
 Proud to catch cold at a Vexilian door;
 Conscions they act a true Palladian part,
 And if they starve, they starve by rules of art.

Pope's Moral Essays.

See distant mountains, leave their valleys dry,
 And o'er the grand cascade their tribute pour,
 To leave imperial Route.

Thomson. Lalerity.

ARCADIA, in ancient Geography, one of the seven
 districts into which Peloponnesus was divided. It
 occupied the centre of that peninsula, being bounded
 on the north by Achaia; on the east by Corinthia,
 Argolia, and Laconia; by Messenia on the south; and
 by Elis on the west. Its name is said to have been
 derived from Arcas, their fourth king; and this
 country is supposed by some to have been the origi-
 nal seat of the Pelasgians. This celebrated district
 of Greece consists of one continuous cluster of moun-
 tains, sending down streams on all sides, like the
 Alps, to water the surrounding country; so that
 all the chief rivers of Peloponnesus derive their source
 from this mountainous tract. So rugged is its surface,
 that in times of heavy rains, whole towns and villages
 have been suddenly swept away from the obstructions
 occasioned by the narrowness of the chasms and sub-
 terraneous passages, by which alone the water is able
 to drain off. The soil is thin upon the mountains,
 but exceeding deep and wonderfully fertile in the
 vallies; though from the general inequality of the
 surface, the country is better adapted for pasture than
 for agriculture.

It would be needless to enumerate the wonders as-
 cribed by ancient authors to the rivers and fountains
 of this district. The Styx, so celebrated in poetry,
 has its source in the mountains of the north, towards
 Achaia, through which it takes its course. The
 Stymphalus and the Othius, with several other streams,
 occasionally disappear amid the bowels of the moun-
 tains, and emerge below in mighty springs. Nur-
 were the mountains less celebrated than the rivers,
 Cyllene, Ericanthus, Pholoe, Lycæus, besides Stym-
 phalus, Mantalus, and other names which are asso-
 ciated in the mind of every reader with their recol-
 lections of classical story, are all situated in this
 district of poetry and romance.

The population of this district, in former times,

ARCADIA
—
ARCH.

cannot easily be guessed. In Homer, the Arcadians under Agapenor, occupied 60 ships in the expedition to Troy; and as the same number of vessels carried the quota of Menelaus King of Sparta, we may conclude that the comparative strength of the two countries was then nearly equal. The slaves in Arcadia amounted to 300,000 so early as 500 years before the Christian era; and the proportion of freemen was probably not then nearly a third. See Pausanias on Arcad. *Strab. lib. vii.*

This province of the Morea is now known by the name of the Braccio di Marini.

ARCANE, } Perhaps from arceo, to hold in; to
ARCANUM, } keep in.
Arcanum est res secreta, a qua omnes arceantur.
Any thing withheld from the knowledge of another,
concealed, secreted. A secret.

So were all those personated gods, or entures of things deified,
in the arcane theology, interpreted agreeably themselves.

Cicero's de nat. d. 12.

You must know this great man hath (in his own words)
revealed a grand arcanum to the world, having instructed man-
kind in what he calls mirror-writing, self-discussing practice,
and author-practice.

Sir Matthew Hale's Contemplations.

For it was a doctrine of those ancient sages, that soul was the
place of fatus, as may be seen in the twelfth book of the arcane
part of divine wisdom, according to the Egyptians.

Bechey's Works, v. ii. p. 585.

ARCANEUM, in Medicine. A term frequently em-
ployed by the older writers to denote a remedy, the
preparation of which was studiously kept secret.

ARCH, v. } Arcus, a bow; perhaps from arceo,
ARCU, n. } to hold in, as the ends of a bow are
ARC'n'd, } held in or drawn towards each other.
ARC'n'like, } To bow or curve towards a circular
ARC'n'wise, } shape; to make in the shape of a bow
or curve.

Then I munt me forth, the arcure to knowen,
And awaytis anon, wonderly well yild,
With arches on everich holf, and belythe yowven,
With crocheter on corners, with knotes of gold.
Pierce. The Ploughman's Credo.

Her cheeks like rose and lily yield forth plesans,
Her brow's bright arches fram'd of ebony.
Robert Green in Ellis's Poets, v. ii.

At the last they came to Pomey and found the bridge broken,
but the arches and joyntes lay in the ryar.

Grafton, v. l.

—'Tis the key-stone
That makes the arch. The rest that there were put
Are nothing till that comes to bind and shut.
Then stands it a triumphal mark; then, when
You see the strength, the height, the why, and when,
It was erected; and still, walking under,
Meet some new matter to look up and wonder;

B. Jonson. Underwoods.

Thy sea-marge sterile, and rocky-hard,
Where those thy selfe do'st ayre, the Gouene o'th skie,
Whose watery arch, and messenger, am I.
Shakespeare's Tempest, fol. 14.

Over this heads a chrystal firmament,
Whereon a saphir throne, inlaid with pure
Amber, and colours of the shorie arch.
Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

Others on silver lakes and rivers built'd
Their domes beest; and the swan with arch'd neck
Between her white wings manifest proudly, rows
Her state with carle feet.
Milton's Par. Lost, book vii.

He commanded the Flamines to ride in an arched or embowed
close chariot, drawn with two horses.

Holland's Livy.

ARCH

Ambitious fool, with horry heels to pass
O're hollow arches, of resounding brass;
To rival thunder in its rapid course.

Dryden's Virgil, Æn. vi.

—Where truths
By troiles enlighten'd, and sustain'd, afford
An arch-like strong foundation, to support
Th' incumbent weight of absolute, complete
Conviction.

Young's Poems, p. 463.

By degrees, improvements in architecture were introduced. The
east window being enlarged, was trailed over with beautiful serowl
work; while the clustered pillar began to increase in height, and
elegance and to arch, and finally along the roof.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes, &c.

Here is a new political arch almost built, but of materials of
so different a nature, and without a key-stone, that it does not, in
my opinion, indicate either strength or duration.

Chatterfield, let. ecclesiastic.

He (Mr. Brindley), changed the plan; and instead of carrying
the main in a direct line across the river, formed it in a curve,
arching against the stream; so that it resists the current, so a
bridge does the incumbent weight.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

—But, conceal'd, the while,
Behind a stately pillar of the tomb
Of ancient lines, Paris arch'd his bow
Against Typhides.

Cowper's Road, book xi.

ARCHES in Architecture, are of various kinds; as
circular, elliptical, cycloidal, catenarian, parabolical,
&c.

Arches of the circular kind are either semicircular,
or segments less than the semicircle; these last are
called skew or scheme arches; there are also pointed,
composite, lancet, or gothic arches. There are no
arches to be found in the ruins of Egyptian buildings;
nor in the ruins of Persepolis, the celebrated Palace of
the ancient Persian kings. It is generally thought
therefore that the Greeks were the inventors of the
arch, though it is not used in the exterior of their
buildings. According to Mr. King, it does not
appear to have been known or used in any building
anterior to the reign of Augustus; but they soon
after became so much in favour with the Romans,
that there was scarcely an aperture to be seen in any
of their later buildings, but what was eluded with
arches.

The arches employed by the Romans were semicir-
cular, at least in the apertures of their walls, as few or
no arches of segments less than semicircles, are to be
found in the works which they have left. From the
time that the Roman power was overturned, until the
reign of Stephen, semicircular arches continued to
prevail; but in the twelfth century the pointed arch
appeared. At first these were extremely rude and ir-
regular, sometimes acute and sometimes obtuse; un-
til the close of the thirteenth century, when the
highly pointed arches came into fashion; these were
described from the angular points in the base of an
equilateral triangle, resting on the impost; but
about the fifteenth century the arches were lowered,
and the vertical angles became in consequence much
more obtuse; the pointed style was finally exploded
in this country under the reign of Henry VIII.

ARCH. } Arch is much used in composition
 — Arch'ly, without affecting any change in the
 ARCH- } component words. See ANARCHY.
 ANGEL } It is used by Shakespeare as a substantive in King
 Lear:—

"My worthy arch and patron!"

Arch, says Skinner, was introduced into the German dialects about the fall of the Russian empire, as in *arch* duke, *arch* rogue, &c. and signifies chief, principal, supereminent in any respect; from the Greek *Arxos*, chief. From the frequent usage of the word to denote eminence in roguish, knavish, waggish, sly, artful, cunning tricks, it appears to have acquired its application, alone, to denote

Roguish, knavish, waggish, sly, artful, cunning.

Donget thanked me for my visit to him in the winter; and, after his comical manner, spoke his request with so *arch* a leer, that I promised the Drole I would speak to all my acquaintance to be at his play.

Tatler, No. 193.

John, when his master's knock he heard,
 Soon in the dressing-room appear'd,
 'Strikely he look'd, and slyly leer'd."

Samerville's Poems.

"Come tell us honestly, Frank," said the Squire, with his usual *archness*, suppose the church, your present mistress, dressed in lawn sleeves, on one hand, and Miss Sophia, with no lawn about her, on the other, which would you be for?"

Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*.

ARCHANGEL, in Botany. The English name of the *Angelica Archangelica*.

ARCHANGEL. The capital of a government in Russia, of the same name, is a considerable town built on the banks of the Dwina, where it opens into the White Sea, and the embouchure of which constitutes a part of the gulph of Archangel. The city is about three miles in length and one in breadth. The houses, with the exception of the town house, which is built of stone, are made of wood; the streets are narrow, paved with trees, and extremely inconvenient for walking. Archangel was accidentally discovered by the English in 1553; a small fleet of three ships under Sir Hugh Willoughby, sailed from Deptford in the beginning of that year, on a voyage to discover a north west passage to the East Indies. Two of the ships were driven into the mouth of the Arzira, in Russian Lapland, where the crews perished. But the third, called the *Bonaventure*, commanded by Richard Chancellor, fortunately discovered the White Sea, who succeeded in getting his vessel into the Dwina, where the crew were able to winter. This discovery of Chancellor's was followed by very important consequences. His arrival was no sooner made known to the Czar Iwan Vasilievitch II. than he was invited to Moscow, and in consequence, a treaty of commerce was effected between the Czar and Edward VI. The town of Archangel gradually rose near the place at which Chancellor landed; and in consequence of the trade of which this place soon became the emporium, exclusive privileges were granted to the English, who soon monopolized the trade between Russia and Europe, and when Iwan had subdued the Tartars of Casan and Astracan, our merchants availed themselves of the opportunity for carrying on a traffic with the nations beyond the Caspian. These privileges, however, were after a time, extended first to the Dutch, and then to other nations, and gradually duties of im-

port and export were laid on, until at length the trade of this country to Archangel was diverted into other channels by the building of St. Petersburg. Before that event the number of vessels in Archangel, at one time has been as many as 300, and the population was not less than 30,000. It has now dwindled to less than 7000. E. lon. 38° 59' 30". N. lat. 64° 33' 36". See Hackluyt's *Voy.* vol. i. p. 253, 298, 306, &c. Cox's *Travels in Russ.* vol. ii. p. 158, 197, et seq. Hume's *Hist. App.* iii. vol. v.

ARCHBISHOP, is the chief bishop of the province, and the name seems formerly to have been only a title of honour. It appears to have been introduced into the church about the time of Athanasius (A. D. 320.) but was not at that time conceived to imply any specific jurisdiction or precedence. In Italy several bishops are distinguished with this title, who nevertheless have no power or authority over other bishops. The ecclesiastical state of England and Wales is divided into two provinces. The Archbishop of Canterbury has within his province twenty-one dioceses; viz. those of Rochester, London, Winchester, Norwich, Ely, Lincoln, Chichester, Salisbury, Exeter, Bath and Wells, Worcester, Coventry and Lichfield, Hereford, Llandaff, St. David's, Bangor, and St. Asaph, together with four that were founded by Henry VIII. and erected out of the dissolved monasteries, viz. Gloucester, Bristol, Peterborough, and Oxford. The Archbishop of York has under him four bishopricks, viz. that of Chester, (which was erected by Henry VIII.) Durham, Carlisle, and the Isle of Man.

As the seat of a diocesan, Canterbury comprehends only a part of Kent, together with some other parishes in various dioceses, where the archbishop happens to have the manors or advowsons; and which by an ancient privilege of the see, are, on that account, considered as peculiar of the diocese of Canterbury. The Archbishop of Canterbury is styled Primate of all England, partly because in former times, he had from the Pope a legate authority over both provinces; and partly because his power of granting dispensations and faculties extends over both. Until the year 1192, his primacy extended to Ireland also, as before that period the Irish bishops received their consecration from him. In like manner, the province of York anciently claimed and possessed a metropolitan jurisdiction over all the bishops of Scotland, whence they had their consecration, and to which they swore canonical obedience, until about the year 1466, when the Scotch bishops withdrew their obedience; four years afterwards Pope Sixtus IV. constituted the bishop of St. Andrews archbishop and metropolitan of all Scotland. The Archbishop of Canterbury has precedence over all the nobility, (not being of blood royal,) and great officers of state; the Archbishop of York has like precedence, except with respect to the Lord Chancellor.

ARCHDEACON. (*Arxidiaconos*, chief of the deacons.) An ecclesiastical officer, next in rank to the bishop, and having entrusted to him the discharge of certain branches of the episcopal functions. In the early ages of the church, the bishops in their administration of ecclesiastical affairs, were usually accompanied by deacons, whose more especial province it was to inspect and relieve the indigent in their diocese, and to assist the bishops and prebys in the

ARCH-
 ANGEL.
 — ARCH-
 DEACON.

ARCH-DEACON. preaching, and celebrating the Eucharist. Of these one was either elected by the rest, or appointed by the bishop (for it is not quite clear which was the case,) to be more immediately about the bishop's person, and to act as his minister or deputy in some of the inferior departments of the episcopal office. And this person seems generally to have been the oldest of the deacons. He also had his deputy, or colleague, called "the second deacon." In the Greek church the Archidiaconate was simply an office of dignity and honour, not of government. But in the Roman church the archdeacon was the vicar of the bishop, and had authority even over the archpresbyter; a singular anomaly in ecclesiastical polity. At one time, about the third century, the archdeacon at Rome usually succeeded, by a kind of prescription, to the bishopric, which on one occasion gave rise to a singular proceeding. Novatus being archdeacon of the Roman church, expected to succeed to the episcopal chair, upon the demise of Cornelius, at that time bishop. But Cornelius, in order to put an end to his hopes, ordained him priest. From this story it appears that no priest could be an archdeacon; which indeed must have been the case, as long as the oldest of the deacons succeeded by right of seniority to the archidiaconate; a custom which prevailed in the Greek church at least.

After the office of chorepiscopus (bishop or inspector of the villages) was discontinued, the archdeacon, as being constantly attendant upon the bishop, came by degrees to be employed by him in visiting the clergy of his diocese, and in the despatch of other matters; so that by the beginning of the seventh century, he seems to have been the regular inspector of the diocese, in subordination to the bishop. But he was only the inspector, not the enforcer; having no jurisdiction, but only a delegated authority to visit, and to report. By degrees, however, either from grants made to them by the bishops, or from gradual usurpations of power, acquiring at length the force of prescription, the archdeacon acquired a jurisdiction, which the law terms an ordinary jurisdiction, being exercised by him, as a matter of course, by virtue of his office, and independently of any delegation from the bishop of a part of his own power.

It appears from this account that originally each bishop had one archdeacon. With regard to our own church, the divisions of dioceses into several archidiaconies, seems to have been introduced soon after the Conquest; at which period the bishops, in virtue of their baronies, were obliged to attend frequently upon the king in council. By the canon law, the archdeacon, who is styled *oculus episcopi*, has power to hold visitations, to examine (by the bishop's direction) candidates for holy orders; to institute and induct into benefices; to inflict ecclesiastical censures and penalties; to reform irregularities amongst the clergy; and to take care of the buildings and property of the church. The archdeacon has a court, the judge of which, in the absence of the archdeacon, is the official.

The business of the archdeacon in the church of England, at the present day, consists principally in visiting the respective parishes within his jurisdiction at certain intervals, for the purpose of inspecting the churches and glebe houses, with a view to their being

kept in good repair. He is also to have an equal care of all the goods and ornaments of the church. He has authority to order such repairs as he may think necessary; and in case of disobedience, to subject the offending parties to ecclesiastical censures and a pecuniary mulct. He is also annually to hold a synod of the clergy in each of the rural deaneries which compose his archdeaconry, (these are called rural deaneries to distinguish them from the cathedral and collegiate deaneries), and to confer with them upon matters touching the welfare and good order of the church. At these visitations, the archdeacon holds a court, at which he receives the presentations of the churchwardens of the preceding year, and administers the oath of office to their successors. Generally speaking this officer will best discharge the duties of his functions, by acting up to the full import of his designation in the canon law, as "the Bishop's eye."

ARCH'ER. } Lat. arcus, a bow. It arcieri.
ARCH'ERESS. } Fr. Archer, a Bowman, one that
ARCH'ERY. } uses, that shoots with a bow.

And ycholle our out erbe, and our baculerie,

Wyfoute archers & vot men, wjþ two hundred hors j wyne.

R. Gloucester, p. 199.

His penance was forgotten, he asked for his archery,

Walter Tirel was taken, master of just muster.

R. Bruner, p. 94.

Twertn he was a good archere,

Of wrotiling was ther non his peer,

Chaucer. *The First of Sir Thopas*, v. ii. p. 62.

And Gelous the peill of Clithers

In archery the quailk az wounder tith.

Douglas *Escados*, book viii. p. 278.

Thus my battell shal be ordred;

My forward shall be drawne in length,

Consisting equally of horse and foot:

Our archers shall be placed in the mid't.

Shakespeare's *Richard III.* fol. 303.

The English archery were the terror of Christendome, and their cloaths the ornament?

Memoirs of Col. Hackman.

This done, *Ensus* orders, for the close,

The strife of archers, with contending bows.

The most Sergeantus shatter'd galli bore,

With his own hands, he raises on the shore:

A flut'ring Dove upon the top they tie,

The living mark, at which their arrows fly,

The rival archers in a line advance;

Their turn of shooting to receive from chance.

Dryden's *Virgil*, *Æn.* v.

She, therefore glorious archers of hee'n's,

A savage boar bright tusk'd in anger sent,

Which hunting *Æneas* fields north havoc made.

Corper's *Read*, book ix.

ARCHERS, considered as soldiery, have been long disused in war, among European nations; though the Turks still retain a corps who are armed with this weapon. The name, however, remains where the thing no longer exists; thus in France the officers who intreated the lieutenant of police, were before the revolution always called archers, though the arms with which they were provided was a carbine. The Artillery Company of London furnishes also another instance. Artillery is a French term signifying archery; the king's bowyer, was in that nation called *artiller de roi*; and the English company of this name are the remains of an ancient fraternity of bowmen, whose appellation they still retain, although they have

ARCH-DEACON.
—
ARCHER.

ARCHER. changed their arms. This society was incorporated by royal charter in the 99th of Henry VIII.; they were permitted not only to shoot at marks, but at all birds except pheasants and herons, and to wear dresses of any colour, except purple or scarlet.

The royal company of archers in Scotland, is said to have arisen in the time of James I.; and they still retain the privilege of acting as the king's body guard, within seven miles of Edinburgh. A royal prize of £20, is annually given them by the crown, for which this society, which consists of above 1000 of the principal gentry of Scotland, still contend.

With respect to the origin of archery, the use of the bow may be traced to the earliest antiquity, and in the history of every people. The first notice which we find of it, is in Gen. xxi. where it is said that Ishmael, the son of Abraham, "dwelt in the wilderness, and was a great archer."

The exact time when the practice of using the long bow in war commenced in this country, is not easily ascertained. That which the Normans used at the battle of Hastings was the arbalest, or cross bow. It was however, in the use of the former weapon, that the people of this country became afterwards so celebrated. The king's ballistarius, or cross bow man, is often mentioned in early writers. But from the reign of Edward II. the mention of the long bow becomes frequent both in our history and in parliamentary statutes. At Cressy, at Poitiers, and Agincourt, as well as in several battles which were gained over the Scotch, the victory is ascribed to the English bowmen; and it is particularly noticed that at Cressy the rain which had slackened the strings of the Genoese cross bows had not weakened the effect of the long bows, which our countrymen used.

In 1348, a letter of complaint was ordered by Edward III. to be sent to the sheriffs of London, complaining that the exercise of the bow had been so much laid aside by the citizens; and under Edward IV. an ordinance was made that every Englishman and Irishman dwelling in England, should have a bow of his own height, to be made of yew, hazel, ash, or osbourn, or any other reasonable tree, according to their power. Butts also, or mounds of earth, were ordered to be raised in every township, and the inhabitants ordered to practise archery, under certain penalties. In *Rymer's Fœdera*, it appears that a thousand archers were to be sent to the Duke of Burgundy, whose pay is settled at 6d. per day, 0 circumspect, which considering the value of money in those times, strongly marks the estimation in which our English archers were then held. In the 25th of Henry VIII. the use of the cross bow was entirely forbidden, and a penalty of £10, was to be inflicted on every one in whose house a cross bow should be found; and by another statute, every father was obliged to provide his son, as soon as he had attained his seventh year, with a bow and two arrows. See *Strut's Sports and Pastimes*, *Archæologia*, vol. vii. p. 46, &c.

ARCHETYPE. } *Ἀρχέτυπος*, archetypus, from *Ἀρχή*, chief; and *τύπος*, form.

ARCHETYPAL. } *Ἀρχή*, chief; and *τύπος*, form.

Archetype is "a principal type, figure, form; the chief pattern, mould, model, example, or sample, whereby a thing is framed; an authentick or original draught." Colgrave.

He, that is well grounded in the doctrines of the second commandment, how can he but abhor the bodily representations of the Blessed Trinity; and spit at Aquinas, for teaching that the image to be adored with the same worship, that is due to the archtype.

Ep. Hall's Peace-Maker.

It is at least as fantastical to frame an archtype applicable to nothing that is really typified by it, as to frame the idea of a substance that can be referred to no real existence as to the archtype of it.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

The learned eye, versed equally in nature and art, easily compares the picture with its archtype.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

ARCHETYPE is a word that is not borrowed from holy writ, but from the Platonic philosophers, who affected much to talk of an archetypal world; that is the world as it existed in the divine mind before it was created.

ARCHICAL, from *Ἀρχή*; principium et fons. See *ANCA*.

Mind and understanding, counsel and wisdom, did not lay the foundations of the universe; they are *archcal* things, that is, they have not the nature of a principle in them.

Cudworth, p. 73.

ARCHIL. *Litmus*, *Orcella*, or *Tournesol*, is produced from several species of lichen growing in the Canary Islands, and the south of France. This colouring substance produces a beautiful but fugitive purple, capable of being fixed by a solution of tin, but which is changed to a crimson by the process. It is said however, that at Glasgow there is a manufactory in which this beautiful colour is fixed without injury to its brilliancy. The Dutch have long possessed the preparation of Archil as a secret, but at present it is extensively manufactured at Glasgow, and sold under the name of *cud bear*. The outline of all the processes appears to be this; the lichen is bruised and acted upon by lime, potash, or some alkaline body, and in this impure pulpy state, is dried in cakes for sale. It gives out its colour to water and to spirit, and is frequently thus employed in the spirit of wine thermometers. It is known that this confined coloured spirit will in a short time lose its colour; but it is singular, that on breaking the tube, and thus exposing the liquor to the air, the colour is restored.

For the application of this substance, as a test of acidity or alkalescence, see *ART. CHYMISTRY*.

ARCHILOCHIAN, a term of poetry, applied to a sort of verses of which Archilochus was the inventor, consisting of seven feet; the four first of which are usually dactyle, though sometimes spondee; the three last trochees. An example of this verse is in the following line of Horace—

"*Solvitur arria hyems gratæ vice veris et Favoni.*"

These verses are called dactylic, on account of the dactyles at the beginning.

ARCHIPELAGO. This term is applied to any tract of sea, abounding in small islands; but it properly belongs to the *Ægean* sea, or that part of the Mediterranean between the coasts of Asia Minor and Greece, called, by the Turks, *Admlt Denhis*, or the *Seas of Islands*. These islands are under the dominion of Turkey; most of them are included in the government of the kapudan-pasha, or grand-admiral of the Turkish fleet; but Mitylee, Chio, and Makrrois, are differently circumstanced, the revenue of the first going to the sultano mother, that of the second to the sister of the grand seignor, and that of the third, with the tribute of the city of Athens, to

ARCHETYPE.
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ARCHIPELAGO.

ARCHI-
PELAGO.
ARCHI-
TECT.

the *kislar-aga*, or commander of the black eunuchs. The Greeks still call it the *Ægean sea*, *Ægeum pelagus*, and from the word *Ægeo-pelago* as it is commonly pronounced, the Venetians, (from whom the western Europeans principally derived their geographical knowledge in the dark ages) formed the barbarous term *Archipelago*. Strictly speaking, it was only the northern part of this sea which was called *Ægean* by the ancients; for the southern part, from the Cyclades to Cythra, was named by them the *Myrtoan sea* (*Mare Myrtoum*). The islands, with the exception of three, belong to the Vice-royalty (*Pashalik*), of the Capitan *Pashâ* (*Kapâidin Pashâ*), who sails through them every two or three years to levy the contributions due to the Sultan. The three islands, not belonging to his government, are *Mitylene*, which belongs to the *Vâhidch*, or Sultan's mother; *Scio* (*Chio*) to his sister; and *Makronisi*, which, together with the town of *Athens*, is assigned to the *kislar-aga*, or chief of the black Eunuchs. The inhabitants of these islands are much oppressed by their Turkish masters; not perhaps so much by the amount of the sums levied, as by the arbitrary and irregular manner in which the levies are made; besides which, as all the revenues in Turkey are farmed out to the highest bidder, and the officers who farm them, are vested with power to compel the payment of their demands, it is evident how completely the system itself lays the foundation of endless extortion and oppression. In several of the islands the Roman Catholic religion is prevalent, as well as the Greek; in some, as *Syra* (*Syros*), it is predominant; and a spirit of persecution is unhappily but too common among the members of each persuasion, especially the latter. The extreme ignorance and superstition of many, even of the clergy themselves, have materially contributed to check the practical and salutary influences of Christianity. The ancients divided the islands into the *Sporadic*, which were sown as it were along the coasts of Asia and Europe; and the *Cyclades*, collected into a circular area in the centre. The moderns usually distinguish them by the terms *European* or *Asiatic*, according to the continent to which they are nearest. See the particular names of each.

ARCHIPELAGO OF THE GREAT CYCLADES. A cluster of islands in the South Pacific Ocean, so named by Bougainville, the French navigator, and afterwards called *New Hebrides* by Captain Cook. See *HEBRIDES*, *New*.

ARCHIPELAGO OF THE BURGHERS. Several groups of islands, rocks, and shoals, on the south coast of New Holland, extending from between 34° 30' S. lat. and 131° 30' to 135° 30' E. long. The largest islands were named by the French, *Mondrain* and *Middle Island*, and are frequented by seals. The whole archipelago presents an intricate and dangerous navigation.

ARCHITECT,
ARCHITECTIVE,
ARCHITECTONICAL,
ARCHITECTONIC,
ARCHITECTOR,
ARCHITECTRESS,
ARCHITECTURA,
ARCHITECTURAL.

ApXITECTOS, from ApXY, chief, and TECTOS, from TECTON, to work.
A chief workman, builder; one skilled in workmanship, in building; in planning or designing work, buildings.

What it is, in its conjuncture,
Seeking much, but nothing finding;
Like to fancy's architecture,
With illusions reason blinding.

Nicholas Breton in Eliot's Poets, v. li. p. 264.

In him I rest, on him my thoughts depend,
My lord, my teacher, and my guide is he,
This noble work he strives to bring to end,
He is the architect, the workman we

Piercy's Tasso, book xiv.

God they heide to be the minde, and Chaos the matter; the minde called by Plato the world's architectesse.

Saunders's Ovid, p. 9.

And now from this short and transient view of the architectonic faculty of animals, especially the irrational, we may easily perceive some superior and wise being was certainly concerned in the creation or original. For how is it possible that an irrational creature should, with ordinary and coarse, or indeed any materials, be ever able to perform such works as exceed even the imitation of a rational creature? How could the bodies of many of them be furnished with architectonic materials.

Jerham. Physics Theology.

But to add something new of never ability to what was last said about God's government of spirits, how much will this architectonic wisdom (if I may call it), exerted in framing and regulating an innumerable company of differing creatures, be recommended; if the other worlds or workmen, we not long since spoke of, and the invisible part of ours, (as we may call the air and ether), be peopled with intelligent, though not visible inhabitants.

Boyle's Works, v. 5.

We have already proved, that mind and understanding as not the phantastic image of sensibles or bodies; and that it is in its own nature not ectypal, but archetypal, and pre-traitical of all.

Cudworth. Intellectual System.

This to attain, whether heav'n's move or earth,
Imports not, if thou rock'st right, the rest
From man or ungod the great architect
Did wisely to conceal, and not divulge
His secrets to be snatch'd by them who ought
Rather admire.

Milton's Par. Lost, book viii.

Then he said that Homer was wonderful in all his things, but that amongst others, he was an excellent architect.

North's Plutarch.

In Versailles the less a new building, because the architect of that palace hath imitated others which were built before it. Walls, doors, and windows, apartments, offices, rooms of convenience and magnificence, are in all great houses. So descriptions, &c.

Dryden's Dedication to Virgil's Æneid.

Thus far Mr. Fleury, who, to the disgrace of reason, as himself inconspicuously owns, first built his house, and then studied architecture.

Dryden's Preface to Virgil's Pastorals.

When all these (heaven and earth), are surveyed so nicely as they can be by the help of our unassisted senses, and even of telescopic glasses, by the assistance of good microscopes in very small parts of matter, as many new wonders may perhaps be discovered, to those already observed; new kingdoms of animals; new architecture and erudition of work.

Wallston's Religion of Nature.

From the fullest information we could, after the strictest enquiry, obtain, we were assured, that an fragment of sculpture or architectural ornaments was to be found there.

Stuart's Antiquities of Athens, v. xvii. p. 53.

What we call Saxon architecture seems to have been the awkward imitation of Greek and Roman models.

Gulpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

But Hector saw the splendid mansion rush'd
Of Paris, by himself design'd, and rear'd,
Himself attending, with the parsons and
Of Troy's best architects.

Cowper's Task, book vi.

He that, without diminution of any other excellence shall preserve all the salutes unbroken, deserves the like applause with the architect, who shall display all the orders of architecture in a citadel, without any deduction from its strength.

Johnson. Pref. to Shakespeare.

ARCHI-
TECT.

ARCHI-
TECT.
—
ARCUS.

ARCHITECTURE is divided with reference to its objects into Civil, Military, Naval, Ecclesiastical,—with reference to its style, into Egyptian, Grecian, Oriental, Gothic, &c. For an account of these several heads the reader must consult the general treatise.

ARCHITRAVE, in Architecture, from *αρχη*, chief, and *τραβ*, a beam; the division of the entablature, which rests upon the column. In ancient buildings, which were probably of timber, the architrave was the beam which extended from column to column, to support the roof, whence probably the name was derived. In Gothic architecture, there is an architrave, and this forms a specific point of distinction between it and the Grecian.

ARCHIVES. *Αρχαια τὰ ἐν δημοσίῳ χαρτῶν ἀποκείμενα*; where the public papers or records are deposited.

Αρχαιο, is frequently so used by Josephus. *Το υπὲρ τὰ ἀρχαιο εἶδος*.

They carried the fire to the archives, wishing to destroy the documents of creditors, &c.

Joseph, book ii.

And therefore these curious meddlers in collecting and gathering together on all sides the errors, deflections, and solecisms (as I may say), not of verses or poems, but of other men's lives, make of their memory a most unpleasant archive or register, and uncivil record which they ever carry about them.

Holland's Plutarch's Morals.

ARCHON, *αρχων*, a commander, was a chief magistrate of the city and commonwealth of Athens. The magistrates known by this name, at Athens, were nine in number, having each of them separate functions; but the name of archon was applied by way of eminence to the chief of the nine, who was also called eponymus, *επωνυμος*, because the year was called from his name. He was supreme in all civil affairs. The second archon, who was called *βουλευς*, a king, had authority in all religious points; and the third, the polemarchus, from *πολεμος*, war, and *αρχειν*, to command, was, as his name implies, the general of the republic. The other six, who were called thesmothetæ, from *θεσμος*, a law, and *νθετιν*, I establish, had a variety of subordinate duties in the executive administration, for a fuller account of which the reader may consult Potter's *Antiq.* vol. i. p. 71.

ARCIS-SUR-AUBE, a small town of France, in Lower Champagne, on the river Aube, with 2380 inhabitants, who are employed in the manufacture of worsted stockings and caps. It is the capital of an arrondissement, in the department of the Aube, which contains a population of 32,000. The country is abundantly rich in grain, in which the inhabitants carry on a considerable traffic. It suffered greatly in the course of the encephalgia which was carried on in the spring of 1814. Six leagues N. of Troyes. Long. 4° 14' E. Lat. 48° 33' N.

ARCO, or ARCH, a town with a castle, and 2700 inhabitants, on the river Sarca, on the confines of Tyrol, towards Italy. It gave name to a county or district, which comprehended 18 villages and hamlets. This territory fell under the Austrian dominion in 1614, and after having, since the French revolution, passed successively to Bavaria and the kingdom of Italy, reverted, in 1814, to its Austrian master, and now forms part of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The town is 12 miles W. of Trent, and not far from Riva and the lake of Garda.

ARCOS, or ARCUS DE LA FRONTERA, a small

town of Spain, in Andalusia, situated on an elevated rock, almost insulated by the river Guadalete, and very difficult of access on the south and west. Some erroneously suppose it to be the ancient Arcobriga. It contains two parish churches, seven convents, and a population of 12,000. It is the place of residence of a vicar-general of the metropolitan of Seville. The grand altar of the church of St. Mary is a fine piece of workmanship. The surrounding country consists of a succession of hill and dale, and is very fruitful. 40 miles S. of Seville. Long. 5° 55' W. Lat. 36° 40' N.

ARCOT, a city of Hindostan, the capital of the Carnatic, is situated on the south side of the river Palar, which is here half a mile wide, but contains little water in the dry season. The town is extensive and surrounds a large fort, which is in disrepair. Its chief manufacture is cotton cloths. Arcot is supposed to be named by Ptolemy as the capital of the Sora, or Soramundalum, from which Coromandel is corruptly derived: but the present town is of modern date. The mogul armies, after they had captured Gingee, were forced to remove, in consequence of the unhealthy situation, to the plains of Arcot; and this circumstance led to the establishment of the city of Arcot in 1716. Anawond Deen, nabob of Arcot, having been killed in battle in 1749, the town was taken by Chondasaheb, a candidate for the government, who was supported by the French. In 1751 it was retaken by Captain Clive, with 500 troops, although the garrison consisted of 1100 men, who were attached to Mahomet Ali, the son of the deceased nabob. The French and their Indian allies immediately commencing the attack of the place, they were compelled to raise the siege, after it had resisted for 50 days. It was afterwards taken by the French, but was recaptured in 1760 by Colonel Coote, after the battle of Wandewash. In 1780 it was besieged by Hyder Ali, who gained possession of it on the 30th of September, after having defeated the British under Colonel Baillie. The town and district are now rapidly recovering from the destructive effects to which they have been exposed, in consequence of having so frequently been the scene of war. Distance from Madras 73 miles, from Seringapatam 317. Long. 79° 29' E. Lat. 12° 53' N.

ARCTIA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Lepidoptera. Family Noctua bombycetes, of Latreille.

Generic character. Palpi scaly; antennæ of the males doubly pectinated; tongue short, and composed of two distinct filaments.

This genus is divided into two sections, the first including those with ciliated antennæ; the second those in which they are truly pectinated. It is one of those into which it has been found necessary to divide the Linnean genus *Phalena*.

To the first division belong the *Phalena* (bombyx), *caja*, *villica*, *plantaginis*, and others which are commonly known to collectors in this country by the name of tiger moths. In the second division are found the *Ph. salicis*, *chrysorrhæa*, &c. *Arctia chrysorrhæa* is unfortunately too well known in this country, by the destruction which has in some years been produced by its larva amongst fruit trees. The eggs are laid in beautiful rings around the stem of the tree, and in the spring the larva makes its appearance.

ARCUS.
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ARCTIA.

ARCTIA.
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ARC-
TOMYS.

They are gregarious, and form a large web to which they retreat at night and in wet weather; they feed in society, and oaruch with great regularity; and their numbers are sometimes so great as to become a serious calamity. In 1783 they were so destructive in the neighbourhood of London, that subscriptions were opened to employ the poor in cutting off and collecting the webs, and it is asserted that not less than 80 hushels were collected and burnt in one day, in the parish of Clapham. In some places, prayers were offered up to the churches to avert the calamities of which they were supposed, by the ignorant, to be the forerunner.

ARCTIC, in Astronomy, an epithet given to the north pole. It is called the arctic pole, on account of the constellation of the little bear, called in Greek *arctos*, the last star in the tail of which is sometimes called the north star.

ARCTIC CIRCLE, is a lesser circle of the sphere, parallel to the equator, passing through the north pole of the ecliptic, 23° 28' from the north pole. The arctic circle is the boundary of the north frigid circle.

ARCTIC, in Ornithology, a species of alca, known in England by the name of puffin.

ARCTIUM, in Botany. A genus of plants, class Syngenesia, order Polygamia aequalis. Generic character. Receptacle chaffy. Calyx globose; each of the scales having an incurved hook at the extremity. Pappus simple.

The *A. Lappa*, common Burdock, or Clot-bur, is a well known weed to this country by road sides and waste places. A decoction of the roots is occasionally given in rheumatism, and other diseases, as a substitute for sarsaparilla.

ARCTOMYS, (from *arctos* a bear, *mys* a rat), Schreber, Gmel. Pall. Cuv. Illig. Marmot. Pen. In Zoology a genus belonging to the Family Claviculata, Order Rodentia, Class Mammalia.

Generic character. Two strong sharp wedge-shaped incisor teeth in each jaw; five tuberculated grinder on either side in the upper, and four in the lower jaw.

This genus was included by Linnæus in the genus *Mus*, but he only described two species, *M. Marmotta* and *M. Monax*, from which it was separated by Schreber. The marmots are about the size of our common rabbit (*Lepus Cuniculus*); they are short limbed, having four toes, with a very small thumb on the anterior, and five on the posterior extremities; have a short villous tail, the head large and flat, some species having ears, others none, the snout short and pointed, with a bilobed lip. They feed on roots and grain, occasionally also on insects; living in burrows carefully lined with moss, the entrance of which they stop up with hay during the winter, at which time they become torpid, and do not come out again till March, they litter early in the summer, bringing forth three or four young. They live in large societies, and in fine weather may be seen sporting about, and sitting upon their hind feet; during which time a centinel is set, who, at the approach of danger, gives a shrill whistle and they quickly disperse. They are easily tamed, and may be taught a number of tricks.

A. Marmotta, Schreb. Gmel. Cuv. *Mus Alpinus*, Ray. *Mus Marmotta*, Lin. *La Marmotte*, Buff. *Alpine Mar-*

VOL. XVII.

mot, Pen. Of a brownish ash colour above, the legs and under parts of a bright tawny or ferruginous tinge; ears short, and hid in the fur; tail thick and bushy; in feeding it sits up like a squirrel, using its fore paws. It inhabits the high Alpine regions.

A. Bobac, Schreb. Gmel. Cuv. *Bobac* ou *Marmotte de Pologne*, Buff. *Bobac Marmot*, Pen. Covered with greyish fur above, the under parts of the body fulvous; the tail short and well covered with hair. Its general habits similar to the preceding, and inhabits, says Pallas, "the high, but milder and sunny sides of mountainous countries, which abound with firrill or free-stone rocks, where it is found in dry situations, and such as are full of woods, springs, or sands." It is very numerous in Poland and Russia, and very frequently in Kamtschatka, but rarely as high as Lat. 55.

A. Citillus, Schreb. Gmel. Cuv. *Mus Citillus*, Ray. *Zisel* ou *Sonakiz*, Buff. *Casan* or *Earless Marmot*, Pen. This beautiful little animal is about a foot long, and Pallas says sometimes not bigger than a water rat, though at other times as large as the Alpine marmot; of a yellowish brown colour spotted with white, there is scarcely any appearance of ears, but merely an edging for the auditory canal. They are found in Bohemia, and as far as Siberia, living not only on vegetable, but animal food, and not sparing even their own species; they are very wild, but easily tamed, the female, particularly if old, with more difficulty; they are very cleanly, washing their faces like the cat after eating.

A. Monax, Schreb. Gmel. Cuv. *Mus Monax*, Lin., *Margland Marmot*, Pen.

A. Empetra, Schreb. Gmel. Cuv. *Mus Empetra*, Pall., *Quebec Marmot*, Pen.

A. Prunusius, Gmel. Hoary Marmot, Pen.

A. Maulinus, Shaw. *Mosline Marmot*, Pen.

The last four species have nothing particular to be noticed.

See Schreber *Naturgeschichte der Säugethiere*. Gmelio *Linnei Systema Naturæ*. Pennant's *History of Quadrupeds*. Buffon *Histoire Naturelle*. Cuvier *Règne Animal*.

ARCTOPTHECUS, (from *arctos* a bear, *pthecos* an ape). In Zoology, a name given by Geoffroy St. Hilaire, to the genus *Haplorhina* of Illiger and Cuvier. See *Haplorhina*.

ARCTOPUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, containing one species; a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

ARCTOTHECA, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class Syngenesia, consisting of one species, found at the Cape of Good Hope. Very nearly allied to *Arctotis*.

ARCTOTIS, in Botany, a genus of plants class Syngenesia, order Polygamia œcœnaria. Generic character. Receptacle acetosolvrolate. Seeds semibilocular, or hirsulate at the back. Pappus chaffy. Calyx imbricate, the scales scariosæ at the apex. An African genus.

ARCTURUS, in Astronomy, a fixed star of the first magnitude in the constellation Bootes. See *Philes Transactions*, vol. lxiii. p. 1.

ARCEUIL, a small town about three miles from Paris, remarkable for a splendid sotterraneous aqueduct, built in 1624, by Mary de Medici, in order to

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ARC-
TOMYS.
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ARCEUIL.

ARCUEIL convey water to Paris. This aqueduct is 7000 toises long, and built of free stone. *Le Mémoire de Physique et de Chimie de la Société D'Arcueil*, is a publication consisting of papers written by a variety of celebrated men who met at the country house of M. Berthollet, near this place. The members of it were La Place, C. L. B. Berthollet, Biot, Gny Lussac, Humboldt, De Candolle, Biot, Malus, Thenard, A. B. Berthollet, and Collet Descotils.

ARDAGH, a town of Ireland, in the county of Longford, formerly a bishop's see, which in 1741 was annexed to the archbishopric of Tuam. Distant 5 miles S. E. of Longford.

ARDHRACCAN, a village and parish of Ireland, in the county of Meath, formerly a bishop's see of that name, but now called the bishopric of Meath. A fine house or palace was built here by the late bishop Maxwell; an old square tower stands in the churchyard, and the learned and indefatigable eastern traveller, bishop Pococke, was interred here in 1765. There is a charter school at Ardhracan for 60 boys, and Roman Catholic schools in different parts for about 140.

ARDEA, in Ornithology, a genus of the fourth order of Grallæ.

ARDEA, Ray, Lin. Bris. Lath. Cuv. *Heron*, Pen. In Zoology, a genus belonging to the Family Culicivores, order Grallæ, class Aves.

Generic character: beak longer than the head, strong and with its base broader than high; the upper mandible nearly straight and having a little nasal pit continued into a groove extending almost to its tip; eyes placed in naked skin reaching to the beak; neck slender, long, and furnished at the base with elongated feathers; legs slender having four long toes connected as far as the first joint by membrane; the claw of the middle one remarkable for having its inner edge serrated.

This genus frequents the banks of lakes and rivers, living principally on fish, of which they destroy great numbers; they build in the same places in large societies, and migrate in flocks periodically; when flying the neck is folded on the back, and the legs extended; the sexes do not differ, but the young are very various, so as to render it difficult to class them.

This genus has been much curtailed by Cuvier, whilst the other species which belong to it, according to Linnaeus, and others, form new genera which will be noticed elsewhere. For further information, see **COMPARATIVE ANATOMY AND ZOOLOGY**.

They have been subdivided into four, in consequence of some slight differences.

a. True herons, having the neck furnished at its base with long pendant feathers.

A. Major et Cinerea, Ray, Lin. Cuv. *A. Cristata*, Brisson. *Le Heron Huppé*, Buff. *Common Heron*, Pen. More than three feet high; the forehead, neck, middle of the belly, edge of the wings and thighs white; the fore part of the neck studded with black and grey spots; a deep black tuft on the occiput; the beak and insides of a deep yellow; the legs brown, and the naked space above the knee red. Their appetite is enormous, and Willoughby states that they will eat fifty small roach and dace in a day. They usually obtain their prey by wading into the water, but oftentimes dash at it whilst on the wing. It is common in this country.

Dr. Hryaham has given a very curious account of a contest between a colony of herons and rooks; in consequence of the former having had their habitation destroyed by the cutting down of some trees, they made an attack upon the rookery for the purpose of obtaining quarters, but were repulsed after an obstinate contest, with some slaughter. The next year they proceeded to the attack again and being victorious, peace was established between the hostile parties, and they both continued to occupy the same place in quiet.

Heron hawking was formerly a celebrated sport, and a penalty of twenty shillings was imposed on any person taking the eggs.

A. Purpurea, Lin. Cuv. *Bataurus Major*, Bris. *A. Caspica*, Leach. *A. Stellaris Major*, Ray. *Le Heron Pourpre*, Buff. *Crested Purple Heron*, Lath.

Nearly three feet high; the occiput covered with long, narrow, greenish black feathers; the base of the neck with purplish white; the scapulars with brilliant red purple plumes; the throat white, the sides of the neck of a clear red, having three narrow longitudinal stripes of black; the back, wings, and tail of a greyish red; the thighs and abdomen red; the body and breast purple; the beak and skin round the eyes yellow, the irides orange; the forepart of the tarsi and toes of a brown green, whilst the under part and the soles of the feet are yellow. The young want the crest and the long feathers at the base of the neck and scapulars. In its growth this bird undergoes several changes, and has got, in consequence, not less than six specific names in Latham's Synopsis. It is common on the western parts of Asia, and occurs but rarely in Europe, on the banks of the Danube, and the morasses of Holland. It is also abundant in Malta.

A. Purpurea, *Purpurata*, *Rufa*, of Gmelin and *Africana* of Latham, are considered by Meger as varieties of the same species.

A. Minuta et Donnicollis, Gmel. Cuv. *le Blongios*, Bris. *Little Bittern Heron*, Pen. About the size of a thrush, of a rufous colour, the top of the head, back, and wings, black; beak and irides yellow; legs yellowish green. The young have the beak brown, and the body and wing coverts sprinkled with longitudinal spots, which after the second moulting disappear. This bird is extremely common in Switzerland, and has been met with, though but rarely, in Devonshire.

A. Comata, Gmel. Cuv. *Squaiotta*, Ray. *Le Crabier de Mahon*, Buff. *Cancrofaena Lutens*, Bris. *Squacco Heron*, Lath. This bird is about 18 inches; the occiput ornamented with a tuft of long narrow feathers edged with black; throat black; the neck, top of the back, and scapulars of a bright red; the rest of the plumage white; the beak of an azure blue at the base and black at the tip; irides yellow, as are also the legs, which are shaded with green.

A. Garzetta, Lin. Cuv. *l'Aigrette*, Buff. *Little Egret*, Pen. About the size of a fowl, entirely white, but its slender feathers, which are wedge-shaped, do not extend beyond the tail; bill black.

β. The Egrets are those Herons which have the feathers on the breast and scapulars very delicate, long, slender, and unwebbed. They were formerly used as ornaments for the head, "hence the term *Aigrette*, or

ARDEA.

ARDEA. Egret, came to signify an ornament for the head," says Pennant.

A. Egretta et Alba, Lin. Gmel. Cuv. *la Grande Aigrette*, Buff. *Great Egret*, Pen. Entirely white, but much larger than the preceding. Many of the feathers on the back are a foot and a half long, extending beyond the tail; the beak and irides are of a bright yellow; the legs green. It is common in Asia, some parts of Africa, and the south of Europe; it is also found in America, which Stephens thinks may be another species; but Cuvier considers it as belonging to this.

A. Stellaria, Ray, Lin. Cuv. *Botaurus*, Briss. le Butor, Buff. *Bittern*, Pen. about two feet six inches long; the general colour of the plumage is a dull yellow, variegated with spots, or bars of black; the crown of the head black; the tail short: irides yellow; legs green. It lives in the rushes of large marshes, a solitary life, continuing whole days in the same spot, where they sit with the head erect, so that they can see without being seen. They are very fierce, and when wounded will lie on their back and fight furiously with their beak and claws. Mr. Markwick in relating a circumstance of this kind, states that the Bittern he had shot repulsed the dogs, nor could it be taken till it was fired at again and killed. The eggs which are laid in April are hatched in about three weeks, and whilst the young are bringing up, which is about two months, the male makes a curious noise like the bellowing of a bull, whence Brisson has named it *Botaurus*, from *bos* and *taurus*. It also makes another singular noise during the autumn evenings after sunset, well known as the Bittern's Drum.

The other species are—

A. Lentiginosa, Montagu. *American Bittern*, Wilson. *Freckled Bittern*, Montagu.

A. Undulata, Gmel. *Zigzag Bittern*, Lath.

A. Tigrina, Gmel. *Tiger Bittern*, Lath.

A. Lineata, Gmel. *Lineated Bittern*, Lath.

A. Brasiliensis, Lin. *Brazilian Bittern*, Lath.

A. Flava, Gmel. *Yellow Bittern*, Lath.

A. Senegalensis, Gmel. *Senegal Bittern*, Lath.

A. Viridescens, Lin. *Green Heron*, Lath. *Small Bittern*, Catesby.

2. The Night Herons, with the general character of the Heron have several slender and stiff feathers inserted in the occiput of the full grown bird.

A. Nycticorax, Lin. Cuv. *La Bihoreau*, Buff. *Chastant Heron*, Lath. *Night Heron*, or *Night Raven*, Pen. Is about twenty two inches long; the body white with the scapulars, back, head, and occiput black, from which last spring three narrow white feathers, with dusky tips, measuring seven inches in length. The young of the first year have no tuft on the nape. This bird lives near the sea shore, marshes, &c. keeping close during the day, but coming out in the dusk of the evening to feed on fishes, frogs, and worms. It is very common in the southern parts of both continents, but rare on the northern.

The other species are—

A. Cayanaensis, Gmel. *Cayenne Night Heron*, Lath.

A. Caledonica, Gmel. *Caledonian Night Heron*, Lath.

A. Jamaicensis, Gmel. *Jamaica Night Heron*, Lath.

See Ray *Synopsis Methodica Avium*. Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*. Brisson *Ornithologie*. Latham's *General Synopsis of Birds*. Cuvier *Régne Animal*.

ARDEBIL, an ill fortified town in the province of ARDEBIL, Azerbâijân (38° 14' N. Lat. 48° 27' 35" E. Long.). In a circular plain, surrounded by mountains which defend it from the winds blowing from the Caspian Sea; and its elevation renders its atmosphere so temperate and healthy, as to have acquired for it the name of Abidânî firîz, "the happy abode." Fertility of soil, abundance of streams, and salubrity of air have always rendered this a flourishing place. It serves as a dépôt for the trade between Russia, the northern part of Asia Minor and Persia, and its bazars (markets) are well supplied. The town is of a moderate size, and the country around it one of the most pleasing in Persia. The bâlukû (fish river), runs through the town, and its superfluous waters are conveyed by a canal to the Kariâ-s-â (Black water) which passes near it, and falls into the Erres (Araxes). The tomb of Sheikh S'effi, the founder of the principal Persian dynasty, is in the great square; those also of Sheikh, Haider, and Ismail Shâh are placed under small domes, and are still held in the highest veneration by the Persians, many of whom desired to be buried near the remains of those holy men. In the neighbouring mountains, of which Sevelû or Sepelû is one of the loftiest, and yet is both productive and inhabited, there are several mineral springs which are frequented by the sick. (Olearius *Rückesack*, 2d. ed. p. 243. Tavernier, p. 25. Della Valle *Voy.* li. 189. Macdonald Kinneir's *Memoir*. Sir R. K. Porter's *Travels*, vol. i. Jambert's *Voyages*, p. 106, seq.)

ARDECHE, a department of France, on the north of Languedoc, which comprises the whole of the ancient diocese of Viviers, or the Upper and Lower Vivarais.

ARDENNES, a very extensive forest, which in the widest acception, commences in French Hainault, and extends through Picardy, Champagne, and Luxembourg to the Moselle, comprising likewise the south part of the principality of Liège. The name Ardenes, however, is now applied only to that tract of woody country which reaches from Sedan and Mezieres to Philippeville, on the one side, and Avesnes on the other.

ARONNES, a department in France, having the Netherlands and the department of the Meuse to the north and east, the department of the Aisne to the west, and that of the Marne to the south. It takes its name from the large forest noticed in the preceding article. Its length is computed at 25 leagues, and its breadth at 18, its area at 1,029,199 square acres, and on this surface there are 346,000 inhabitants. It is a frontier department, and comprehends the ancient French duchy of Rhetelois, the province of Remois, and part of Argonne, the French portion of Namur, and the government of Sedan. The taxes paid by this department exceed £100,000 sterling. In the north it is full of mountains and woods, in the south-east the soil is chalky, in the south-west it consists of a rich loam, and in the east it is stony. It is watered by the Aisne and Meuse, and produces grain of all kinds, wood, iron, coal, and slate. But its riches lie in its forests, its pastures, and its cattle. Tolerable wine is obtained in some parts of the south. The iron mines are productive, especially those in the arroudissements of Mezieres and Retel. •

ARDENT.

ARDENT, Ardeo, ardens, to parch, to burn.
A'ROENCY, Burning, heating; having the vio-
A'DENTLY, lence of fire; and therefore violent,
A'DOUR, vehement, passionate, eager.

For if he bee *ardent* in surmise, and that he be a rancour by violence of foraine riches, then shall saine that he is like a wolf.

Chaucer. Boecius, book iv. fo. 232. c. 2.

He [Henry the Seventh] was the more *ardently* thereto encouraged, because he perceived Maximilian himself so earnestly set and bent toward that enterprise, and therefore he made his answer to James the Ambassador, that he would be ashamed to be found slack or repugnant at any time of Maximilian his fellow and companion in arms.

Grafton, v. ii.

Daring this quyle in the fatis marciall
Mesantius moult with *ardence* bellicall
By instigation of Jove in that orde
Gan to the battal in his place succede.

Douglas. Enchiridion, book 3. p. 343.

Mesantius by Jove's impulse, Mesantius arm'd:
Succeeding Turnus with his *ardor* waru'd
His taunting friends, reproach'd their shameful flight,
Repell'd the victors, and renew'd the fight.

Dryden.

Ever the greater merit shall he have that most restraineth the wicked enclaving or *ardore* of this sense.

Chaucer. The Pervant Tale, v. ii. p. 370.

Her long with *ardent* look his eye pursu'd
Delighted, but desiring more her stay.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

—'Noy'd on
In silence their bright legions, to the sound
Of instrumental harmonie that breath'd
Heroic *ardor* to advent'rous deeds
Under their god-like leaders, in the cause
Of God and his Messiah.

Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

The *ardency* in Christ was sincere *ardency*, accompanied with acts of love and trust of the same temper; and the brightening it *encreasce*, was an addition of degrees to that act of *ardency*, and so of prayer, and proportionably of love and trust in God, above either what there was, or what there was occasion for at other times.

Hammond. Degrees of Ardency in Christ's Prayer.

Not far behind, a knight of sturdy face,
High on a cool-black steed pursu'd the chase;
With flashing flames his *ardent* eyes were fill'd,
And in his hands a naked sword he held.

Dryden's Fables.

For men *ardently* aspiring to a spiritual happiness, that here he cannot enjoy, much less hereafter, if the soul perish, is under a remediless infelicity.

Bates. On Immortality of the Soul, v. i. p. 70.

And therefore it is very possible to be too devout, not because any expression of scrupulous love can be made with too much *ardency*, whilst it is considered abstractedly in itself, and irrespectively to the rest; but because that there being several duties of love, which require an *ardency* of it, it is injurious to exercise all that in one alone, or a few, that belongs equally to the neglected others.

Bayle's Works, v. i.

Heaven wills our happiness, allows our doom;
Invites us *ardently*, but not compels.

Young. The Complaint Night, vii.

There was one Felton, of a good family but of an *ardent* melancholic temper, who had served under the Duke (of Buckingham), in the station of lieutenant.

Hume's History of England.

— for the hero next
He fury'd, more *ardent* than the blast of fire,
A comet.

Cowper's Road, book xviii.

All martial fire herself, in *er'ry* breast
She kindled *ardors* infinite and strength,
For ceaseless fight infus'd into them all.

Cowper's Road, book ii.

Those who securely lul'd in youth's warm ray,
Mark'd not the desolations wrought by time
He ruin'd or perish. *Ardent* for its prey,
Speeds the fell hour that ravages thy prime.

Beattie's Poems.

ARDES, a small but thriving town of France, in Lower Auvergne, the capital of the ancient duchy of Mercœur. It is now the head of a canton in the arrondissement of Issoire, department of the Puy de Dome, and has 410 houses and 1640 inhabitants. It lies at the foot of the hill of Laquet, in a fruitful country, and is considered as the staple place of traffic between Upper and Lower Auvergne. The scenery around the town is very romantic. The hills of Mercœur and Ranties enclose a beautiful valley, which is watered by the river Couse, while along the last mentioned hill stands a ridge of beautiful basalt rocks, fully two miles in length, and from 70 to 80 feet in height. It happened unfortunately, that in the year 1743 a mass of granite rock, of nearly 400 feet in length, and of equal breadth was precipitated into the valley below, spreading terror and devastation throughout. It overwhelmed, in its passage, a mill on the Couse, with all its inhabitants, and choked up so completely the mill-dam, that the bed of the river in the town was dried up for 24 hours. The surrounding country has a number of volcanic productions. 10 leagues S. of Clermont-Ferrand.

ARDESLEY, East, in the Wapentake of Morley, West Riding, county of York; a Chapel of the certified value of £27.; Patron, the Duke of Montagu. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 686. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £515. 4s. 9d., at 9s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4 miles N. W. by N. from Wakefield.

ARDESLEY, West, in the Wapentake of Morley, West Riding, county of York; a Chapel of the certified value of £31. 5s.; Patron, the Duke of Montagu; Chapel dedicated to St. Mary. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 1032. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £740. 11s. 6d., at 14s. 1d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles N. W. by N. from Wakefield.

ARDERT, though now a small decayed village, was formerly the principal town in the county of Kerry in Ireland, and, till the Union, retained the privilege of returning two members to Parliament. It is also a bishop's see, which includes the whole county of Kerry and part of the county of Cork. In the civil wars the cathedral was demolished, and the town, in a great measure, destroyed. Soon after the restoration it was annexed to the see of Limerick, and has ever since continued united to it. There are several ruins in the neighbourhood of the church, which is very old, and a round tower, one of the loftiest in the island, built of a dark kind of marble, fell in 1770. Ardert is near the sea, 144 miles S. W. of Dublin.

ARDGLASS, a town in the county of Down, in Ulster, Ireland. About 7 miles from Downpatrick, chiefly interesting from a variety of ruins, of which no history is given.

ARDINGLEY, in the hundred of Street, though locally situate in the hundred of Buttinghill, Rape of

ARDENT.

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ARDING-LEY.

—

ARDING-
LEY.

ARDRAH.

Lewes, county of Sussex; a Rectory valued in the King's books at £19. 5s. 10d.; Patron, R. Clarke, Esq. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 506. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £959. 19s. 9d., at 1s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4 miles N. E. by N. from Cuckfield.

ARDINGTON, in the hundred of Wantage, county of Berks, a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £8. 7s. 9d., Patrons, the Dean and Canons of Christ Church, Oxford; Church dedicated to the Holy Trinity. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 344. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £222. 18s. 2d., at 3s. in the pound. It is 2½ miles E. from Wantage.

ARDISIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pentandria, order Monogynia. Generic character. Calyx of five leaves. Corolla hypocrateriform, limbus reflexed. Antheræ large, erect. Stigma simple. Drupa superior, one-seeded.

Of this genus there are several species inhabiting different parts of the world.

ARDLEIGH, in the hundred of Sendring, county of Essex; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books at £11. 0s. 10d.; Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Mary. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 1145. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £1062. 2s. 8d., at 5s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. E. from Colchester.

ARDLEY, in the hundred of Ploughley, county of Oxford; a Rectory valued in the King's books at £5. 12s. 8d.; Patron, the Duke of Marlborough. Church dedicated to St. Mary. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 109. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £63. 15s. 4d., at 1s. 9d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. W. by N. from Bicester.

ARDRAH, (ARDER, ARDAH), called by the Negroes *Aratacasi* or *Alatacasi*, i. e., Arradas or Alladas, formerly an independent state on the Slave Coast of Guinea, now subject to the kingdom of Dahomi, to the west of the river Lagos. Its capital, bearing the same name, (also called *Assem* or *Azem*), in 6° 35' N. Lat., 4° 15' E. Long., is a large and populous town, with wide streets. Its population may amount to 15,000 or 18,000. The inhabitants are industrious, and carry on a considerable trade. Cloth, earthenware, mats, hats, wooden bowls, beads, and implements of agriculture are manufactured by them in considerable quantities, and carried for sale into the interior. The Slave Trade is carried on with considerable profit, and to a great extent by the Portuguese, Spaniards, and French. This is the only place on that coast where milk is generally used as an article of food. Ardrah is seven days journey from Ayô (Eyecoo), or Ayê, the natives of which come hither in large caravans on horseback. The country is rich and luxuriant, abounding in hill and dale, well watered, and producing all the fruits and vegetables common between the tropics. In manners, habits, character, and superstitions, the natives of this country resemble the people of Dahomi and Whydah. They disfigure themselves by making an incision in each cheek, turning up the skin towards the ear, and causing it to heal thus distorted. The kingdom of Ardrah or Allada was invaded and nearly subdued by

the Ays, from the north, in 1696, and completely subdued by Gunja Trado, King of Dahomi in 1727. They seem now to be little more than nominally tributary to that kingdom, being protected by the Ays. The language of Ardre or Allada is a dialect of that used along the coast from the Rio da Volta, to the Bani (Bonny). See Smith's *Voyage to Guinea*, p. 169, 171. Bosman, p. 315. Snelgrave, p. 7. Dalzel's *Dahomy*, p. 9, 13. Bowditch's *Ashantee*, p. 224. Robertson's *Notes*, p. 280, 283. Adeling *Mithridates*, III. part i. p. 206.

ARDRES, a town of France, in the department of the straits of Valais, and chief place of a canton. In an open plain between Ardres and Guenry, took place the celebrated interview between Henry VIII. and Francis I. which from the magnificence displayed by the two courts, obtained the name of "the field of the cloth of gold." See Robertson's *Charles I.* vol. II. p. 110.

ARDROSSAN, a seaport town and parish of Scotland, in the county of Ayr. The town has lately been laid out after a regular plan, with commodious buildings, and is now resorted to for sea bathing. There is a safe and spacious harbour here, which was constructed at great expense by the Earl of Eglington. Population of the parish 2526. 1 mile N. of Saltcoats.

ARDSTRAW, a village and parish of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, said to have been a bishop's see. In 1196 the village, then called a town, was plundered, and the church destroyed by Sir John de Conrey. There are two towns in the parish, Newton-Stewart and Magherarygan, the only church of the establishment being situated at the former; besides which there are within its bounds three Roman Catholic chapels and eight places of worship for sectaries. The inhabitants have a superstitious practice of lighting fires on Midsummer eve, around which they drive their cattle. Population of the parish 18,122. Distant 6 miles S. of Strabane, 94 from Dublin.

ARDVERT, a town of France, on the coast of Saint-tonge, in the department of the Lower Charente. It is the head of a canton, has 650 houses, and 3600 inhabitants, who support themselves chiefly by a trade in salt, wine, and fish, both fresh and salted, particularly sardels. The peninsula of this name has many morasses and forests, but the coasts afford excellent fishing. It includes the tract of country lying between the Garonne, the Seudre, and the sea. Six leagues and a half west of Saintes.

ARDVINA, in Botany, a genus of plants consisting of one species, a shrub. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

AR'DUOUS, arduus, Lat. which Vossius thinks is from ardeo. Videtur ita dici, quia instat flammæ, eorumque quæ ardent, ad summam tendit.

Lofty, steep; difficult to ascend or climb; difficult.

But light sawe downe, my lodgy faile,

Light downe, and hold my steed,

While I and this discourteous knight

Doe trye this arduous dede.

The Child of Kille in Percy's Reliques, v. i.

Hear how learn'd Greece how useful rules indites,

When to repress, and when indulge our flights;

High on Parnassus' top her nous she shows'd,

And pointed out those arduous paths they trod.

Pope. Essay on Criticism.

ARDU-
OUS.

ARDU-
OUS
—
AREAD.

Prior, who was employed by men very capable of estimating his value, having been secretary to one embassy, had, when great abilities were again wanted, the same office another time; and was, after so much experience of his knowledge and dexterity, at last sent to transact a negotiation in the highest degree arduous and important.

Johnson's Life of Prior.

Fatiduous or else listless, or perhaps
Aware of nothing arduous in a task
They never undertook, they little note
His dangers or escapes, and happily find
There least amazement where he found the most.

Cowper's Task.

Endless the task, and arduous, to unfold
What secrets earth's profuse entrails hold.
In nature's womb, what ceylonian treasures sleep,
The wondrous natives of the hoary deep.

Breaker's Poem.

ARE, in French measure, is a superficial unit, or a square, containing 94831 square feet.

AREA, from areo, to dry; *Josias*. An area is a place where corn, when reaped, may be thrashed and dried. From the resemblance open places in a city are called areas. *Jorro*. And more generally any open though bounden space is so called.

In a room contriv'd for state, the height of the roof shou'd bear a proportion to the area.

Dryden's Ded. to Span. Fryar.

The famous amphitheatre, that with a few modern preparations has all the seats reared. There is something very noble in it, tho' the high wall and corridors that were round it are almost entirely ruined, and the area is quite filled up to the lower seat, which was formerly deep enough to let the spectators see in safety the combats of the wild beasts and gladiators.

Addison's Italy, p. 44.

How noble must be the appearance, when an area of many leagues in circumference is formed into one vast mirror, and this mirror surrounded by a combination of great and beautiful objects?

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland, &c.

In Architecture, area denotes the site on which an edifice stands. In Geometry, it is the superficial content of any figure.

AREAD, A. S. Areadan, to conjecture, to divine, to guess, to reed; a word, adds Sommer, which to this day we use for explaining of riddles.

To conjecture, to guess, to declare, to explain, to counsel.

Never yet
I trowe no man had the wit
To coo well my sweren reed
Ne sat scarcely Macroboos—
I trowe a reed my sweren even
Lo this it was, this was my sweren.

The Dreame of Chaucer, ed. 241. c. 1.

This kyng out of his sweren almeide,
And he vpon the morowe it saide
Unto the clerkes, which he had
Bet none of them the south aread.

Gower. Con. A. book i.

This sweren can I well arede,
Quod the other sarraine anon,
The barly cake is Godeoon,
Whiche fro the hille downe sodelelle
Shall come, and set us a skere
Upon the kinges, and vs both,
That it shal to vs all lorde.

Id. A. book vii.

And thit blindfolden him: and smyten his face, and axiden him: and axiden, aread thou Crist to us, who is he that smote thee?

Wiclif. Luke, c. 22.

And whi they had blindfolded him, they stroke hym on the face, and asked hym, saying: arede, who is it that smote the?

Idem, 1539.

While they were on a time for their sport purposing riddles among the, she beganne to put forth one of here to, and said, arede my riddle, what is that, I knew one that shot at an hart and killed an haddock.

Sir Tho. More's Works, fol. 552. c. 1.

But stay, my muse, in height of all this speed;
Somewhat plucks back to quench this sacred heat,
And many perils doth to us arede,
In that wherof we seriously treat.

Dryden's Moore, book ii. 482.

Who ever saw a colt wanton and wild,
Yok'd with a slow-footed ox on fallow field,
Can right arede how handsomely heuts
Dull spondeeus with the English dextilets.

Sp. Hall. Satire vi.

He who shall endeavour the amendment of any old neglected grievance in church or state, or in the daily course of life, if he be gifted with abilities of mind that may raise him to so high an undertaking, I grant he hath already much wherof not to repent him, yet let us arede him, not to be the foreman of any misjudg'd opinion, unless his resolutions be firmly seated in a square and constant mind, not conscious to itself of any deserved blame, and regardless of ungrounded suspicions.

Milton's Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

AREBO, or ARBON, a town of Benin, situated on the river Formosa, about 60 miles from its mouth. It is large, handsome, and populous, and forms a sort of centre for the trade of this country. Both the English and Dutch had factories here; but the former has been allowed to go into decay. Long. 5° 8' E. Lat. 5° 58' N.

ARECA, in Botany, a genus of plants class Monocera, order Monadelphina. Generic character. General spathe of two valves. Male. Calyx five partite. Corolla of three petals. Stamina six, united at the base. Female. Calyx of five leaves. Corolla of three petals. Nectary six toothed. Styles three, very short. Drupa one seeded. This genus belongs to the interesting tribe of palms, and contains several species.

ARECHE, } A. S. Arecean, to get, to obtain, to attain or achieve; to reach, to take. Sommer.

In G. Douglas, areik.

For yet perchance I maie purchase
With some good word the kynges grace,
Your life and eke your good to save.
For ofte shall a woman laze
Thynge, whiche a man maie not areche.

Gower. Con. A. book i.

And if it might so betide
That he vpon the blynde side
Paras the swete tounes aright,
Than shalte thou have a lustie draught.

Gower. Con. A. book vi.

Ottel, for wrath, anon
Arreight him on the cheek bone;
All this fell off that was there,
And made his teeth all bare.

Sir Ottel in Elke, v. li.

A'REFY, } Areficio, to make dry, from aren
AREFA'CTION, } to dry, and facio, to make.

Time and heat are fellows in many effects: heat drieth bodies that do easily expare; as parchmēt leaves, roots, clay, etc.; and so doth time or age arify; as if in the same bodies.

Bacon's Works, v. i.

It is more probable, that he, that knoweth the nature of arefaction, the nature of assimilation, &c. shall, by ambrages of diets, &c. prolong life, or restore some degree of youth or vivacity, than that it can be done with the use of a few drops, or scruples of a liquor or receipt.

Bacon, v. i. p. 62.

AREAD.
AREFFY.

AREFY.

ARENA.

Some breed in hair of living creatures, as lice, and ticks; which are bred by the sweat close kept, and somewhat covered by the hair. *Bacon's Works*, v. i.

ARELAT was the name of a kingdom which comprehended Dauphiné, Provence, Burgundy, Savoy, and the west of Switzerland; and was sometimes called the kingdom of Burgundy. It had its existence in the 9th century, and took its name from Arles, in Provence, its metropolis. It has long been united with the French crown, with the exception of Savoy, and the portion belonging to Switzerland. The pretensions of the emperors of Germany to this territory have been long forgotten; but the elector of Treves continued to cumber among his titles that of arch-chancellor of the holy Roman empire, throughout Gaul and the kingdom of Arelat.

ARELEY, King's, or Lower Areley, in the upper division of the hundred of Dodingtree, county of Worcester; a Rectory valued in the King's books at £9; Patron, the Rector of Martley, Church dedicated to St. Bartholomew. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 377. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £228. 12s. 11d., at 6s. in the pound. It is 3½ miles S. by E. from Bewdley. This parish contains the Hamlet of Dimley.

ARELEY, Over, in the south division of the hundred of Seisdon, county of Stafford; a Curacy; Patron, the Dean and Chapter of Lichfield. Chapel dedicated to St. Peter. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 693. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £684. 4s. 6d., at 7s. 9d. in the pound. It is 15 miles S.W. by S. from Wolverhampton, and 3 miles W.N.W. from Bewdley, in the county of Worcester.

AREMA, a term applied by Chemists to that property, or part of bodies by which they affect the organs of smelling. Its nature, and the mode of its action is at present a subject of great obscurity.

AREMBERG, a small principality of Germany, on the Eiffel, lying between Cologne, Juliers, and Blankenheim, and now included in the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, which belongs to Prussia. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and brings in a revenue of 30,000 florins. The duke of Arenberg possessed many other territories in different parts of Germany and the Netherlands; their united magnitude amounted to 1100 square miles, with a population of 60,000, and a revenue of 390,000 florins (£90,000. sterling.) The family of Arenberg is descended from the house of Ligne; they were raised to the dignity of princes of the empire by Maximilian II. and to that of duke by Ferdinand III. They had a seat and vote in the diet of the empire, as well as in the circular diet of the Lower Rhine. The present duke's situation was modified; but not materially altered, by Bonaparte; the greater part of his other territories are in the temporary occupation of the great powers.

ARENA, } Lat. arena, sand, from areo, to
ARENA/CROUS, } dry (quia arida bibulaque) because
saud is dry and bibulous.

The amphitheatre is usually so called, says Vossius, because that place is spread with sand in usum pugne.

Hervetius may be added the arena, the place below in which their games were exhibited, so called, for that it was strowed over with sand for the drinking in of the blood, which was spilt upon

it, and officers they had purposely for this business, who in the laws and writings of the Christian doctors are termed, *arenarii* Sanders.

Hakewell's Apology.

In the centre of the edifice, the arena, a stage was strowed with the finest sand, and successively assumed the most different forms. *Gibbon's History*, v. ii.

ARENA, in Architecture, is the middle or body of a temple.

ARENARIA in Botany, a genus of plants, class Decandria. Order Trigynia. Generic character. Calyx of five leaves, spreading. Petals entire. Capsule of one cell, many seeded.

This is rather a numerous genus; it belongs to the natural order Caryophyllenæ of Jussieu, and is very nearly allied to Cerastium and Stellaria. The Arenaria or Sandworts, are chiefly inhabitants of the temperate and cold climates. Eight species are enumerated in the *British Flora*.

ARENAS, a small island of South America, on the mouth of the great river Orinoco, of a sandy soil, and covered with 19 or 15 feet of water in high tides.—Another on the coast of the kingdom of Terra Firma, in the province of Cartagena.—Also two other islands to the north of the island of St. Domingo.

ARENAS, BAHIA DE, a bay on the coast of the straits of Magellan. There are also three points or capes of this name, one on the coast of Maracibo, another on the western coast of South America, the bay of Guayaquil, opposite to the island of La Puna, between the second and third degrees of S. lat.; and another on the coast of Terra del Fuego.

ARENAS, CAPE, on the coast of Terra del Fuego.

ARENAS GONDAS, CAPE DE LAS, on the east coast of Patagonia. Lat. 38° S.

ARENAS, PUNTA DE, a cape on the east coast of the island of La Puna, in the South Pacific Ocean, in the middle of the gulf of Guayaquil.

ARENDAL, or ARNHAL, a small town of Norway, on the river of its own name, in the province of Christiansand, not far from the sea. It is built for the most part on piles. The river here forms itself into a small bay, to which vessels of considerable size can ascend from its mouth; and intercourse is carried on between different parts of the town by means of canals. Its foreign trade is chiefly in wood, many vessels being fitted out here for home and distant navigation. Iron mines are wrought in the neighbourhood.

ARENS DE MAR, or SANTA MARIA DE ARENS, a town of Spain, on the coast of Catalonia, 12 leagues from Gerona. It contains an elegant parish church, a convent of Capuchins, manufactures of anchors, silk and cotton stockings, and other stuffs; a navigation school, with a dock yard for the construction of small vessels. This place is favoured with a delightful situation and a salubrious climate; the activity, industry, and cleanliness which prevail throughout is very gratifying when compared with the ordinary filth and indolence of Spanish villages. The women are employed in making lace, and the men in fishing, navigation, and trade. The vessels, though of small dimensions, make voyages to different parts in Spain, Roussillon, Italy, and even Spanish America. Population 3500.

AREOLA, in Anatomy, the coloured circle which

ARENA.

AREOLA.

AREOPAGUS.

surrounds the nipple of the breast. In Natural History a species of madrepore.

AREOPAGUS, a judicial tribunal at Athens, in great reputation among the Greeks, and it is somewhat remarkable, considering what celebrity it attained both at home and abroad, and how frequent mention is made of it in history, that there is hardly any circumstance connected with its origin, about which writers are agreed. It is uncertain when it was instituted. The origin of its name is controverted; the number of its members, and who they were is also a matter of dispute. By some it is said to have consisted only of 39, by others this number is enlarged to 51; while some again contend that it was composed of 500. Maximus tells us it consisted of 51, besides such of the nobility as were eminent for their virtue and riches; *ἀλλ' ἐξ ἀρχαίων καὶ πλοῦτον ἐξ ἑνὸς σωφρονιστοῦ* by which words he is commonly understood to mean the nine archons, who were the constant seminary from whom this great tribunal was supplied; and who having discharged their office regularly passed into the areopagus. And this was probably the reason why their number was so fluctuating. When Socrates was condemned by this court, we find no less than 280 voting against him, besides those who voted for his acquittal; and in an ancient inscription erected to the memory of Rufus Festus, proconsul of Greece, the number of the areopagus is said to be 300.

The areopagus assembled thrice every month; their meetings were always in the open air, and they determined all causes at night, and in the dark. The first circumstance was owing to a superstitious notion of the pollution contracted by being under the same roof with murderers and other flagitious criminals, whose offences fell under their cognizance; the second custom was observed, in order that the minds of the members might be wholly intent upon the evidence, and at the same time secured against prepossession in favour either of plaintiff or defendant.

By Solon's institution the custody of the laws, of public manners, as well as the punishment of all offences against religion, were committed to this court; and in a more particular manner the crime of murder was placed under their cognizance. It was, however, only until the time of Pericles that the areopagus continued to exercise the extensive and censorial jurisdiction which Solon had assigned to it. From some motive which we cannot rightly explain, Pericles appears to have regarded this court with a malignant eye; and the studied contempt with which he systematically treated it, seems to have given a blow to its authority from which it never recovered; although Demosthenes tells us, that till his time, there never had been so much as one of its determinations, of which any party had just reason to complain; a dictum which surely must be received with considerable qualifications, if we believe that it was by this tribunal that Socrates was condemned.

Mr. Spon, who examined the antiquities of Athens, found some remains of what he supposes to have been the areopagus still existing in the middle of the Temple of Theseus, which was formerly within the city, but is now without the walls. The foundation of the areopagus, he describes as being a semicircle with an esplanade round it of 140 paces, which pro-

perly made the hall of this court. There is a tribunal cut in the middle of a rock, with seats on each side of it, on which the areopagites were seated, and which are exposed to the open air.

AREQUIPA, a province and government of Peru, bounded on the north by that of Collaguas; east by that of Lambu; south by that of Moquehuca and Africa; west by the South Sea; and north west by the province of Cumana. It is 16 leagues in length, and from north west to south east 19 wide.

Arequipa, the capital of the above province, founded by order of Pizarro in 1536, in the valley of Quila, at 30 leagues distance from the Pacific Ocean. It is one of the largest towns in Peru, containing about 40,000 inhabitants, and the houses are well built of stone, and vaulted; they are not of an equal height, though they are generally lofty and commodious, and finely decorated on the outside. It is watered by the river Chili, which is let off by sluices to irrigate the environs and to enrich the fields; it is also conducted through the city by means of canals, by which the streets are kept clean, and all the filth swept away. But these advantages are counterbalanced by the dreadful shocks of earthquakes to which it is so subject, in common with all those parts of South America, that it has been four times laid in ruins by those convulsions of nature, besides having experienced smaller shocks not attended with such terrible consequences. These have happened in the years 1582, 1600, 1604, 1687, 1725, 1734, and 1738. It is 217 leagues S. E. of Lima, 60 from Cuzco, and 50 N. of Africa. Long. 71° 58' W. Lat. 16° 16' S.

ARERE. A. S. *araran*. To rear or raise up; to erect, to exalte.

*He stones stouderly þer so grete, so more ne more be,
Eurus vþ cryt & sveþe hys, þat wonder it is to se;
And oþer liþeþ hys aboute, þat a moon may be of a ferd,
þat vntil mon wondre may how heo were first a rered.*

R. Gloucester, p. 7.

*For þer nas prince non þat hym deoute arere stief
So þat he hold þo þis lord in þes al is lyf.*

Id. p. 89.

*The day is miri, and draweth long
The laik ærreth lere song;
To meet goth the danciers,
And faice flowers gadreth fele.*

Merlin in Ellis, v. 1.

And as Moyses availed a serpent in desert, so it behooveth mannes none to be eride; that ech man that beleeneth in him perische not, but have everlastinge lyf.

Wiclif, I. m. c. 4.

ARESON. Fr. *arraisonner*, to reason with. Tyrwhit. Fr. *Raison*. It. *Ragione*. Lat. *Ratio*, from *reor*, *ratas*, to think. And see *ARRAIGN*.

To think, to censure, to accuse, to arraign.

*Richt thus while false Seblai semoneth
Eft anon how him crouneth
And brake his tale in his speaking
As though he had him tolde leasing
And asked: what dreil is that I heare?*

Chaucer. *The Romance of the Rose*, fol. 145. c. 2.

Thus Retchelmeuse in a rage, arraignede clergyie
And scornede synnere.

The Faints of Pier's Pleasance, p. 222.

*As the kyng rool with dysken and earls,
He metie with two olde chorlers,
To the navet theu berd heng:
Thus arraignede how the kyng.*

Byng Almonder in Webber, v. 1.

AREPOPA-

GUS.

ARESON.

ARETHUSA.
ARGANA.

ARETHUSA, is the name of several fountains that have been celebrated by the ancient poets. There was one of this ounce in Arcadia, near Thebes; another in Euboea, as also in Thrace. But the fountain of this name which is chiefly known, is that to which Virgil refers in his tenth Eclogue, which was in Sicily, near Syracuse.

Extremum hunc, Aretusa, mihi concede laborem,
Sic tibi cum fluctus subterlabere Siccas
Doris amara suavis non intermiscuit undam.

ARETHUSA, in Botany, a genus of orchideous plants, containing one species, a native of North America. Brown in *Hort. Kew.*

ARETIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pentandria. Order Monogynia. Generic character. Corolla hypocrateriform, five cleft, the tube ovate. Stigma depresso-capitate. Capsule of one cell, globose, generally five-seeded.

As alpine genus allied to Primula; it contains three species which inhabit the mountains of Europe.

ARETTE. In barbarous Latine is found aretare, the same, says Du Cange, as retare, rettare, for rectare; to warn an accused person to do right (rectum), to summon to justice.

Sir Thomas More writes "arret."

Arrette, says Skinner, seems to mean to censure, to estimate, from the Fr. *arretter*, to judge.

Arrette, Fr. to impute to. Tyrwhitt.

The Greek *Arretos*, is rendered by the Vulgate, imputor, reputor, and these by Wicliff arette. Tindall translates the Greek variously, to coote, to reckon, to impute, to lay to the charge.

Perhaps arette, is arate, to rate, from reor, ratus, to reckon, value, estimate, to place to the account, to lay to the charge.

But frate I praise you of your curteisie,
That ye ne arette it not my vilanie,
Though that I plainly speke in this matere,
To telle you hir wordes and hir chere.

Chaucer. *The Prologue*, v. i.

Yet comen ther of ire many mo sinners, as wel in thought and in dede; as he that *arreteth* upon God, or blameth God of the thing of which he is himself guilty.

Id. *The Pervous Tale*, v. ii. p. 331.

Sotheli to him that worthith not but blameith into him that justifieth a wicked man his feith is arettid to rightwysnesse after the purpos of goddis grace.

Wicliff. *Romayne*, c. iv.

To hym that worketh not, but belonch on him y^e justifyth the vngodly, in his feyth *coited* for ryghtwysnes.

Bide, 1539.

For if he hath any thing anyed ther either owth arette thou this thing to use.

Wicliff. *Filomen.*

But God became he hath from the begynnyng chosen the to exaltynge blisse, therfore he *arreteth* no blame of theyr dedes vnto them, but all the workes of a just man that is to say good he, of a perva by God predestinate to glory, turne him to good, how euil so ever they be.

Sir Tho. More's *Works*, fol. 271. c. 2.

ARGALI, in Zoology, a name synonymous with musmon, ovio musmo, wild sheep, mouflon, &c. It is the same animal from which, as is believed, all the varieties and domesticated kinds of that useful creature, the common sheep, have originated, and is found in a state of nature in the alpine regions of the great continent of Asia. See ORIS.

ARGANA, AORREHAN, or HARGANA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, the capital of a district of the same

VOL. XVII.

ARGANA.
ARGENTAN.

came, in the government of Diarbekir. It is a considerable place, situated on the side of a mountain, and the streets so steep that a stranger can walk with difficulty. It is joined by roads ascending the mountain so dangerous that a false step would be attended with inevitable destruction. It is inhabited by Kurds and Turks. General Gardanne affirms that it consists of only 60 houses. Mr. Jackson describes it as a large and populous town. The neighbourhood abounds in iron ore. Long. 39° 30' E. Lat. 36° 15' N.

ARGANA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, 18 miles S. S. W. of Erzerum.

ARGAS, in Zoology, a genus of the class Arachnides, order Acera, family Riciniae, of Latreille.

Generic character. Palpi free, not enclosing the haustellum, conical, inferior, as is also the haustellum.

The animals of this genus live by sucking the blood of mammalia, birds, and reptiles. They belong to the Linnean genus Acarus.

ARGEMONE, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Polyandria. Order Monogynia. Generic character. Corolla of six petals. Calyx of three leaves. Capsule semi-valved.

A genus closely allied to papaver.

ARGENT, } Argentum, silver, from *argyros*,
ARGENTINE, } so called *argentea* *voapay*, from its
ARGENTY, } whiteness.
Silvery; having the appearance of silver.

The fish lookt up, and saw the azure shile,
With *argent* beames of silver swimming spred,
And started up, for praise and vertue lie
In soil and truelt, since and shame in bed.

Faustus's *Tam*, book xiv.

And dyette against the gate was devised a hallops, and at the entry of the stair was images of sore and terrible countenances, all armed in curious worrke of *argenteus*.

Hall. *Henry VIII.* fol. 73.

No medals, of rich stuff of Tyrian dye;
No costly bowls of frosted *argenty*.

Hewell, p. 1.

He war'd his royal banner in the wind -
Where in an *argent* field the god of war
Was drawn triumphant on his iron car.

Dryden's *Fables*.

Avoid the lustre of meridian day,
In slow procession, solemnly advance
A hundred youths in spotless tunics white,
Sustaining *argent* wands.

Greec's *Athenaid*, book xiv.

ARGENTINE, in Botany, a name given to the Onopordum Acanthium, or Cotton Thistle.

ARGENT, in Heraldry, signifies white or silver, and is the blazooning of the arms of gentlemen, knights, and baronets, this colour is so named; but in the arms of barons, viscounts, earls, &c. it is called pearl; in those of princes, linea. By engravings it is represented plain.

ARGENTAC, or AORRENTAT, a town of France, in the Lower Limousin, with 2580 inhabitants. It lies on the Dordogne, and belongs to the arrondissement of Tulle, to the department of the Correze. 18 miles S. E. of Tulle.

ARGENTAN, a town in Lower Normandy, situated on an elevation in the midst of a fertile plain, watered by the Orne. The houses to the town are tolerably regular and well built; it is surrounded with walls and ditches, and has on the rampart a fine avenue of trees. It is farther protected by an old castle.

5 p

ARGENTAN. — ARGENTIERA. Here were formerly a Benedictine priory, four convents, and two hospitals. Argentan contains manufactures of point lace, linen cloth, light stuffs, and leather. The country around Argentan yields great quantities of saltpetre, with which a lucrative trade is carried on. Here are held two weekly markets and four annual fairs. It was the birth place of the historian Menestier. Population in 1815, 5583. Four leagues S. of Falaise, and about 44 W. of Paris. Long. $0^{\circ} 57' E.$ Lat. $48^{\circ} 44' N.$

ARGENTUS, CODEX, in Biblical History, a manuscript of the four Gospels, so called from the silver letters in which it is written. This codex is preserved in the university of Upsal, and is a copy from the Gothic version of Ulphilas, which was made in the fourth century. It is of a quarto size, is written on vellum, the leaves of which are stained with a violet colour; and on this ground the letters, which are all uncials, or capitals, are painted in silver, except the initial letters, which are in gold. This MS. was first discovered in 1597, in the library of the Benedictine abbey of Werden, in Westphalia, where it was sent as a present to Christina, Queen of Sweden. Three editions of it have been given to the public, at Dort, 1665, Stockholm, 1673, Clarendon press, 1750.

Some fragments of the Gothic version of St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans were discovered by M. Knittel in the year 1756, in a codex manuscript belonging to the library of the Duke of Brunswick at Wolfenbützel, supposed to have been written in the sixth century; and in two voluminous codices reprints of the Ambrosian Library, at Milan. The abate Angein Maio has lately discovered the Meso-Gothic translation of the thirteen Epistles of St. Paul, made by Ulphilas, the loss of which has often been a subject of regret. These manuscripts are covered by Latin writing of a later date, and appear to have been written between the fifth and sixth centuries. This discovery affords a most valuable addition to biblical literature; an extensive specimen, together with a preliminary dissertation, has been published by the abate, but no copies of the work have yet gotten into circulation in this country.

ARGENTUILL, a small town of France, surrounded by walls and ditches, and situated on the right bank of the Seine, two leagues from Paris. It is the chief place of a canton in the department of the Seine and Oise, arrondissement of Versailles. Here was formerly a Benedictine monastery, of which the celebrated Heloise was prioress from the year 1130 to 1139. In this monastery was vested the property of the town, which was in former days the seat of a castellany. It is situated in a tract abundantly rich in fruit, vegetables, and wine. The neighbouring quarries yield good gypsum, which is mostly transported to Normandy. Population 4760. Three leagues N. E. of St. Germain.

ARGENTUILL, a small town of France, in the province of Champagne, department of the Yonne, arrondissement of Tonnerre. It lies on the river Armançon, and contains 1000 inhabitants. The neighbouring tract abounds in wine, corn, and pasture. Eight miles S. of Tonnerre.

ARGENTIERA, or KIMOLI, the ancient Cimalas, a small island in the Archipelago, belonging to the government of the capudan-pacha. It is full of rocky

mountains, and destitute of fertility. The inhabitants, who are Greeks, live together in the only village on the island, in great poverty, their only disposable commodity being a small quantity of cotton. It has its name from the silver mines which were formerly supposed to exist in it, but which have subsequently proved to be either a species of copper ore, or the substance called *marcasite*. The whole island is covered with a sort of chalk called Cimolian earth, which is used in the washing and bleaching of linen. Long. $24^{\circ} 42' E.$ Lat. $36^{\circ} 47' N.$

ARGENTIERA, a town of Italy, in the district of Caduria, 11 miles N. N. W. of Cadara.

ARGENTIERA. See CIMOLUS.

ARGENTIERE, a small town in Languedoc, the capital of an arrondissement, in the department of the Ardèche. It lies on the small river Ligne. Population 2000; 7 leagues W. of Viviers.

ARGENTIERE, or ARGENTINE, a town on the river Arc, in the county of Maurienne, in Savoy, with about 900 inhabitants, lead mines, and a large iron forge: 4 leagues N. by W. of St. Jean de Maurienne.

ARGENTIERE, CALD', a mountain of the Alps, in the county of Saluzzo, in Piedmont, across which there is a pass from Barcelonnette, in France, to Coni in Italy. The village of Argentiere lies in the valley of the Starns.

ARGENTON, a town of France, in Lower Berry, on the Creuse, which runs through the town, dividing it into upper and lower. It was formerly the seat of a lordship or county; it is now the head of a canton in the department of the Indre, arrondissement of Chateauroux. Population 3400. 15 miles S. S. W. of Chateauroux. Long. $1^{\circ} 25' E.$ Lat. $46^{\circ} 35' N.$

ARGENTON-LE-CHATEL, a town of France, in the department of the Deux-Sevres, arrondissement of Bressuire, formerly Thouars. It lies on the river of the same name, which falls into the Charente. It has 180 houses, and 880 inhabitants, with good vineyards. Four leagues W. of Thouars, and 17 N. of Niort. Long. $0^{\circ} 23' W.$ Lat. $46^{\circ} 59' N.$

ARGENTON-LE-CHATEL, a small town of France, in Poitou, department of the Deux-Sevres, arrondissement of Bressuire, lately Thouars, with 780 inhabitants. Two leagues N. of Thouars, and 19 N. N. E. of Niort.

ARGENTRE-SUR-VITRE, a town in Brittany, and the head of a canton in the department of the Ille and Vilaine, arrondissement of Vitre. Population 2300. Nine leagues E. of Rennes.

ARGENTUM, silver, in pharmacy. The argenti nitrus, nitrate of silver, or lunar caustic, is the only preparation used in medicine and surgery. When melted and cast into moulds its use as a caustic is well known. It has been administered internally in epilepsy and other diseases; but while we possess medicines of equal efficacy, this preparation should never be given, since it has been found to produce an indelible blueish black tint under the skin, which has disfigured the unfortunate patients when have taken it for the remainder of their lives.

ARGENTUM MOSAICUM, a metallic alloy, in the form of white silvery scales, employed upon porcelain, pinster casts, &c. The following recipe is given for its preparation. Fuse in a clear crucible, an ounce and a half of grain tin, and as much bismuth,

ARGENTIERA.
— ARGENTUM MOSAICUM.

ARGEN.
TYM. MIO.
SAICUM.
ARGO-
NAUTA.

stirring the metals well together with an iron rod. Remove the crucible from the fire, and when the contents are on the point of becoming solid, pour in an ounce and an half of mercury, which must be previously warmed; the whole is to be stirred as long as there is sufficient fluidity to allow of the separation of the metals if left at rest. For use, this alloy is to be ground up in a porcelain mortar, with white of egg and spirit varnish, and thus applied to the work. After it is dry, the labour of the burnisher will readily produce the silvery appearance.

ARGHAM, in the Wapentake of Dickering, East Riding, county of York; a discharged Rectory, valued in the King's books at £4.; Patron, J. Grimston, Esq.; Church dedicated to St. John Baptist. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 41. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £1. 17s. It is 5½ miles N. W. from Bridlington.

ARGILL, } *ἀργίλλος*, a white pure earth,
ARGILLA CRŪS, }
ARGOLLOS, } from *αργος*, white.

Argill is enumerated by the Chamonix Yemas, among the things to their craft appertaining.

Chamex, v. l. p. 236.

ARGILL, from Lat. *Argilla*, clay. This name was given to that earth which predominates in clay, but in the language of modern chemistry, the term *Alumina* is appropriated to the earth in its pure state. See Art. **CEMENTISTRY**.

ARGO, NAVIS, in Astronomy, the ship Argo, a constellation in the southern hemisphere, containing in the catalogue of La Caille 258 stars.

The ship to which the name Argo has been given by ancient poets and historians, is the vessel in which the Argonauts, under the command of Jason, made their voyage in quest of the Golden Fleece.

ARGOLIS, *Αργολη*, or *Αργεία*, one of the six districts of Peloponnesia, situated between Arcadia and the Ægean sea. It contained the cities Argos, Nemas, Mycenæ, Nauplia, Trozene, and Epidaurus. This province extended from east to west about 70 miles, and about 50 miles from north to south. See **HISTORY OF GREECE**, ch. viii.

ARGONAUTA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Mollusca, order Cephalopoda.

Generic character. Shell univalve, very thin, involute; the last turn very large. A double tuberculated dorsal carina.

The species of this genus were all confounded by Linnaeus, in his *Argonauta Argo*, (the paper nautilus.) The animal, which inhabits this beautiful shell, is so nearly allied to the genus *Octopus*, or eight armed cuttle, as to afford but few marks of distinction. Two of the arms of the argonauta are furnished with a large expanded membrane, by means of which it is enabled to sail upon the surface of the water in calm weather. The shell is of a thin papyraceous appearance, white and semi-transparent. Its form is particularly elegant, resembling a kind of boat or vessel, and is marked throughout its surface by numerous deep furrows. Few objects can be conceived more interesting than this beautiful animal seated in its pearly little vessel, its sails spread, and the remaining six tentacles serving for its oars. On the slightest appearance of danger, it withdraws itself into its shell, and is instantly submerged. Dr. Leach, De

Plainville and other naturalists have supposed this animal to be merely a parasitical inhabitant of the shell in the same manner as the parasitical crabs, Cancer Bernardus, &c.

ARGONAUTS, were celebrated heroes of antiquity, so named from having sailed in the Argo, under the command of Jason, in quest of the Golden Fleece. This was the fleece of that ram on which Helle and Phryxus, the children of Athamas, King of Thebes, fled to Colchis, from the anger of their step-mother, Ino; a fable which has generally been interpreted to mean that they sailed to Colchis in a ship whose ensign was a golden ram.

After an interval of many years, Pelias King of Iolchos, in Thessaly, commissioned his nephew, Jason, to fit out an expedition for the recovery of the fleece of this celebrated ram, which was detained by Ætes, King of Colchis. The history of the voyage, and of the adventures who accompanied Jason, has been the subject of more fables among the Greeks, and of more conjectures among the moderns, than almost any other event in mythology.

The argonautic expedition has risen into importance from its having been pitched upon by Sir Isaac Newton as one of the epochs from which to rectify ancient chronology. He endeavours to shew from various authorities that it must have taken place about 30 years before the siege of Troy, and about 43 years later than the death of Solomon. Blair refers it to the year 1263, a. c. or 79 before the taking of Troy.

ARGONNE, a woody tract in France, partly in Upper Champagne, and partly in the Lower Barrois. It is about 30 leagues in length, and in the widest part extends as far as Lorraine and the Maese. It is now incorporated into the departments of the Maese, the Marne, and the Ardennes. It is very mountainous, and at one time formed an entire forest, reaching from the abbey of Moustier to the Maese, near Mousson. This tract has become memorable in modern times, from the events of which it was the scene during the French revolution, especially by the campaign of 1792. Argonne was bestowed by Louis XIV. on the prince of Condé in 1657; but, as it was found to afford a retreat for smugglers, it was purchased by the crown in 1784, for £650,000.

ARGOS, *Αργος*, now *Arago*, formerly the capital of Argolis. It was, after Sparta, the principal city of the Peloponnesus, and was decorated with many splendid temples and works of art; but during the age of authentic history never attained any political importance in Greece, which was commensurate with the extent of its trade and population. The modern city exhibits no traces whatever of former magnificence. It is of considerable extent, and has a population of 10,000 souls; but is formed merely of whitened cottages, built with mud. A handsome mosque, and a ruined castle, are the most striking objects which it now displays. Strabo lib. viii. and Chandler's Travels.

ARGOSTOLI, the chief town of the Ionian islands of Cephalonia. The houses are small and meanly built, and it has the appearance rather of a village than of the capital of an island. The population does not exceed 5000. It was formerly the seat of the Venetian governor and council. Its harbour is the best in the island, but lies at some distance from the

ARGO-
NAUTA.
ARGOS-
TOLI.

ARGOS-TOLL. town. Here are several dock-yards; and the flotilla is one of the most numerous in the Archipelago. The ancient name was Crasii. Eight miles W. S. W. of Cephalonia.

ARGOSY, in the lat. of the middle ages, Argia seems to have been used for a ship, so called says Du Cange, *arg Argos*, the name of the first ship. And he cites, "*Argis haud nudica mercibus referta.*" Perhaps "*An Argosie,*" deeply laden with merchandize.

Some troops pursue the bloody-minded Queen,
That led calm Henry, though he frets her;
As doth a sailer fill'd with a fretting gust
Command an *argosie* to stem the waves.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. fol. 3. fol. 157.

My instance is a mighty *argosie*,
That in it bears, besides, his artillery,
Of fourteen pieces of a mighty bore;
A thousand soldiers (many times and more)
Besides the sails, and arms for every one,
Cardage and anchors, and provision,
The large spread sails, the masts both big and tall,
Of all which Noah's ark had no need at all.

Drayton's Nona's Flood.

ARGOW, ARGAN, or ARGOSI, a country of Switzerland, forming the north eastern part of the canton of Berne. See *BERNE*.

ARGUE, A'ROURE, A'ROUMENT, F. A'ROUMENT, R. ARGUMENTAL, ARGUMENTATION, ARGUMENTATIVE, ARGUMENTATIVELY, A'ROUMENTIER. } Argue, plainly, says Vossius, from *argus*, clear, manifest. To make clear, evident, manifest; to shew, to prove, to convince or convict. To shew the reasons of any thing; to reason, to discuss, to treat of, to debate; to dispute.

Samuel being an innocent judge (the people themselves to witness) *argued* the people of wickedness because they demanded a King.

Bible 1557 1 Samuel chap. 12.

Plato by poets: let putte hym first to brooke
Aristotle and ojer, to *arguen* let tattle

The Fawn of Peire Pluchman, p. 169.

And every governance is due
To pite, thus I make *argue*,
That pite is the fourteenth
Of every kynges regimete.

Gower. Con. A. book vii.

If thou shouldst say to hym, that hath y^e spirit of God, the love of God is the keeping of the commandments, and to love a man neighbour is to shew mercy, he would without *arguing* or disputing understand, how the love of the love of God springeth the keeping of his commandments, and of the love to thy neighbour springeth mercy.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndall.

The dukes of Clarence, Gloucester and York were of same opinion, thinking it most convenient to marche towards they enemies with all speed and celerite, leust in prolongynge of tyme and *arguynge* of opinions, the French army might more and more increase and hourly multiply.

Hall. Henry V. fol. 99. c. 2.

Which manner of *argumentation*, how false and naught it is every sophister, and every man that hath wite perceiveth.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndall.

The time being come, they appeared, but Griffin being put to it for want of the true way of *argumentizing*, the disputation was deferred to another day.

Wood's Athenæ. Oxon.

For trothe mote stande at laste,
Bet yett the *argumens* faste

Upon the pope and his estate
Wherof they fallen in great debate.
Gower. Con. A. The Prologue.

I wrote wel, clerkes wol saie as hem leet
By *argumens*, that all is for the best,
Though I se can the causes nought shew.

Chaucer. The Franklin's Tale, v. l. p. 454.

To whiche he schewide himself alow after his passion bi manye *argumens* apperyng to hem fourti daies and spykyng of the revme of God.

Welf. Dedu. c. i. fol. 114.

The Greeke titles declare, y^e this epistle was sent fro Philippos by Titus and Lucra. But y^e brief *argumens* whiche are found in Latin bokes, without any sentence name, records and titles that it was by the same messengers sente from Troas, for of this place Paule maketh mencyon in the seconde Chapter of this presente Epistle.

Idall. Argument upon 2 Corin. v. li.

Her looks doth *argue* her replete with modesty,
Her words doth shew her wit incomparable,
All her perfections challenge Souerainty.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. part 3. fol. 157.

I doe much wonder, that one man seeing how much another man is a foole, when he dedicates his behaviours to loue, will after hee hath laugh at such shallow follies in others, become the *arguer* of his owne course, by falling in love.

Shakespeare's Much Ado about Nothing, fol. 107.

It is impossible that Axioms, raised by *argumentation*, should be usefull in discovering new works, because the subtilty of nature vastly exceeds the subtilty of *argument*.

Bacon's Works by Shaw.

He said Dr. Rydley had a hand also in compiling of the Common Prayer-Book, now in use among us, as also disputation, *arguing*, communication, and conferences about matters of religion in the book of acts and monuments of the church, written by Joh. Fox.

Wood's Athenæ Oxoniæ.

Nor do they oppose things of this nature *argumentatively*, so much as oratorically.

Br. Taylor's Artificial Handmenness.

Ere, thy contempt of life and pleasure seems,
To *argue* in thee something more sublime,
And excellen then what thy mind contains.

Milton's Par. Lost, book x.

—And never view,
Brief'd with upright beams innumerable
Of rigid squares, and helms thro' d, and shields
Various with bountiful *argument* portraid.

Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

Not sedulous by nature to inflite,
Warre, hitherto the only *argumens*
Heroic doth.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

They make *Argos* little better than a kind of St. Swithen heroe, always raining. One of these censors is bold enough to *argue* him of cowardice; when in the beginning of the First Book, he not only weeps, but trembles at an approaching storm.

Dryden's Dedication to Virgil's Æneis.

They say the quickness of repartees in *argumentative* scenes receive an ornament from verse.

Dryden's Essay of Dramatick Poesie.

There is no greater, at least no more palpable and convincing *argument* of the existence of a Deity, than the admirable art and wisdom that discovers itself in the make and constitution, the order and disposition, the ends and uses of all the parts and members of this stately fabric of heaven and earth.

Ray on the Creation.

Bare lyres with bold assertions they can face,
But dint of *argument* is out of place.
The grim Logician puts 'em in a fright,
'Tis easier far to flourish than to fight.

Dryden's Hind and Panther.

For common swearing (if it have any merit at all), *argues* in a man a perpetual distrust of his own reputation, and is an acknowledgment that he thinks his bare word not to be worthy of credit.

Tillotson's Sermons.

ARGUE.

The Lords Hallifax, Nottingham, and Mordaunt, were the chief *arguers* among the temporal lords.

ARGUNE.

Bishop Burnet's Hist. of his Own Times, v. i.

You are not one of those *timorous arguers*, who tremble at every objection raised against their opinion or belief, and are so intent in upholding their own side of the argument, that they are unable to make the least concession on the other.

Shafesbury, Characteristics, v. i.

I shall say the loss of Mr. Collier, because of many things he has taxed me justly; and I have pleaded guilty to all thoughts and expressions of mine, which can be truly *argued* of obscenity, profaneness, or immorality, and retract them.

Erpina, Pref. to Fables.

When we prove those authors who defend our own sentiments, we should not take all their *arguing* for just and solid.

Watts on the Imp. of the Mind.

I am at length recovered from my *argumental* delirium, and find myself in the state of one awakened from the confusion and tumult of a feverish dream. I rejoice in the new possession of evidence and reality, and step on firm truth to truth with confidence and quiet.

Johnson, The Rambler.

Arguments should always be provided in such a manner as may lead the mind onward to perceive the truth in a clear and agreeable light, as well as to constrain the assent by power of reasoning.

Watts on the Imp. of the Mind.

Avoid as much as you can, in mixed companies, *argumentative*, polemical conversations.

Crosterfield, Letter clvi.

The argument prefixed to a book, &c. is that which shews the purport or contents of the book, &c.

Logicians divided their arguments, with reference to their forms, into syllogism, enthymemes, inductions, &c. Rhetoricians divided their arguments with respect to the topics from which they are drawn.

ARGUMENT, in Astronomy, is in general a quantity upon which an equation, or some circumstance relating to the motion of a planet depends. An argument of indication or latitude, for example, is the distance of a planet from its node, because on this depends its latitude.

ARGUIN (ΑΡΓΙΝΗ), a small island in a bay of the same name, on the western coast of Africa, in 20° 37' N. Lat., 17° 20' W., 36 miles from Cabo Blanco. The Portuguese first, and then the French established a factory on this island, for the merchants engaged in the gum-trade; but Portendik, on the neighbouring continent, has been latterly found more convenient, and that on the island is no longer occupied. Turtle are found in the gulph, but not eaten by the natives. Arguin (or Argè), has been supposed to be the Cerne of the ancients; by others the Noti Cornu or Sians Meridionalis, the utmost boundary of the Periplus of Hanno.

ARGUN (or ΑΡΓΟΥΝ), a river of Siberia, in the government of Irkutsk, which receives the name of Amur, after its junction with the Shilka, and for nearly 360 geographical miles, is the boundary between the Chinese and Russian empires. Three of the rivers which fall into it (the Borsé Uryumkan and Gazinner), belong to the Russian, and three, (the Derbul, Khaut, and Ghan), to the Mongolian empire. The upper part of the country on this river is barren and uninhabitable; the lower fertile and woody, but thinly inhabited. (Petri in Ersch and Gruber's Encyclop.)

ARGON, **ARGAN**, or **ERAGON**, a river of Tartary, which rises from a lake called Dalai, or Koulou-Nor, situated in 119° E. lon. and 49° N. lat. in the country of the Mongols. It is considered to be the

original source of the river Amur, which river is formed of its stream and of that of the S-shilka, in long. 131° 14' E. lat. 53° N. The Russians, in the course of the 17th century, designing to extend their territories in Tartary, were resisted by the Chinese, which led to the treaty of Nertschinsk, whereby it was stipulated, that the mutual boundary between these nations should be the Argun, from the source to its mouth, 180 miles E. of Nertschinsk.

ARGUNSKOI, a town and fortress of Siberia, in the government of Irkutsk, on the west bank of the river Argun, 162 miles from its mouth. It was first built in 1683, on the opposite side of the river, as the Russians proceeded towards the Amur, but demolished in 1689, and transferred to its present site, in consequence of a treaty with the Chinese, in 1690. The rivulet Kamara here flows into the Argun. It carries on a considerable trade; but is situated in a country which is extremely cold, and in which even the summer heats penetrate the earth very superficially. Slight shocks of earthquakes are not uncommon in the spring and commencement of winter; and the inhabitants are subject to epilepsy. Near Argunskoi are valuable silver mines, and fine gold is frequently extracted from the ore. Distant 177 miles E. of Nertschinsk.

ARGUS, in Mythology, a person who was feigned to have a hundred eyes, some one or other of which was always open. He was put to death by Mercury at the request of Jupiter; and Juno in compassion fixed his eyes in the wings and tail of the peacock.

ARGUS, in Ornithology, a species of phasianus.

ARGUTE, } Arguto, argutum, to make clear,
ARGUTENUS, } evident, clearness, briskness,
ARGUTATIONS, } sharpness, subtilty.

But, even against these, thou art justified in the spirit, speaking in thy Divine Scriptures; whose evident demonstrations do fully convince their calumnies and false suggestions, and vindicate thy Holy Name and blessed Deity from all their devilish and villainous argutions.

Ep. Hall. Mystery of Godliness.

I wis, it is not the force of their *argutation*, that could move me one foot forward; but, if God's blessing upon my free disquisition of truth should have so wrought upon my better composed thoughts, as that I should have yielded to go some steps further than others towards the meeting of peace, one would not think this should yield any fit matter of exprobation.

Ep. Hall. Patrological Works.

The style of Plutarch is easy and flowing, that of Seneca precipitous and harsh: the first is even, the second broken. The arguments of the Grecian, drawn from reason, work themselves into your understanding, and make a deep and lasting impression in your mind: those of the Roman, drawn from wit, flash immediately on your imagination, but leave no durable effect: so this tickles you by start with his arguments, that plagues you for continuance with his propriety.

Dryden, Life of Plutarch.

There have been those, who have not only advanced doubts concerning propositions attested to by clearest sense, and inferred by strongest discourse; but have by their *argute* cavillations bid fair to shake the foundations of all human science.

Burton's Sermons.

I will have him, contemned my father, cheerful, fustil, jovial; at the same time prudent, attentive to business, vigilant, acute, argute, inventive, quick in resolving doubts and speculative questions.

Storrs's Tristram Shandy.

You are wrong,—said my father *argute*, and for this plain reason.

Id. Id.

ARGUE.

ARGUTE.

ARGYLE-
SHIRE
—
ARGYRO-
NETA.

ARGYLSHIRE, in Scotland, comprehends Kintyre, Knapdale, Argyle Proper, Cowal, and Lorne. It is bounded on the south by the Irish sea and the Frith of Clyde; on the east by Perthshire; on the north-east by Lochaber; and on the north-west by several islands. The extent of it from south to north, between the mull of Kintyre, and the point of Ardnarmurchan, where it joins the shire of Inverness, is about 114 miles; and the breadth of it, in some places about 70. Like all other parts of the Highlands, Argyleshire presents little to attract the eye, except the picturesque grandeur of its wild and mountainous scenery, which is animated with herds of black cattle, and a vast variety of deer, roebucks, and every kind of black game. Its shores are indented with small harbours, and the country is watered by innumerable streams which abound in fish; but the principal riches of the country are found in the mines of iron, lead, and other metals and minerals, which are dug from the bowels of the mountains.

Argyle is the seat of a provincial synod, consisting of five presbyteries and forty-nine parishes, and gives the title of Duke and Earl to the noble family of Campbell. The Duke of Argyle is by hereditary right, grand master of the king's household in Scotland; admiral of the western isles, general of Denoon castle, keeper of Dunstaffnage and Carrick; and before the jurisdictions were abolished, enjoyed several other hereditary offices, which rendered his power almost too great for a subject. He still possesses many royalties, and his vassals of the name of Campbell, by whom almost the whole county is inhabited, form the most powerful clan in Scotland. This county sends one member to Parliament. The resident population in 1801, was 71,859; and in 1811 it had increased to 85,583.

ARGYRO CASTRO, a small town of Albania, on the left bank of the Drino, in a valley of the same name, near Valloona. It contains, with its dependencies, 12,000 men fit for bearing arms, and is the seat of a pacha of two tails, who is dependent on the pacha of Ioannina. The valley is closed in between the Acrocernian mountains and Mount Latmus. The ancient names of the town were Phanoë, and Hadriano-polis.

ARGYRONETA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Arachnides, order Acera, family Araneides.

Geuerie character. Maxillæ short, straight, the sides nearly equal; anteriorly convex, the apex rounded; lip shorter than the maxillæ, of a narrowed, elongate, triangular form, anteriorly convex, the point truncate or obtuse. The first pair of feet the longest, the fourth the next, then the second.

Argyroneta Aquatica, (Aranea Aquatica Lin.) inhabits slow running streams or pools. It is a British species, and extremely common about the neighbourhood of London.

This interesting insect constructs a most elegant retreat under the water, upon strictly philosophical principles. First of all a few threads are extended loosely between the leaves of some aquatic plant, to which they are fixed; and upon these, as the framework of the building, a sort of transparent film of varnish is spread, which issues from the middle of the spinners, and is exceedingly elastic. This forms the chamber for her residence. She then covers the ab-

domen with a loose envelope of the same substance, with this she ascends to the surface, applies the extremity of her body to the air, a quantity of which she appears to draw into the abdomen, and then pumps it out again under the enveloping pellicle, until it is filled with a bubble of air. With this, which gives her the appearance of a globe of quicksilver, she hastily descends to her habitation, and transfers the air under its roof. This ingenious and beautiful contrivance is repeated, until in about a quarter of an hour the apartment is fully expanded, and a most elegant adrial edifice erected under water. Here she deposits her ova, rears and guards her young with the most assiduous care, and devours her food in safety. She frequently resorts to the land for her prey, with which she immediately retreats to her subaqueous habitation. In the winter she closes it in, and remains protected within it until the return of spring.

ARGYRRHIUM, in ancient Geography, now St. Filippo d'Argiro, a town of Sicily which was the birth place of Diodorus Siculus. It was once the rival of Syracuse, and was adorned with edifices that are spoken of by ancient writers with great admiration; particularly its theatre and some magnificent mansions, in the shape of pyramids. Scarcely a trace, however, of its ancient grandeur can now be found. That by which it is at present principally distinguished is the saffron produced in its territory, which is considered excellent; it also yields a kind of potter's earth, of an uctuons and detergent quality, which is used by the inhabitants instead of soap.

ARIA, a large lake in Persia, which according to Otter, *Foyage en Turquie et Perse*, tom. i. 217, is 50 leagues in length, and a day's journey in breadth; and the water, which is fresh, is full of fish. In the map of Major Rennell it is called the Sea of Durrah, or Zurrab, from the name of a village, which appears to be situated at the distance of 80 miles from its banks. It is placed by that geographer between 33° 15' and 32° 45' north lat. and 69° 15' and 61° 30' east lon.

ARIA. There was a large district of country of this name belonging to the Parthian empire, and immediately bordering upon it, which is mentioned by ancient geographers; but their accounts of it are so various, that it is difficult to determine its exact situation. Some call this country Aria, as Ptolemy; while Pliny distinguishes it by the name of Ariana, at the same time that he makes a distinction between the Arii and the Ariani; Strabo has both names, and observes, in general, that Ariana, was bounded on the east by the Indus, on the south by the great sea, on the north by Paropamisus, and on the west by the boundaries which separate Persia from Media and Carmania. According to Major Rennell, Ariana is the province of Persia, now called Korasan or Koresan.

ARIADNE, in fabulous history, the daughter of Minos King of Crete, who fell in love with Theseus, and provided him with a clue of thread, by which he was enabled to extricate himself from the celebrated labyrinth of Crete, where he had been confined. On leaving Crete, Theseus was accompanied by Ariadne, whom, however, he abandoned in the island of Naxos, where she was found by Bacchus, who married her, and had by her a son called Zameodon, one of the

ARGYRO-
NETA.
—
ARIADNE.

ARIADNE. Argonauts. She was presented by Bacchus with a crown of gold, manufactured by Vulcan, which was afterwards transformed into a constellation. The fountain at which Ariadne is said to have come daily to shed tears, is still pointed out in the island of Naxos. Olivier tells us, it is now only a small streamlet, so otherwise remarkable than for the fable with which it is associated.

There is in the Vatican, a fine statue of Ariadne, where she is represented sleeping upon the rocks of Naxos. The supposed state of her mind is very beautifully represented by the disorder of her drapery. On the upper part of her left arm is a bracelet, in the form of a little serpent, called by the ancients Ophis; and which had long occasioned this statue to be taken for a Cleopatra. Ovid. *Met.* viii. fah. 3. *Fast.* iii. v. 469. Nonnus in *Dionys.* 47.

ARIANISM, in Ecclesiastical History, is the name by which the opinions of Arius is known. See ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

ARIANO, a large town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, which is a bishop's see, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. It is represented by Mr. Swinburne, as a disagreeable place, without trade or manufactures. It contains 20 parishes, and many large convents. N. lat. 41° 8'. E. lon. 15° 19'.

ARJASH, V. VAN.

ARICARA, See PERBIA.

ARICA, a large province of Peru, in the bishoprick of Arguipa, bounded on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It is 82 leagues in length, and about 16 wide. The town of Arica, which gives its name to the province, is a sea port, and was formerly a place of considerable trade; but it appears ever to have recovered from the effects of Sir Francis Drake's visit to it in 1578. It was at that time the port from which the silver of Potosi was shipped to Lima; and the booty taken on the occasion of its capture was immense. S. lat. 18° 27'. W. long. 71° 5'.

ARICIA, in Ancient Geography, was a town of Latium, which existed, it was supposed, before the establishment of the Greeks and Latins in Italy. It is now called Riccia. Cicero in his Epistles to Atticus, speaks of it as a municipal town. It was in his days chiefly remarkable for the "nexus aricianum," or grove of Diana, who hence obtained the epithet of Aricina. Egeria, the nymph who held communications with Numa, was supposed to reside in this famous grove, which was situated on the Apennian way, beyond mount Albanus. Ovid. *Met.* 15. *Fast.* 5. v. 363. Scholiast in *Eurip. Alceste.* Virg. *Æn.* 7. v. 761.

ARID, } Lat. aridus, from areo, to dry.
ARIDITY, } Dried, scorched, parched.

Her body grew white and arid, and split in pieces with dryness.
Swift. Battle of Books.

Salt taken in great quantity will reduce an animal body to the great extremity of aridity, or dryness.
Arbuthnot, on Aliment.

Such valley pour'd the Greeks, and such return'd
The Trojans; and cæsars of tough bull hide
And bowy shields resounded, by that storm
Of millstone masses from above smail'd.

Cooper's Head, book xii.

ARIES, in Antiquity, was the name given to a military engine, commonly called the Battering Ram. See ART. ARTILLERY.

ARIES, in Astroonomy, the name of one of the northern constellations, containing 67 stars, and the first sign of the Zodiac.

ARIES, in Zoology. See OVIS.

ARIETATION. Lat. arietio, to butt, push, or strike like a ram, from aries, a ram; of doubtful etymology. Butting, pushing, striking.

The conditions of weapons, and their improvement are, first, the fetching *shut* off; for that contains the danger; as it is seen in ordnance and in muskets. Secondly, the strength of the percussion; wherein likewise ordnance do exceed all arietations and ancient inventions.

Bacon's Wars, vol. i.

ARIGÆUM, a town of India, in Ancient Geography, which according to Arrian, was found by Alexander burnt and deserted. It is thought by Major Rennell to be the modern Irjah.

ARIGHT. On right, rightly, justly. See RIGHT.

Yes were dunties aright, and merries wel ylarw.
R. Gloucester, p. 218.

Our Hoste lough and swore, So mote I poe
This guth aright; unholoked in the male;
Let see now who shal tell another tale:
For trewerly this game is wel begonne.

Chaucer, The Millers Tale, v. l. p. 123.

— Thou woldest be taught aright
What mischiefeth bakkithing dooth.

Gower, Con. d. book ii.

The cause is, he hath not God's spirite in him, and therefore vnderstandeth it not a right, neither worketh a right.

The Works of Wm. Tyndall.

If thou have led thy life aright,
Death is the end of misery;
If thou be God hast thy desires,
Thou diest to live eternally.

Ellis Poets, v. ii. p. 151.

We neither know God aright, nor seek, love, or worship him as we should.

Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

— By this guise
Just men they seem'd, and all this study bent
To worship God aright, and know his works
Not hid, nor those things last which might preserve
Freedom and peace to men.

Milton's Par. Lost, book xi.

What this wisdom is, I shall not undertake accurately to describe. Briefly, I understand by it, an habitual skill or facility of judging aright about matters of practice, and choosing according to that right judgment, and conforming the actions to such good choice.

Burrow's Sermons.

Now may we plainly see,—the blindest may—
Jove granting vict'ry to the pow'rs of Troy.
Whose every weapon, whether shaft or spear,
From base or heave, himself directs aright.

Cooper's Head, book xvii. p. 329.

ARILLUS. See BOTANY.

ARIMANES, or ARIMAN, in the Persiao theological system, denotes the principle of evil, which is supposed to be perpetually counteracting the designs of Ormond, or Oromasdes, who according to the same theology, denotes the principle of good. Oromasdes, we are told in the magian traditions, who is always intent upon works of benevolence, created various orders of deities or genii; and in particular 24 whom he especially intended to have placed in charge over all the works which he had made. But Ahriman continued to pierce Oromasdes' egg, and the consequence has been that mixture of good and evil, which we now see in the world. For a further

ARIES

—
ARIMANES.

ARI- account of this part of the magian theology, see Art. *ZOROASTRI*.

ARIMANNI, was the name given, in the middle ages, to a class of persons employed in agriculture, and who were free men. They appear to have possessed some small allodial property of their own, but also often farmed land which they tenanted at a fixed rent.

ARIMASPE, a people of northern Asia, little known to the Greeks, whose accounts of them were much mixed up with fable. The account most to be trusted is that of Herodotus (iv. 27), who tells us that "their name is derived from two Scythian words, *arima* one, and *spæys*," and it therefore has the same sense as the Greek word *Cyclops*. Strabo (i. 20), suspected that Homer has borrowed his idea of the Cyclops from the Arimaspe. They inhabited the northern part of Europe, occupying the country beyond the Issedones, as the latter informed Aristæus of Proconnesus, and were separated from the Hyperboreans near the sea, by the Gryphons who guarded the gold. (Herod. iv. 13.) Herodotus disbelieved the story of a whole nation of one-eyed men, and Eustathius, (Dionys. *Perieg.* v. 31.), explained it by supposing them to be archers, and therefore generally seen by their neighbours taking aim with one eye shut; but as most uncivilized nations are archers this explanation is inadmissible. Pliny, (N. H. v. 31.) places them to the west of the Rhipæan mountains. Some of the moderns have fixed on the mountainous regions of Chinese Tartary, as the country of this people, whose name might be suspected of a Persian origin but for the express testimony of Herodotus. It is in this fable that Milton alludes in his second book of *Paradise Lost* :—

As when a griffin, through the wilderness,
With winged course, o'er hill, or mossy dale,
Pursues the Arimasian, who by stealth
Hud from his waker's custody purloined
The guarded gold.

Lucan speaks of the Arimasians as a people who ornamented their hair with gold :—

*Auroque ligatas
Substringens Arimasæ comas.*

ARIMATHÆA, now RAMLA, the name of a city in Palestine, placed by D'Anville, a little to the S. E. of Lydda. The name of Arimathæa is derived from Ramatha, which signifies height; and there is still a town of this name in Palestine, between Joppa and Jerusalem; but this place is very different from Ramathim Zophim, Samuel's country, (1 Sam. i. 1.) which was to the north of the mountains of Ephraim. Volney tells us, that the Arimathæans of the Bible is now called Ramia, which is one third of a league to the southward of Lydda, or Ludd. Although this town does not now contain 200 families, yet its ruins indicate a place of some considerable extent in former times. Every where in its neighbourhood are dried wells, broken cisterns, large vaulted reservoirs, to a distance of nearly four miles in circumference. It is at present the residence of the Aga of Gaza, who maintains about 100 horsemen, whom he lodges in the ruins of an old Christian church. Volney tells us that in 1784, the Aga employed a Venetian carpenter to build a windmill for him, which is the only one now to be found in Syria, although it is the place from which they were originally introduced. The in-

habitants manufacture soap from Egypt, which is an article, we are told by Barckhardt, that passes almost like bank notes, among the people who inhabit Nubia and Upper Egypt; and the women are employed in spinning cotton, which in the time of the French traveller, before mentioned, was regularly purchased from them by two French houses established there.

ARIOLATION. Hariolus prius fuit Fariolus, a fari, sive fando. Vossius. Hariolus, hariolatus, to speak of, to prophesy, to divine. Another instance of the use of this word by Sir Thomas Brown, is cited under *Auspiciate*.

The priests of elder time have put upon them many incredible conceits, nor only deluding their apprehensions with ariolation, sooth-saying and such oblique idolatries, but winning their credulities under the liberal and downright avowment of casts, lizards, and beetles.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

ARIOLI, in Antiquity, were a kind of fanatical prophets, who by horrid sacrifices, and abominable prayers at the altars of idols, procured answers to questions concerning future events. They were distinguished by an affected disorder in their dress, matted beards and hair, and various arts calculated to impose upon the vulgar. *Ibid.* Orig. l. viii. c. 9.

ARISE, *v.* } A. S. *arisan*, to get up, mount, or
ARISE, *n.* } ascend; to grow, spring, move up
ARISING. } wards; and thus to come into view or notice; to become conspicuous, eminent; to become of greater value or esteem.

And ye Bryttones a ryse take, so jut, Jere Gods grace,
Heo hadde ye mastery of ye feild.

R. Gloucester, p. 50.

At jee heo mygte ofte y se, in clere weder, jere
Est ward, as je sonne a ros, a lond as yt were.

Id. p. 41.

Er it was day, as she was wont to do,
She was arisen, and all redy dight.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. i. p. 43.

They blessed y^e his soule should not be left in hell, but that he should arise fro death and reigoe everlastyng with his father.

John. Pyrch. fol. 111. r. 1.

After all this [I tract] of his death, of his beryng laid in grass, of his arising again from death to life, and of his returnyng vp into heauen.

Idell. The Prologue to Luke.

But ofte for defaute of bondes
All sodraly, or it be wist,
A tunc, when his lie arised
To breketh, and reuensch all aboute,
Whiche els shuld nought gone out.

Geoffr. Can. A. The Prologue.

That persons drowned arise and float the sixth day when their gall breaketh, is a questionable determination both in the time and cause.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

—Yet many will presume;
Whence heavy persecution shall arise
On all who in the worship persevere
Of spirit and truth.

Milton's Par. Lost, book xli.

And thus we see the account established upon the *arise* or desert of the stars can be no reasonable rule unto distant nations at all, and by reason of their retrogression but temporary unto any one.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

And I dare boldly promise for this play, that in the roughness of the members and endures, (which I assure was not casual, but as designed), you will see somewhat more masterly arising to your view, than in most, if not any of my former tragedies.

Dryden. Pre. to Don Sebastian, fol. 329.

ARIMA-
THÆA.
—
ARISE.

ARISE.

No grateful dew from evening skies,

Not morning odours from the flow'rs arise.

Pope, v. l. p. 27.

ARISTO-
CRACY.

After a wet and stormy night we rejoice to see the morning arise with all the signs of a calm and serene day.

Gulpin's *Tour to the Lakes*.

Among the rocks arose a grove of forest trees of various height, according to the inequality of the ground.

Gulpin's *Tour to the Lakes*.

ARISH, see EGYPT and EL-ARISH.

ARISTA. See BOTANY.

ARISTEUS, in Mythology, the son of Apollo and of the nymph Cyrene. He is one of the fabled benefactors of mankind, and is said to have taught the art of curdling milk, managing bees, and cultivating olives. He was born in the deserts of Libya, and after travelling over half the world, finally settled on mount Ilium, from which suddenly disappearing he was worshipped as a demi god. Huet has traced a resemblance between this fable and the history of Moses. *Scholæst. Apollon*. ii. 502. Servius to Virg. G. i. v. xiv. iv. 283. 317. Paus. x. c. 17.

ARISTEA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Triandria, order Monogynia.

Generic character. Corolla superior, six-petaloid, regular after the discharge of the pollen, becoming spirally twisted, persistent capsule of three cells, many seeded.

A genus hitherto only met with at the Cape of Good Hope.

ARISTO-CRACY, or

ARISTOCRACY,

ARISTOCRAT,

ARISTOCRATIC,

ARISTOCRATICAL,

ARISTOCRATICALLY.

Arystokratia, from *aristos*, strongest, and *spas*, power.

The application of this word must be collected from the citations.

It seemeth by him and other Latine writers (the best recorders of kingdomes affairs); this kind was governed rather after the manner of an *aristocratie*, that is, by certain, great nobles and potent men, then under the continuall of any one as an absolute monarch; though herein is a difference, in that in the *aristocratie* regiment, the rulers are all Peers of one common wealth; whereas here, as many Princes, so many severall publick weales.

Speed's *Hist. of Great Britaine*.

The Russian commonwealth, Switzerland; and the United Provinces, in all their *aristocracies*, or denocratical monarchies, (if I may so call them), exclude all these degrees of hereditary honours.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

Better laws and a happier constitution of government no nation ever enjoyed, it being a mixture of monarchy aristocratic and democracy.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

Even in the most equal aristocracy, the balance cannot be so justly poind, but some one will be superior to the rest; either in parts, fortune, interest, or the consideration of some glorious exploit; which will reduce the greatest part of business into his hands.

Dryden's *Essay, on Dramatick Poëtic*.

As to the other forms of government, Socrates would say, "That when the chief officers of the common-wealth were joined in the hands of a small number of the most eminent citizens, it was called an aristocracy."

Xenophon. *Mems. of Socrates*, book vi.

Thus he, well-content'd that in Chalchis, pow'r

Aristocratick, both in wealth and strength,

Out-weighted the people.

Glomer's *Athenaid*, book xv.

I need not conceal, that some commentators have found in these three stanzas, which the herd followed, the poet's inclination to VOL. XVII.

aristocracy; and that others have supposed, he meant a complement to the triumphant.

Gulpin's *Tour to the Lakes of Cumberland*, &c.

The legislation of the kingdom is entrusted to three distinct powers, entirely independent of each other; first, the king; secondly, the lords spiritual and temporal, which is an aristocratical assembly of persons selected for their piety, their birth, their wisdom, their valour, or their property; and thirdly, the House of Commons.

Blackstone's *Comment*.

ARISTOLOCHIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Gynandria, order Hexandria.

Generic character. Calyx none. Corolla of one petal, ligulate, ventricose at the base. Capsule of six cells many seeded, inferior.

The *A. Clematitis*, or Common Berthwort, is a native of England.

Several species of this genus have been used in medicine, but the one which has acquired the most celebrity is the *A. Serpentaria*, or Virginia Snake-root.

A. Serpentaria, leaves cordate, oblong acuminate; stem flexuose, ascending, peduncles radical, lip of the corolla bacculate.

The root of this plant, which is the part used officinally, is small, light, and bushy, consisting of a number of fibres matted together, issuing from one common bead, of a brownish colour on the outside, and paler or yellow within. It has an aromatic smell, somewhat like that of Valerian, but more agreeable, and a warm, hitterish, pongent taste, very much resembling camphor. The most eligible mode of exhibiting this drug is in powder or infusion. It is a stimulant and diaphoretic; its virtues are principally to be referred to its essential oil. It is given in intermittent and typhoid fevers, and occasionally used as a gargle in cases of putrid sore throat.

ARISTOTELIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dodecandria, order Monogynia.

Generic character. Calyx of five leaves, petals five, style trifid, berry of three cells, seeds to pairs.

The only species of this genus is the *A. Macqui*, a shrub, native of Chili.

ARITHMETICK,

ARITHMETICAL,

ARITHMETICALLY.

Arithmos, number.

For in the load there's no craftsman
That geometrie, or arismetrick can,
No portraiture, no keener of images,
That Theoric ne yad him mete and wages
The theatre for to make and devise.

Chaucer. *The Knightes Tale*, v. l. p. 76.

Busy they were that moiden to lere,
And they her leere of astronomy,
Of arismetrick, and of geometry.

Guy of Warwick. Ellis, v. ii. p. 7.

JACK. Will you heare more?

Post. Spare your arismetrick,

Never count the turns.

Shakespeare's *Cymbeline*, fol. 379.

We have here said (Rogue Guisarte), in all nine hundred crowns, and sixty rials, my soldiers are about slake, let us see what comes to each mans share, for I am a bad arismetrickian.

Shelton's *Trans. Don Quix.* ed. 1652

So griebe (that never healthy, ever sickle,
That forward scholler to arismetrick,
Who doth division and subtraction feir,
And chiefly lears to add and multiply;

Brown's *Poems*.

ARITH-
METICK.—
ARK.

There may be some, who, deluded by the specious shew of discovering abstracted verities, waste their time in arithmetical theorems and problems, which have not any use.

Berkeley's Works.

Though the fifth part of a sextes being a fraction, and arithmetically regular, it is yet no proper part of that measure.

Arithmeticon in Cetus.

ARITHMOMANCY, compound of *arithmos*, number, and *mantra*, divination, a method of foretelling future events by means of numbers. The Platonists and Pythagoreans were addicted to this superstition; and the first species of Jewish cabala, is also an example of it.

ARK, arca, a coffer or chest, from *arcere*, to confine, to contain.

The applications of our word being in the following examples.

Arca, a coffer or chest, as our shrines, since it was flatte, and the sample of ours was taken thereof.

Psalmist's Works, p. 11.

And after the veil the second tabernacle, that is, the second sanctuary, that is, both of which things bear a golden cover and the ark of the testament leaved about on each side with gold, in which was a pot of gold containing manna, and the gherde of Aaron that florished and the tables of the testament, on which things were cherubims of glorie overshadowing the propitiatorie.

Wells's Hebrews, c. 12.

But within the seconde wayle was ther a tabernacle, which is called holiest of all, which had the golden sencer, and the arke of y^e testament overlaid round about with golde, wherein was y^e golden pot with Manna and Aarons rodde, that spronge and the tables of the testament; Over the arke were the Cherubims of glorie, shadowing the seate of grace.

Bible, 1539.

Make the an arke of pnye trees, Hahitris shall thou make in the arke, and shall pitch it within and without with pitch.

Id. Genesis, c. vi.

The great Macclean, that out of Perse chased
Darius, of whose huge power all Asia roag,
In the rich arke Dan Homers rimis he placed,
Who feigned graces of heavn's princes sang.

Surry.

As there is a foolish wisdom, so there is a wise ignorance; in not prying into Gods arke; not enquiring into things not revealed.

The Works of Bishop Hall, v. 1.

The ark of the Lord was taken, the impious priest (who made the sacrifice of the Lord to become an abomination to the people), were slain with the sword of the Philistines, old Eli lost his life, and the wife of Phineas died with sorrow, and the miscarriages of child-birth, crying out, that the glory was departed from Israel, because the ark of God was taken.

Taylor's Apology for Authorised and set forms of Liturgy, Pref.

From what hath been said it may appear, that the measure and capacity of the ark, which some arithmetical irreligion men make use of, as an argument against the scripture, ought rather to be esteemed a more rational confirmation of the truth and divine authority of it.

Wilkins on Real Character.

There is sure another flood toward, and these couples are coming to the ark.

Shakespeare. As You Like It, fol. 296.

And his next son for wealth and wisdom fain'd,
The clouded ark of God till then in tents
Wand'ring, shall in a glorious temple enshrine.

Milton's Par. Lost, book 11

ARK. This word is the name of two distinct objects in Scripture History; viz. of a large floating vessel which was built by Noah for the preservation of several species of animals from the deluge; and also of a kind of chest (as is explained in the quotations) in

which were kept, among a variety of other sacred symbols, the Tables of the Covenant, whence it was called the Ark of the Covenant. With respect to the former of these senses, which is that referred to in the quotation from Shakespeare, the time which Noah employed in finishing the ark, the materials of which it was constructed, the place where it was built, the spot where it rested after the flood, its dimensions and capacity, are points which have afforded critics a fruitful subject of inquiry. They are, however, all of them topics merely of curiosity, except the last mentioned particular, which is one of some importance. The dimensions of the ark, as stated by Moses, was 300 cubits in length, 50 in breadth, and 30 in height. From the description given of it in the Bible, it is supposed to have contained three separate stories, the lower of which was appropriated to beasts, the middle to food and provisions, the upper to Noah himself, and his family, together with the birds. With regard to the quantity of space which each of these separate stories would afford, that will depend upon the length to which we suppose the cubit to extend. If we suppose with Buteo and Kircher, who are followed by Parkhurst, that a cubit was equal only to a foot and a half of our measure, it may still be shewn that the ark was abundantly sufficient to contain all the inhabitants who were intended to occupy it. But Bishop Cumberland extends the cubit to nearly 22 inches; on which supposition, its solid capacity would be nearly doubled, and certainly would be abundantly large for the purposes to which it was applied.

St. Paul's cathedral is 500 feet long; the ark upon the lowest computation would be longer than this; and if we adopt Bishop Cumberland's it would be longer by about 47 feet; and about $\frac{1}{10}$ narrower than that church is at its entrance, where the width is exactly 100 feet. This gives a measurement not quite equal to that of three of our first rateships of war. With respect to the internal arrangement of the ark, the number and size of its stalls, it would be a waste of time to repeat the hypotheses which have been proposed on that part of the subject. Buteo computes that all the animals contained in the ark, would not have been equal to 500 horses; and Father Lamy diminishes this supposed necessary number by one half; so that if there had been room for 250 horses, he calculates that there would have been room for all the animals. The same authors also demonstrate that one floor would have sufficed for the largest number above mentioned, allowing nine feet square to a horse. With respect to food, an ox, according to Columella, eats, about as much hay as would occupy a solid cubit; the second story would contain 150,000 of such cubits, and consequently more hay by two thirds than would be required to support 250 oxen for a year.

The calculation of Bishop Wilkins is not materially different from this; he supposes the carnivorous animals to occupy the room, and consume the food of 27 wolves; and that 280 beeves would represent the accommodation required for the other animals; accordingly the only difficulty which this writer sees, is to account for the reason why the ark was so much larger than would appear to have been necessary; a fact which he explains by supposing that our list of animals is imperfect. The learned bishop concludes

ARK.

ARK.
—
ARKAN-
SAW.

by observing, that no proportion could have been pitched upon, even by the most expert mathematician, better adapted for the purposes for which the ark was designed, than those which have been given in Scripture; and that with respect to its absolute size, the more it is considered, the stronger confirmation it will afford of the veracity of Scripture; for, as he justly remarks, had the account which we have of the ark, been of human invention, it would have been contrived according to the wild imaginations of a rude people, and have been made as much too large, as some have fancied it too little. With respect to zoological difficulties arising from the habits of animals and other merely physiological peculiarities, they are manifestly of no weight in a question of this nature, where the miraculous interposition of God is plainly presupposed. See *Buteo De Arca Noe*. Pelletier *Dissertation sur l'Arche de Noe*, ch.ii. p.39. Bishop Wilkins's *Essay towards a real Character*, part ii. ch. 6. Bryant's *Mythology*, vol. ii. p. 213.

ARK OF THE COVENANT, was a small chest or coffer, three feet nine inches in length, two feet three inches in breadth, and the same in height, in which were contained the various sacred articles mentioned in the quotations. It was made of shittim wood, and covered with the mercy seat, called also the propitiatory, as the Septuagint expresses it, *Προπυλαιον*, *crutha*, that is, the lid or cover of propitiation; because in the typical language of Scripture, those sins which are forgiven are said to be covered. This lid was made of pure gold; at either end was a cherub looking towards each other, and embracing the whole circumference of the mercy seat with their expanded wings, Exod. xxv. 17. 22. and ch. xxxix. 1—9; between which the Shechinah, or symbol of the divine presence, manifested itself in the appearance of a cloud, hovering, as it were, over the mercy-seat, Lev. xvi. 9. From hence the divine oracles were given, and hence it is that God was said to dwell between the cherubims, 2 Kings xix. 15. Isa. lxxx. 1. And for this reason the high priest, once every year, on the great day of expiation, appeared before the mercy-seat, to make atonement for the people, Heb. ix. 7. The ark was placed in the sanctuary of the temple of Solomon; before his time it was kept in the tabernacle, and was moved about as circumstances dictated. At the captivity it appears to have been either lost or destroyed, for the Jews universally concur in stating that among the things wanting in the second Temple, one was the Ark of the Covenant. *Spencer de legibus Hebræorum*. Abarbanel in *Danielis*. *Carpovell. Ann. in Goodwinum*, p. 200.

ARKANSAS, ARKANSAW, or ALKANSAW, a large river of North America, which runs into the Mississippi, in W. long. 91° 10', and N. lat. 33° 35'. The course of this river was unknown until it was explored by Major Pike in 1807. According to this geographer, the length of it, counting from its source, is 46° N. lat. among the rocky mountains, until its junction with the Mississippi, is not less than 2173 miles; of which distance it is navigable by boats for nearly 1961 miles, when its course becomes obstructed among the mountains. This, however, is only at those seasons of the year, when the river is filled with water from the rains; at other seasons at 1500 miles from its mouth it will be found nearly dry. Major Pike

calls this river the "Paradise of Savages," from the number of wild animals of all kinds which are continually wandering on its banks. The course of the stream in many places is over ground, which contains large quantities of salt, by which the water is so impregnated as to render it unfit for drinking. Arkansas is also the name of a large tribe of Indians, inhabiting the south side of the river, and occupying a territory of about 300 miles along its banks. They are at war with the Osages, and speak their language. They raise corn, and are represented as an honest and friendly race.

ARKENGARTH-DALE, in the Wapentake of Gilling West, North Riding, county of York, a Chapel to the Vicarage of Startforth, of the certified value of £8. 1. Patron, Sir J. Lowther, Bart. The resident population of this parish in 1801 was 1186. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £366. 17s. 3d., at 1s. 6d. in the pound. It is 12 miles W. by N. from Richmond.

ARKESDEN, in the hundred of Utdesford, county of Essex, a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's Books at £13. 6s. 8d.; Patron, Miss Cheek. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 400. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £357. 12s., at 6s. in the pound. It is 5 miles S. W. by W. from Saffron Walden.

ARKHOLME, in the hundred of Lonsdale, South of the Sands, county Palatine of Lancaster, in the parish of Melling; a chapel of the certified value of £8. 10s. 1. Patron, the Vicar of Melling. The resident population of this township, in 1801 (including the township of Cawood), was 303. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £278. 17s. 6d., at 5s. 6d. in the pound. It is 12½ miles N. E. by N. from Lancaster, and 5 miles S. S. W. from Kirkby Lonsdale, in the county of Westmoreland.

ARKITES, the name given to the descendants of Noah, who established themselves in different parts of the globe, so denominated from the ark, according to Bryant, who fancies that he can trace their peculiar rites, in all the early religions of the world.

ARKLOW, a sea port town of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow, situated on the south side of the river Avoca, or Orocco, near the Irish sea. It is distant 12 miles S. from Wicklow, and 36 S. E. from Dublin. Long. 6° W. Lat. 52° 48' N. This is a small neat town; the river is crossed by a bridge of 19 arches, and there is a chartered school for 50 girls. In 1798, a great part of the town was destroyed by the rebels, who set fire to the houses after a repulse which they sustained from the king's troops under General Needham. In 1796, some native gold was discovered in a brook which descends from a mountain called Kinsilly, about seven miles west of Arklow. As soon as the discovery was made public, researches were instituted by the inhabitants in all directions, and in about a period of six weeks the quantity of gold collected was supposed to have amounted to 800 oz. It was of a bright yellow colour, perfectly malleable, and found in specimens weighing from the most minute particles, to pieces which in one instance weighed 9 oz.; and in another 29 oz. Two specimens of the gold were assayed by the mint, one of which appeared to contain in 24

ARKAN-
SAW.
—
ARKLOW.

ARKLOW.

ARLES.

carats, $2\frac{1}{2}$ of fine gold, $\frac{1}{4}$ of fine silver, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of alloy, which last seemed to be copper tinged with a little iron. The works were taken possession of by order of government, and the activity of the peasants was in consequence discontinued. See *Philosophical Transactions*, vol. lxxvi. p. 31, 35.

ARLESEY, in the lower division of the Wapentake of Struthford and Tickhill, West Riding, county of York, in the parish of Arkesey; a Vicarage valued in the King's Books at £12. 17s. 6d.; Patron, Sir G. Cooke, Bart. The resident population of this township was 1801, (including the township of Bentley), was 980. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £1142. 19s. 10d., at 4s. 9d. in the pound. It is 5 miles N. from Doncaster.

ARLECDON, or ARLOCHDON, in Alcesterdale Ward, above Darwent, county of Cumberland, in the parish of Arlecdon; a Curacy, of the certified value of £101; Patron, the Bishop of Chester. The resident population of this township in 1801, was 134. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, (including the townships of Frizington and Whillymoor), was £296. 13s. 9d. It is $\frac{1}{2}$ miles E. N. E. from Whitehaven.

ARLES, a large, ancient, and well built town of France, in Lower Provence, on the left bank of the Rhone, where the canal of Craponne unites itself with the river, which here divides into two branches. It was founded by the Romans, and was long the station of the praetorian prefect of Gaul; hence it has many remains of antiquities. After various changes, it became the capital of the kingdom of Arles, or Arles, in the year 879. It received from its sovereigns different important privileges, was a flourishing free town from 1218 to 1251, but was in the latter year brought under the dominion of the court of Provence, with the preservation, however, of most of its rights. The house of Anjou acquired the county of Provence by marriage, in the 13th century, and on the extinction of that house, Arles went with the rest of the county to the French crown, in 1481. Before the revolution it was the capital of one of the eight districts of Provence, the seat of an archbishop, and of a provincial tax-office. The archbishop had under him the bishops of Marseilles, St. Paul, Trois-Chateaux, Toulon, and Orange; he had the title of prince of Montdragon, a diocese of 51 parishes, and a revenue of about £1900, sterling. Arles is now in the diocese of the archbishop of Aix. Besides the cathedral church, there were a collegiate church, 6 parish churches, 3 abbeys, 17 religious houses, a Jesuits' college, an hospital, and a royal academy of sciences founded in 1689. Here have been held, at different periods, no less than 13 ecclesiastical councils, of which the most important was that in A. D. 314.

The population is about 21,000. It is the head of a canton, and is 174 miles S. E. of Paris. Long. E. $5^{\circ} 43'$. Lat. N. $43^{\circ} 40'$. This town is now principally interesting from some very noble monuments of Roman antiquities. Among these the most remarkable is the amphitheatre, which was commenced by Julius Caesar, but never finished. It is of an oval form, about 1164 feet in circumference, and 102 feet high in front. The arena is 142 by 104 yards. The porticoes are partly remaining; they are built of three stories, each of which contains 60 arches. The whole

of the area is now covered with houses, and the quarter retains the name of *Les Arenes*. In 1675, a granite obelisk of 55 feet high and 7 feet diameter, was dug up in a private garden. Besides the above splendid monuments of antiquity, there are the remains of a triumphal arch, and the ruins of two temples. Arles was chosen as the seat of the western empire by Constantine the Great, who embellished it with a palace; and it was here that the celebrated statue of Diana was found, which is now in the Louvre.

ARLESEY, in the hundred of Clifton, county of Bedford, a discharged Vicarage, (united in 1764 to the Rectory of Astwick), valued in the King's Books at £8; Patron, J. Schutz, Esq. The resident population in this parish in 1801, was 404. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £273. 16s. 5d., at 4s. 9d. in the pound. It is $\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. by E. from Biggleswade, and $\frac{1}{2}$ miles N. W. by W. from Baldock, in the county of Hertford.

ARLEY, in Kirby Division, in the hundred of Knightlow, county of Warwick, a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £9. 0s. 7d.; Patron, Mrs. Miller. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 254. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £358. 18s. 3d., at 4s. 3d. in the pound. It is 6 miles W. by S. from Nun Eaton.

ARLINGHAM, in the upper division of the hundred of Berkeley, though locally situate in the upper division of the hundred of Whiston, in the county of Gloucester; a Vicarage valued in the King's Books at £19. 7s. 3d.; Patron, Mrs. Rogers. The resident population of this parish in 1801 was 506. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £409. 1s. 2d., at 5s. 7d. in the pound. It is $\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. E. by E. from Newnham. The hamlets of Milton End and Overton, are in this parish.

ARLINGTON, in the hundred of Sherwell, county of Devon, a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £13. 18s. 14d.; Patron, Lord Viscount Courtney. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 407. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £105. 8s. 9d., at 15s. 6d. in the pound. It is 6 miles N. E. by N. from Barnstaple.

ARLINGTON, in the hundred of Longbridge, Rape of Pevensey, county of Sussex; a discharged Vicarage valued in the King's Books at £10. 4s. 11d.; Patron, the Prebendary of Woodhorne, in the church of Chichester. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 472. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £1054. 1s., at 6s. 9d. in the pound. It is $\frac{1}{2}$ miles W. S. W. from Halsham. It is within the liberty of the Duchy of Lancaster.

ARM, Goth. arms. Sax. arm, cornu. Arm, the Greek *ἄρμος*, Latin, armus, and Armoric arm, is the whole joint from the shoulder to the fist. The origin of all these words is either from *Epos*, necto, to bind; or from Ger. *eren*, *apen*, capere, to take. From arm, the Latins seem to have taken arma. Wacher. To put on, furnish, or supply, that which may protect, strengthen, or defend; that which may offend, injure, or destroy; to provide with weapons of offence or defence.

ARLES.

ARM.

For Gode's love, stallowe men, *arm*e you faste,
To se þre komynges, and here castles a donn caste.
R. Gloucester, p. 18.

He sauh Richard an ierd, & his mytelle myght,
His folk armed & tired, & ay reddy to fight.
R. Brune, p. 151.

Arming, oure kynge's brother, wende soþy anon þere,
And dade on þe kynge's armour, hym self as y' were.
R. Gloucester, p. 63.

A wel vayne companye al as þere com
(H) folle men, þat wule þolde mayntynom,
Vppe vayne wyte stedes, & in vayne armure abou.
Id. p. 407.

A man of *armes* made him reste
Sometyms in hope for the beste,
If he made fynde a were nere.
Greene. Con. A. book iv.

Up sprang the cry of men, and trumpets blast.
As out of mynd sayne *armour* on I thrast,
Thocht be na reason *praise* I myght but fole,
Qwhat than the force of *armes* could anale,
Zit hand for hand to thring out throw the pres
With my feris, and ranning or we reis,
To se the castell our laris burnit for deire;
The furie catcht our mynds late as fyre;
So that we thoct maidt semely in afe field
To de fechtad enured vnder aschield.
Douglas. Eneidos, book ii. p. 49.

Uppring the crye of men, and trumpets blast,
Then as distraught I did my *armure* on.
Ne could I tell yet whereto *armes* axuilde.
Bot with our fers to thring out from the prasse
Toward the toure our laries brent with deire;
Wth prickt us forthw; and rato va it seemd
And semely thing to dye *ard* in the field.
Surrey.

The shouts and trumpets swell the dire alarms;
And, though 'twas vain, I madly flew to *arm*;
Eager to raise a band of friends, and pour
In one firm body, to defend the tow'rs;
Rage and revenge my kindling bosom fire,
Warm and in *arm*, to conquer or expire.
Pitt.

No errant-knight ever went to fight
With halfe so gay a bravado.
Had you seen but his look, you'd have sworn on a book,
He'd have conquer'd a whole *armade*.
Sir John Sackling's Campaign.

Do come, he sayd, my minestrales
And grotours for to tellen tales
Anon in min arming.
Chaucer. The Hous of Sire Thopas, v. l. p. 66.

There were also of Martes division,
Th' *armour*, and the bowyer, and the smith,
That forthgath swerde on his stith.
Id. The Knight's Tale, v. l. p. 81.

Ther an sede is, they were nonebrydel;
The fussy stedes on the goldeis bridel
Glawing, and fast the *armourers* also
With filis and hammer prinking to and fro.
Id. Ib. v. l. p. 99.

At Leyes when he, and a satallie,
Whan they were wonne; and in the grete ooe
At many a noble *armur* hadde he be.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 3.

But wel ye wote, the chamber is but lite
And few folks may lightly make it warme
Now loketh ye, for I wol haue no wite
To bring in prease, y' shal dont hit burne
Or him discomen, for my better arm
Yet were it bet she bielde till off soules
Now luke ye that knowen wot to doo is.
Id. Troilus, book ii. fol. 166. c. 2.

For they shal see the sounse of man, whome nowe they despise,
humble and symple cunnynged as high as the clondes of the ayer,
with a great *army* of songtis, with a wonderfull manetic and glori.

Udell. Mathew, cap. 25.

King John, your King and England's, doth approach;
Commander of this hot malicious day,
Their *armours* that march'd hence so silber bright,
Hither returre all gilt with Freochmen blood.
Shakespeare's King John, fol. 6.

That King Philip (of Macedon), should with a right puissant
armade (for that he was supposed able to set out 200 sail) to jeme
over into Italie, wast and spole all the sea counts, and to his
power maintainate war by sea and land.
Holland's Liap.

In this war were brought unto Demetius two notable *armes*,
weighing forty pounds a piece, and made by one Zolus, an
armurer, who, to shew the hardnes and goodness of the temper,
suffered them to be proved and shot at, at six score paces, with
the engines of the battery; and albeit the *armours* were shot at
and hit, yet were they never pierced, and but only a little race
or scratch seen, as it were of a bodkin or penknife, and had no
more hurt.
North's Plutarch.

He had provision of *armour* in his *armory* to arm thirty thousand men.
North's Plutarch.

And thus this great *armade*, which had been three complete
years in rigging, and preparing with infinite expense, was within
one month's space many times fought with, and at the last over-
thrown, with the slaughter of many men, not an hundred of the
English being missing, or any ship lost, save one that small one.
Cowden's Elizabeth.

The king doth smile at, and is well prepar'd
To whip this dwarfish warre, this *giny* *armes*
From out the circle of his territories.
Shakespeare's King John, fol. 19.

Jacke Cade proclames himself Lord Mortimer,
Discovered from the Duke of Clarence house,
And calles your grace usurper, openly,
And vovs to crowne himselfe in Westminster.
His *army* is a ragged multitude
Of blades and peasants, rude and mercilese.
Shakespeare's Henry VI, fol. 140.

If we compare the common *armour* used three hundred years
since (and yet extant in the tower), with ours of modern use, no
such accumle differences will be found betwixt them, as should
argue an universal decay.
Fulter's Worthies of London.

The common-wealth of Venice, in their *army* have this in-
scription, Happy is that cite which in time of peace thinks of war.
Berlin's Anatomy of Melancholy.

— — — — — Now storming furie rose,
And clamour such as heard in heave's till now
Was never, *arm* on *armour* clashing bray'd
Horrible discord, and the mauling wheels
Of brazen chariots rag'd.
Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

You our generall (the more is your greede) deeme us your *armies*,
to be heartles, handles, and *armatures*.
Holland's Liap.

From a regard of his (the maker of bows and arrows) own in-
terest, the making of bows and arrows growed to be his chief busi-
ness, and he becomes a sort of *armurer*.
Smith's Wealth of Nations.

In such a palace poetry might place
The *armory* of winter, where his troops
The ghousy clouds, had weapons array'd fleet,
Sile-piercing volley, blowes bruising ball,
And snow that often blinds the trav'ler's course,
And wraps him in an unexpected tomb.
Cowper's Task, book v.

It is remarkable that man, who is endowed with reason, is born
without *armature*, and is destitute of many powers, which irra-
tional creatures have in a much higher degree than he, by reason

ARM. he can make himself arms to defend himself, can contrive methods for his own guard and safety, can many ways annoy his enemy, and stare off the horns of noxious creatures.

Derksen. Physico-Thology.

No bulls whose nostrils breathe a living flame,
Have turn'd our turf, no teeth of serpents here
Were now, an armed host, and iron crop to bear.

Dryden's Virgil, Geor. 2.

And lifted high the flaming sword appears;
Which full descending, with a frightful way,
Thro' shield and corselet forc'd th' impetuous way,
And bury'd deep in his fair bosom lay.
The purple streams thro' the thin armour stave,
And drench'd th' intruder's coat his mother wave.

Dryden's Virgil, Æn. 10.

So sensible were the Romans of the imperfection of valour without skill and practice, that, in their language, the name of an army was borrowed from the word which signified exercise.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

—They below
Lie well equip'd and shelter'd, far remote
The whole united armament of Greece,
At Salamis.

Glover's Ælissaid, book v. p. 93.

ARMS, COAT OF. Armorial bearings are hereditary marks of honour, consisting of certain tinctures and figures, borne on a shield, and granted by sovereigns to distinguish persons. This is the common definition of a coat of arms; and considering armorial bearings merely as marks of honour, the origin of them is easily traced to the middle ages. But Tacitus notices that the shields of the Germans were distinguished by different colours, and Diodorus ascribes the same practice to the Gauls; and from Æschylus (Seven against Thebes) something similar to the armorial bearings, would appear to have been adopted from the earliest periods. The practice, however, in the dark ages, probably did not arise merely from fashion; during the prevalence of iron armour, when the chiefs were covered in complete steel from head to foot, colours or figures imprinted upon the shield would be useful to point out their identity; and from this circumstance it is probable that the science of heraldry really originated. A full coat of arms consists 1. of the shield; 2. of the accessories, viz. the crest, the motto, and the supporters. The only essential part of arms is the first; and it is there that the genuine and characteristic insignia of the owner are to be found. With respect to the crest and the motto, they were left to the caprice of the individual, and may be changed at pleasure; but it is unlawful to assume or change the shield without a royal grant. As to the right to use supporters, this is a question about which some difficulty prevails. All peers are entitled to them; and the right to wear them, may be granted to others; but whether the eldest sons of peers and baronets can claim them, is disputed. Arms having been once established in a family, may be used by all the males of it, with proper distinctions; the label by the eldest son, the crescent by the second, the mullet by the third. There are also other marks of cadency. See *HERALDRY*.

ARM,

A'RMVLL,

A'RMVLL,

A'RMVLL,

A'RMVLL,

A'RMVLL.

} The whole joint from the shoulder to the fist. See *ARM*, above.

Jo Corinnes was alles wryp, so grette strokes he gaf,
But he body of eche just he smot or he wet he to rief,
Oyer he smot of he arm, or he smot of he heed:
No lyn just he smot mid he bodi he leved.

R. Gloucester, p. 17.

God of the peple of israel chere cure fadir and enchannde the peple whanne thei weren comyng in the land of egypte, and in an high arm he redde hem out of it.

Wiclif. Deeds of Apollis, c. 13.

The God of they people chose our fathers, and exalted the people, when they dwelt as strangers in the lands of egypte, and with a hye arm brought he them out of it.

Bible, 1539.

All innocent of Pandarus entreat

(Oth the Cresside) go we vicle dere

And arme in arme inwaid with him she wett

Asking well her sordes and her cheere.

Chaucer. Troilus, book II. fol. 166. c. 4.

Late late yestern I saw the new moon

W' the said moon in his arm;

And I feir, I feir, my deir master,

That we will com to harme.

Sir Patrick Spence in Ferry's Religions, v. 1.

And on a wall this king his eye cast,

And saw an hand armed, that had wote full fast,

For fere of which he quoke, and asked aore.

Chaucer. The Monkes Tale, v. II. p. 147.

And Abdonalech y^e Morlaie sayde unto the prophet Jeremie;
O, put these ragges ad clovies vnder thyne arme holes, betwyxe
them and the coardes: & Jeremie dyd so.

Bible, 1539. Jeremie, c. 38.

A wreth of gold arm-grete, of hyge weght,

Upon his hode set ful of stones bright,

Of fine rubie and of diamante.

Chaucer. The Monkes Tale, v. I. p. 85.

—No he undodd,

And soberty did mount an arm-grete steele,

Who neigh'd so hye, that what I wote I have spoke,

Was heuily dunle by his arm-grete.

Shakespeare's Ant. and Cleop., fol. 344.

Were I but now the lord of such hot youth,

As when braver Gaunt, thy father, and myselfe,

Rescued the Black Prince, that yong Mars of men,

From forth the ranks of many thousand French:

Oh then, how quickly should this arme of thine,

Now prisoner to the pale, chastise thee,

And minister correction to thy fault.

Shakespeare's Richard II, fol. 32.

Together both with next to Almightie arme,

Uplifted, imminent one stroke they sm'd

That might detaine, and not need repaie,

As not of power at once.

Milton's Par. Lost, book VI.

Then prayed they to stay him up by his arm-hole, for his feet
began already to fall him; and thinking to go forward, as he
passed by the Altar of Neptune, he fell down, and giving one
gripe gave up the ghost.

North's Plutarch.

And at that instant reaching fourth his sword,

Close underneath his shield that scarce did showe,

Stroke him, as he his hand to strike upreard,

In th' arm-pit full through both sides the wound app'rd.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book IV. c. 3. s. 33.

Ye Trojan symple! Xanthus' fil progeny!

Who on your father's sands oft lying by

Your sacred armlets, and heads ready thine,

Ascend to dance on ide in mixed choirs,

Quit your rough shood.

Shakespeare's Poems.

E're nymph of the flood, her tresses reeling,

Throws off her armlet of pearl in the smile.

Dryden's Allans and Allans.

Tother day he took Hellra in one hand, and Paris in t'other,
and danc'd 'em at one another at arms-rod, and 'twere two
moppets.

Dryden's Troilus and Cressida.

ARM.
ARMAGH.

As the good shepherd tends his floccy care,
Seeks freshest pasture, and the purest air,—
The tender lamb he raises in his arms,
Feeds from his hand, and in his bosom warms.

Pope. *Messiah*.

Then with an air most gracefully perform'd,
Fall back into our seat, extol an arm,
And lay it at its ease with gentle care,
With handkerchief in hand depending low.

Crozier's *Poems*, p. 53.

ARMADILLO, in Zoology, a genus of the class Arachnides, order Tetracera, family Oniscides of Latreille.

Generic character. External antennæ with seven articulations, inserted in a cavity on each side the head. Tail with the lateral styles not prominent, terminated by a triangular articulation. Body capable of being rolled up in a ball.

Oniscus Armadillo, Lin., the common Millipede is the type of this genus.

ARMAGH, a county in Ireland, so called from a city of the province of Ulster, is bounded north by Lough Neagh, west by Tyrone and Monaghan county, south by Louth, and east by county Down. It is 90 English miles in breadth, by 31 in length from north to south, containing an area of 293,871 acres, or 459 square miles, of which 344,000 acres are in general fit for cultivation, consisting mostly of a fine fertile soil, though comprising a hilly surface, undulating along from south to north, and terminating in a flat adjacent to Lough Neagh. The chain of mountains called the Fews, of which Slieve Gullian, the highest, is viewed at 40 miles distance, traverses nearly the whole of this country, in a south-east direction, exhibiting in their progress caverns, gins, and rocks, so wild and romantic, as to present many highly sublime and picturesque scenes. Few metallurgic minerals or mineral waters have been yet discovered; and except the great Lough Neagh, there are but two small lakes, the Camlough or Carlough, and Lough Clay, which supplies Armagh city with water: these, with the rivers Barkwater, Ban, Callen, Tall-water, Cusker, Tyann, Tara, Fleury, Four-hill, and Fane rivers, cover an area of 1600 acres. The lofty mountains of the county of Down, towards the south-east of this county, arrest the vapours of the Irish sea, and thus render the climate and air salubrious, and the industrious inhabitants long-lived and free from any peculiar or endemic disorders. The petty farmers of this county are all more or less engaged in the linen manufacture, and on an average of 11 years previous to 1809, the quantity of that article which they annually sent to the linen-hall of Dublin amounted in value to £210,000, exclusive of what they sold elsewhere. This shire sends two members to parliament. Its towns, besides the city Armagh, are Forkhill, Ready, Loughgall, Market-hill, Newtown Hamilton, Lurgan, Portadown, and Richhill. The county is divided into 5 baronies; Armagh, containing a population of 29,958; Lower and Upper Fews, 34,746; Upper and Lower Orier, 42,788; Turranny, 13,957; and O'Neilland barony, whose census was not returned under the act of 1812, but estimated at about 20,000, making a total of 141,381 inhabitants. This county lies between 54° 4' and 54° 30' N. Lat., and between 6° 5' and 6° 45' W. Long. Armagh is also the metropolitical see of an archdiocese, and an ecclesiastical

province of the same name, whose prelate is stiled primate of all Ireland, in contradistinction to the archbishop of Dublin, who is simply called primate of Ireland, as determined by an act of council in 1634. This province, besides the archdiocese of Armagh, estimated at 46,855 Irish acres, and at £18,000. per annum revenue, comprises the suffragan dioceses of Clogher, Meath, Down, Connor, Derry, Raphoe, Kilmore, and Drogheda, and a surface of about 6,000,000 of English acres.

ARMAGH, a city of Ulster, anciently the metropolis of Ireland, and now the capital of the county of Armagh. It is situated on a hill, surrounded by a highly cultivated and picturesque country, and within less than a quarter of a mile of the river Callen, to whose banks it once extended. It is the seat of the consistorial court of his grace the archbishop of Armagh, who is the primate and metropolitan of all Ireland. The see of Armagh extends into five counties, viz. Armagh, Derry, Meath, Tyrone, and Louth, being 75 English miles from north to south, and from 12½ to 32 in breadth. Armagh was, in the middle centuries, an extensive and populous city, and was celebrated as a place of learning, having at one period, according to the Irish historians, 7000 students at its college. The city, with the cathedral, a large gothic building, 190 feet from east to west, and 135 from north to south, which was originally designed for Augustinian canons, was often destroyed by fire, and ravaged by the Danes, who took off or annihilated the archives of this ancient place. It was also often plundered or laid waste in the repeated wars between the natives and the Anglo-Normans; and in 1642 it was set on fire by Sir Phelim O'Neill. From the time of the suppression of the abbey of which Armagh abounded, it had dwindled into a very insignificant and neglected town, and in this state it remained until Dr. Richard Robinson, afterwards Baron Rokeby, was promoted to the primacy. By the princely munificence of this prelate, the cathedral was repaired, and the town altogether renovated. He built and endowed an observatory, with an excellent astronomical apparatus, a library, and a palace, with a chapel on the globe adjacent to the city. To his liberality Armagh is also indebted for a parish church, lately built, and for a school where children are to be educated gratuitously, according to the modern improved system. The school is in a flourishing condition, and is endowed with 1530 acres of fine land, which in 1804 produced a gross annual rent of £1144. 10s. 5½d. A very elegant county court-house, in which the business of the assizes, quarter sessions, &c. is transacted, has been lately built, at the foot of the gentle acclivity on which the observatory stands. In front of this building there are very pleasant public walks, surrounded by trees planted in an elliptic form: these walks seem to be half encircled on the eastern, northern, and southern points, by public buildings, whilst on the western side the houses of the city appear, ascending gradually one above the other, until the view is terminated by the cathedral. On the west side of the city there is a charter-house or eleemosynary poor school of considerable magnitude, founded in 1758. In addition to the churches already mentioned, the places of worship are, a large Presbyterian church, a church for the Seceders, a large Roman Catholic chapel,

ARMAGH.

ARMAGH, and a small house erected by the Methodists. The city before the union, sent two members to Parliament; it now only returns one. Armagh has a very large market every Tuesday: the principal commodity sold is it is linen cloth in the brown state: the average weekly sales of this article amount to 4500 pieces, of 23 yards each, value £5000. There is also a market every Saturday for grain, and all kinds of provisions. By a census taken in 1817 the number of inhabitants were 7010, of which 3001 are of the Established church, dissenters of various sects, 1506 chiefly Presbyterians, and 3413 Roman Catholics. Number of houses 1908. Distant N. from Dublin 62 miles, S. S. E. from Londonderry 48. Long according to the most accurate observations, $6^{\circ} 37' 30''$ W. Lat. $54^{\circ} 21' 15''$ N.

ARMAGNAC, a fertile and populous province of France, in the district of Guyenne, which, before the late division, was about 36 leagues in length, and about 25 broad. It is now included in the depart-

ment of the Upper Pyrenees. The capital is Auch. It is divided into Upper and Lower Armagnac, which are vulgarly called White and Black Armagnac.

ARMANAO, a small town of Brazil, in South America, which is a great fishing station for whales. The fishery is farmed by the Portuguese government to a company of merchants, who employ about 150 negroes. The average quantity of whales caught formerly amounted to about 300 or 400 in a season; but the fishery has since fallen off. The conveniences for carrying on this business are extensive and well contrived, and according to Mr. Mawe, by whom it was visited, are much superior to any similar establishments in Europe. Several fine piers project from the shore into 18 to 30 feet depth of water, on which are erected capstans, cranes, and other requisite machinery, and hither are the fish which are caught on the coast brought to be cut up and boiled. Long. $47^{\circ} 30'$ W. Lat. $27^{\circ} 5'$ S.

ARMAG-
NAC.
—
AR-
MENIA.

ARMENIA.

ARMENIA, a considerable country in the north eastern part of the Turkish dominions in Asia, anciently much more extensive than at present. It is called *Y'nuk* by the nations, but the name Armenia, to which most of its ancient appellations bear a strong affinity, is of great antiquity, and perhaps derived from Aram, the original denomination of Syria. It was divided by the ancient geographers into the greater and the less, Armenia Major and Minor. The former, extending from the Araxes to the Euphrates, bounded on the north by Albanian and Iteria, on the east and west by the Caspian and Euphrates; by Media and Mesopotamia on the south, occupied an area of 20,120 miles. The latter, to the west of the Euphrates and Armenia Major, and extending thence to Cappadocia and Cilicia, a portion of which provinces it includes, was sometimes called first and second Armenia, in reference to the different epochs at which it was conquered by the Armenian princes. This division of the country arose under the Seleucidae about two centuries before the Christian era, and continued with occasional variations till that part of Asia was overrun by the Saracens and Turks in the thirteenth; since that period Armenia has entirely lost its independence; and the vast region which was once comprehended under that name, has been gradually reduced to a very narrow compass. It may now be considered as bounded by Georgia, Imeretia, and Mingrelia, on the north, Erzurum on the west, Kurdistan and Azerbaidjan on the south, and Shirvan on the west.

It is extremely mountainous, lying as it were on the skirts of Mount Taurus and Caucasus, and its plains and valleys are, for the most part, at a much greater elevation than those of southern and western Asia. Tournefort observed ice in the stagnat waters near Erzurum in the month of July: but the mid-day heat of the sun is as powerful, as in those latitudes might be expected, and the lower grounds where well shaded from cold winds, are extremely warm and productive. On the eastern side, more especially, where the heat

is most sensibly felt, the soil is highly fertile, and often impregnated with salt, which increases its fertility. There are many streams in Armenia, and it is in general well supplied with water; but there is a scarcity of wood. However in the warmer regions gardens and orchards abound, and this is justly considered as the original country of several of our best fruits, such as plums and apricots. Almonds, figs, and pomegranates are successfully cultivated in the warmer parts of this country. Iron and copper, and even silver and gold are found in the mountains, as is evident from the vast sums raised by Pompey in a very short period; but the mines have long since ceased to have been worked under the thriftless government of the Turks.

The northern part of Armenia is intersected by some branches of Caucasus, the Montes Moschici of the ancients, the Childir of the Turks; but almost all the ranges of mountains in this country, including Ararat itself, are parts of the ancient Taurus, of which the southern chain, stretching out to Mesopotamia (Diyâr Bekr) was called Mount Masius, by the Greeks. That part of it which passes between the lake of Van and the confines of Media (Azerbaidjan) was called by them Niphates (i. e. Snowy Mountains); and the other branch to the west of that lake, the Gordian mountain, inhabited by those warlike tribes, who, under the name of Kurds, still preserved almost the same appellation as they bore in the time of Xenophon. The whole of these chains are branches of the southern Taurus, which is connected with the northern at Anti-Taurus, by Mount Ararat, the eastern extremity of that great chain which traverses the upper part of Asia Minor, almost in a straight line from west to east, and gives birth to most of the large streams which flow into the Black Sea, as well as the Euphrates itself. On the eastern side of Armenia towards the Caspian Sea were the Montes Caspii, or Caspian chain of mountains dividing it from northern Media.

AR-
MENIA.

There are, as might be expected in so mountainous a region, the sources of many great rivers in Armenia, and some writers have supposed it to be the site of the terrestrial paradise. The Tigris and Euphrates are certainly two of the rivers mentioned by Moses as rising in the garden of Eden; and the Araxes and Rhion, or Phasis, which also spring from these mountains may be the Gihon and Pison; but it must be acknowledged, that this, like all the other attempts to determine the site of the terrestrial paradise, is liable to insuperable objections. On the south eastern side of this country the different branches of Mount Taurus form a deep haem, in the centre of which is the valley and lake of Vän or Arjesh (Arassia Palus) called Mantiane by Strabo, who describes its colour and properties almost in the same words as a modern traveller: "the immense extent and tranquillity of its cerulean waters," says M. Jaubert, p. 137, "give it the appearance of a sea which is never ruffled by storms. Its shores are clothed with poplars, tamarisks, myrtles, and oleanders, and many verdant islands inhabited by peaceful anchorites, are scattered over its bosom." The waters of the lake are extremely salt, and if M. Jaubert was rightly informed, p. 139, their level is continually rising. To the east and north east of Erivan is the lake of Rivia,* (Kaghlar kuni, of the Armenians, and Gükcheh deryä or Blue Water of the Persians,) which has abundance of fish, and its waters are fresh, as its Armeniaia and Persian names, Kaghlar kuni s'ü, and Deryü shürin, indicated. It is 25 leagues in circumference, at about 60 miles from the town of Erivan, and gives rise to the river Zengé, which passes near that place.

The northern part of Asia was not well known to the Greeks; the accounts, therefore, of its inhabitants which they have left us, are scanty. We may collect, however, from them, that the Armenians were a pastoral people, living in a patriarchal manner in open villages, or caverns in the mountains, and maintaining themselves principally by the produce of their flocks and herds, Xen. *Anab.* iv. 4.; as their successors the Kurds do at the present day, Jaubert p. 177. They sent wine also down the Euphrates to Babylon, Herod. l. 194.; and furnished Tyre, and the trading towns on the Mediterranean, with horses and mules, Ezech. xxvii. 14. In the middle ages, from the decline of the Roman empire to the establishment of the Saracens, they proved themselves a resolute if not an enterprising people; but the consolidation of the neighbouring powers under the Turks and Persians enabled their enemies to deprive them by degrees of their independence, and with the loss of it they lost also the military character they had long maintained; but the fidelity, patience, and perseverance, which made them excellent soldiers under their native princes, were precisely those qualities which fitted them for carrying on commerce with success; and they have now been for some centuries the principal carriers and commercial agents throughout all Asia. Sir R. Porter's *Travels*, p. 443.

They have universally the reputation of being quiet, steady, civil, and abstemious. A little flour, biscuit, dried fish, and fruit, is all the provision they require on their journeys. They are true and accurate in their

dealings, but apt to be penurious, and sometimes exorbitant in their demands. The wives and children are kept in great subjection to their husbands and parents; and the young men generally make one or two long journeys with their relations, to insure them to business and try their steadiness before they are allowed to marry. Their habit of body is large and inclined to coarseness; their features large and distinct; their eyes and complexion dark; they are, in short, to borrow the antiquated but faithful description of Sir Paul Ricaut, "men naturally of healthy, strong, and robust bodies; their countenances commonly grave, their features well proportioned, but of a melancholy and saturnine air; but their women," he says, "are on the contrary commonly ill shaped, long nosed, and not one of a thousand so much as tolerably handsome." *Armen.* *Clarendon*, p. 386. In Turkey they are distinguished by a black kalpak, or spherical cap of woollen cloth, and generally wear clothes of a dark colour; their women are quite as much concealed as the Musselmans, and seem to have almost as much horror of being seen by men. They resemble their Mohammedan neighbours, indeed, in habits and appearance, much more than any other Christians established in the Turkish empire.

In the most ancient times the Armenians seem to have worshipped the same idols as the Persians, but our knowledge of their spiritual as well as temporal condition in those ages is, as we before observed, very defective. In the third century of our era, S. Savorich, or Gregory is said to have converted Tiridates King of Armenia, by his preaching and miracles. In the following century Miesrob, whose contemporary and disciple, Moses of Khoren, has left a valuable history of his native country, caused the Scriptures to be translated from the Greek. It is much to be lamented that the ignorance and superstition of the Armeniaia clergy led them subsequently to allow it to be interpolated from the Syriac and Vulgate versions. As literature has lately been more cultivated than formerly by the Armenians themselves, and their language has been successfully studied by some able men in France and Italy, it may be hoped that the original unadulterated text may yet be recovered. The Armenians are generally considered as Manichees, or those who confound the two natures in Christ; but Sir Paul Ricaut thinks that the expression used in their confession of faith is not stronger or more objectionable than that of the Greeks, who certainly do not fall into the heresy of Eutyches. *Ric. ubi supra*, p. 410. In ecclesiastical decorations and ceremonies their churches bear much resemblance to those of Greece and Rome. They delight in pictures of saints and martyrs, and use crucifixes, but do not pay that sort of external adoration to them that the Greeks and Roman Catholics do. They administer the cup to the laity, and the wine mixed, to shew the single nature of Christ. But it may be doubted whether this explanation is not a gloss put by the Roman Catholics upon the ancient usages of the primitive church preserved by the Armenians. They do not admit the doctrine of an infallible head of the church, nor acknowledge the authority of more than the three first councils. They baptize by immersion, but whether they hold the doctrine of transubstantiation is dubious, as their church seems never to have

AR-
MENIA.

* Sitran in some maps.

AR-
MENIA.
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ARME-
NIAN
MONKS.

decided upon the strict interpretation of the sacramental words. They believe in an intermediate state, but not in purgatory; and they pay the same superstitious regard to the pictures of the saints as the other Christians of the east. They keep many and rigid fasts, and some festivals. Christmas they celebrate on the 6th of January. Their church government is episcopal, and their clergy is subject to the patriarch, who resides at the great monastery of Echmiyadin, about 10 miles distant from Erivan. That place is also called Uch kilissh, and may be considered as the head quarters of the religion and literature of Armenia.

The Armenian language is harsh and rough, and has adopted some foreign words and idioms; it may be justly considered as dead, for it is not more intelligible to the unlearned, than the ancient Greek is to the present natives of Greece. It has the peculiarity of substituting *gh* for *h*, and converting Paulus into Boghös. It abounds in inflections, and in the number of its cases is exceeded by no language but that of the Laplanders. The modification of the sense in verbs, and the order of the words in a sentence seem to have been influenced by a desire to copy Greek models. The language was brought to its greatest degree of perfection by Mearob and his disciples in the fourth and fifth centuries, and in the writings of the learned, it is still preserved unaltered. The best work upon it is Schröder's *Thesaurus Lingue Armenicæ*, Amsterdam, 1711, 4to, and Belland's *Essai sur la langue Armenienne*, Paris 1812, one of the most modern.

The extreme oppression under which the Armenians have lived for so many centuries must naturally have retarded their progress in literature. Almost the only book in use among them, except the Scriptures, of which Sir P. Ricaut seems to have heard, was a collection of lives of the saints, and yet the historical and geographical works of Moses of Chorene must have been in the hands of the more learned, and the history of Arctel was actually printed ten years before his book appeared. The Armenians have long been aware of the advantage of printing, and besides the books printed at Rome, Amsterdam, Paris,

and Marseilles, have long had presses in constant employment at Echmiyadin, Constantinople, and Venice. The Armenian convent on the island of St. Lazarus, near the latter place, has a printing office which was established in the beginning of the last century, from which, besides commentaries and controversial writings, there have issued grammars, dictionaries, mathematical, philosophical, geographical, and historical works; most of them, however, are modern compilations.

The best account of Armenian literature is to be found in Cribbed and Martin's *Recherches curieuses sur l'Histoire Ancienne de l'Asie*, Paris 1806, and Martin's *Mémoires Historiques et Géographiques sur l'Arménie*, Paris 1818. No less than 30 historical writers are enumerated in these works, and if half that number could be at all compared with the faithful and intelligent Moses of Chorene, it would be fully sufficient to remove the stigma which has been affixed upon the Armenians considered as an illiterate people. There is likewise another circumstance which gives a considerable degree of interest to the learning of the Armenians; and that is their having translations of Greek writers, of whose works the original is lost. Such, for example, is the Chronicle of Eusebius, of which a Latin translation by Zohrab and Mai, was published at Milan, in 1818, and the Armenian original with another Latin Version by Dr. Aucher, of Angora, at the convent in the island of St. Lazarus in the same year. The complete works of Philo Judæus are also extant in an Armenian version, and would be published by the members of the convent in St. Lazarus, if sufficient encouragement were held out. The authors from whose works the best information respecting this country may be obtained are Tavernier, Chardin, Tournefort, Gildenstein, Reinegg, Sanseverus, Moirer, Macdonald, Kimmier, Rennell, Rousseau, *Nachrichte Historique sur la Perse*, Marseille, 1818. Tancogne *Lettres sur la Perse*, Paris, 1819. Dupré *Voyage en Perse*, Paris, 1819. Sir W. Ouseley's *Travels*, vol. iii. Zaidour, *Etat actuel de la Perse*, Paris, 1817. Sir Robert Ker Porter's *Travels*, Lond. 1821.

AR-
MENIA.
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ARME-
NIEN-
STADT.

ARMENIAN MONKS. The smaller number are lay brethren, who follow the severe rule of St. Anthony, the Hermit, in all its rigour. They live as hermits even in their monasteries, and are found principally on the confines of Persia. The greater number follow the rule of St. Basil, but not rigidly. Their monasteries are generally in towns or places of pilgrimage. The most celebrated is that of Echmiyadin, or Etchmenzin, i. e. the Descent of the Son of God, not far from Erivan, the seat of the Catholicos or patriarch of the Armenian church; where there is also an ecclesiastical seminary and a printing establishment. See ARMENIA. There are three churches near each other at this place, whence it receives its name of Uch kilissh; and most of the *verabets* or doctors in divinity graduated here. The monastery has cells for 80 monks; but seldom more than 50 occupants. The whole number of convents in Persia and Turk-

ish Armenia is about 40, and the number of monks about 200. Their revenues are very small, and their discipline extremely rigid. There are also 15 nunneries in Persian Armenia. There is a convent of Armenian monks of the order of St. Basil at Jerusalem, which has been richly endowed by the liberality of the pilgrims. Most if not all the monks of the united or conforming Armenian church (i. e. that part of it which acknowledges the supremacy of Rome,) are branches of the order of St. Dominic. Helyot *Hist. des Ordres Religieux*, i. c. 5.

ARMENIENSTADT, in Hungarian *Samos Ujvár*, pronounced Samosch Uivár; in Wallonian *Nymtin Gyerli*, (Nyintin Jerli); in Latin *Armenopolis*, a handsome town in Transylvania (Siebenbürgen), in the county of Szolnock, (Solnok). It has all the privileges of a city, and is inhabited by 400 Armenian families, rated at 400,000 gulden. Grazing and

ARME-
NIEN-
STADT.

tanning are the trades principally carried on by them. There are also many Hungarians, (*ujforsz*), Germans, and Wallachians. The streets and houses are built with remarkable regularity. It is covered by a castle built by Cardinal Martinuzzi, and enlarged by Prince George Rákóczy, (Ra kotchy,) which is now used as a prison for heinous offenders. Rummy in Ersch's *Encycl.*

ARM-
THORPE.

ARMILLARY, armilla, a brace for the arm; a bracelet.

ARMIN, in the lower division of the Wapentake of Osgoos, West Riding, county of York, in the parish of Smith; a Chapel, with the Chapel of Smith, of the certified value of £7; Patrons, Earl Percy, and E. Starkie, Esq. alternately. The resident population of this township in 1801, was 391. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £350. 12. 0 $\frac{1}{2}$., at 4s. 4d. in the pound. It is $\frac{3}{4}$ miles S. W. by S. from Howden.

ARMINGHALL, or ARMINHALL, in the hundred of Henstead, county of Norfolk; a Curacy, of the certified value of £16; Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Norwich. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 81. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £79. 7s. 6d., at 3s. 4d. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is $\frac{3}{4}$ miles S. E. by S. from Norwich.

ARMINIANISM, see ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY.

ARMIPOTENT, arma, armis; and potens, able; able, strong, powerful in arms; warlike.

And down from an hill under a bent,
There stood the temple of Mars armipotens;
Wrought all of burn'd steel, of which th' entrance
Was long and streite, and gantly for to see.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. l. p. 75.

Beneath the low'ring brow, and on a beat,
The temple stood of Mars armipotens;
The frame of burnish'd steel, that cast a glare
From far, and seem'd to thaw the freezing air.
A straight, long entry, to the temple led,
Blind with high walls, and borrow over head.

Dryden.

ARMISTICE, arma, armis; and sisto, to stay, to cease; a cessation from arms, from war; a suspension of arms.

Many reasons of prudence might incline the king of England to think this armistice more desirable than a continuance of the war.

Letitia.

This made an armistice (that is, speaking with regard to my uncle Toby)—but, with respect to Mrs. Wadman, a vacancy;—of almost eleven years.

Stearns's Tristram Shandy.

ARMITAGE, in the south division of the hundred of Olfow, county of Stafford, a Curacy, of the clear yearly value of £30. 10s.; Patron, the Prebendary of Handesacre, in the Cathedral Church of Lichfield. The resident population of this parish in 1801, (including the township of Handesacre), was 464. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £191. 8s. 6d. It is $\frac{1}{4}$ miles E. S. E. from Rudgely.

ARMORACIA, see COCHLEARIA.

ARMTHORPE, in the lower division of the Wapentake of Strafforth and Tickhill, West Riding, county of York, a Rectory, valued in the King's Books at £8. 18s. 9d.; Patron, the King. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 273. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was

£187. 1s. 11d. It is 4 miles E. N. E. from Don-ARNALL caeter.

ARNALL, in the north division of the Wapentake of Broxtow, county of Nottingham; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's Books at £7. 17s. 8d.; Patron, the Duke of Devonshire. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 2768. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £860. 16s. 10d., at 3s. 9d. in the pound. It is $\frac{3}{4}$ miles N. by E. from Nottingham.

ARNCLIFFE, in the west division of the Wapentake of Staincliffe and Eweross, West Riding, county of York, in the parish of Arncliffe; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's Books at £13. 6s. 8d.; Patron, University College, Oxford. The resident population of this township in 1801, was 341. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £134. 4s. 8d. It is $\frac{1}{4}$ miles N. E. from Settle.

ARNESBY, in the hundred of Guthlaxton, county of Leicester; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's Books at £5. 16s. 8d.; Patron, John Sherwin, Esq. The resident population of this parish is 321. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £385. 1s. 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ d., at 6s. 5d. in the pound. It is 8 miles S. by E. from Leicester.

ARNHEIM, or ARNHEIM, the capital of the Dutch province of Guelderland, and of the quarter of Veluwe in particular. It was, before the late changes, the meeting-place of the States, and the seat of the courts of justice and exchequer. It was in a former age the residence of the dukes of Guelderland, and afterwards of the governors of the province. It lies at the foot of a hill near the Rhine, $\frac{3}{4}$ miles from the spot where the Yssel branches off from that river. It is neatly built, and its fortifications were greatly enlarged by the famous Coehorn in 1709. It is well situated for trade, and was a member of the confederacy of the Hanse towns. Population in 1796, 10,060. 30 miles E. of Utrecht, and 45 S. E. of Amsterdam. Long. 5° 37' E. Lat. 52° N.

ARNHEIM BAY, a spacious bay at the north west extremity of the gulf of Carpentaria, containing an area of above 100 square miles, fit for the reception of shipping. The shores are low; wood is plentiful upon them, and fish may be taken on the coast. Iron ore is found in the flat ground, which is covered with vegetation. Kangaroos are abundant, and parrots are seen in the woods. The entrance of the bay lies in 13° 11' S. lat. and 136° 3' E. long.

ARNICA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Syngenesia, order Polygamia Superflua.

Generic character. Receptacle naked. Pappus simple, divisions of the calyx equal, florets of the ray frequently containing abortive stamens.

The best known species of this genus is the *A. Montana*, or Leopard's Bane.

A. Montana, leaves ovate, entire, stem leaves opposite, in pairs.

This is a common plant in the alpine parts of Germany, in Sweden, Lapland, and Switzerland. The flowers and the root have been used in medicine, and still retain a place in the pharmacopoeias of Edinburgh and Dublin; they are stimulating and slightly aromatic, and have chiefly been given in cases of paralysis in the form of infusion.

ARNO, the principal river in Tuscany, has its source

ARNO.
AROMA-
TICK.

in the hill of Falterona, one of the Appenines, and after traversing the grand duchy in its whole breadth from east to west, loses itself in that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuscan sea. It is increased in its course by a multitude of small rivers, divides the city of Florence into two unequal parts, and enters the sea 14 miles N. from Leghorn, and 4 below Pisa, to which place it is navigable for small vessels.—The Arno formerly gave name to an extensive and populous department in the French empire, which was formed out of the north-eastern part of the grand duchy. It was divided into the arrondissements of Florence, Aroyzo, and Pistoja. Florence was the chief city. The population amounted to about 600,000. Long. 10° 16' E. Lat. 43° 40' N.

ARNO, CIVITA D', a town of Italy, in the States of the Church, district of Perugia. Three miles E. N. E. of Perugia.

ARNON, in ancient Geography, a river of Palestine which rose among the mountains of Gilead, in Arabia, and traversing the desert, discharged itself into the Dead Sea. By its course it divided the Amorites from the Moabites.

ARNOPOGON, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Syngenesia, order Polygamia Aqualis.

Generic character. Receptacle naked, pappus plumose, stipitate, calyx of one leaf eight-partite turbinate.

English name, Sheep's beard, a genus allied to Tragopogon, or Goat's head, there are three species, natives of the south of Europe.

AROMATICK, *Apocyn.* of uncertain etymology. AROMATICAL, *Vossius* prefers *Apocyn.* ab *apo*, particulus *aromatizatus* et *apo*, sive *apo*. AROMATICE, *Apocyn.* proprie ait, quod bonum spiritum odorem.

Aromatich is commonly applied to that which is spicy; smelling of, scented with, spices.

My chamber is strowed with odors & incense
With soft anointing oils, and with musk
Breathing an aromatick perfume
Surmounting Odours, in any man's dome.

Chaucer. Remede of Love, fol. 324. c. 1.

Ver hath made the pleasant field
Many several odours yield,
Odours aromatick;
From faire Astr's cherrie lip
Sweetest smells for ever slip,
They in pleasing passers all.

William Browne. Praise to his Mistress.

Unto converted Jews who are of the same seed, no man imputeth this unseemly odour, as though *aromatized* by their conversion, they lost their scent with their religion, and smelt no longer than they savoured of the Jew.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

But Sancho, thou canst not deale me one thing; when thou dost approach her, dost thou not feele a most odiferous smell, an aromatick fragraney, no—I cannot tell what,—so pleasing, as I know not how to term it.

Shelton's Trane. Den Quir.

CLONIS. O that these dew-drops were water for thee,
These mist perfumes that hang upon thy cheeks;
And that the winds were all *aromatick*,
Which if my wish could make them they should be.

Dragon's Nymph. iv.

Drink the first cup at supper hot, and half an hour before supper something hot and *aromatized*.

Becon.

Of other strewings, and *aromatizers*, to enrich our sallets we have already spoken.

Eryth.

All who bear the name
Of Cappadocian, swell the Syrian host;
With those who gather from the fragrant shrub
The *aromatic* balsam, and extract
Its milky juice along the lovely side
Of Jordan.

Glacier's Leonidas, book iv.

AROMATIC, in Medicine, a term applied to a class of medicines, which have a grateful spicy scent, and an agreeable pungent taste, as cloves, cinnamon, &c. Their peculiar flavour resides in their essential oil, and rises in distillation with water or spirit.

ARONA, a town of Italy, in the Upper Novarese, or Piedmontese, part of the county of Angiera. It is situated on the west bank of the Lago Maggiore, opposite the town of Angiera. Here is an old castle, the hereditary governor of which was the eldest of the family of Borronai, to whom the town belonged as a fief. In this castle was born the famous Urosio Borromeus, whom the Catholics have canonised, and whose pretended miracles have drawn many thousand pilgrims to the place of his birth. In order to convert it into an establishment similar to that of the holy house of Loretto, the room in which the saint was born was moved to a neighbouring eminence, and enclosed in a splendid church, which contains different chapels, a seminary, and a large metal statue of its patron saint. The hill is hence called Monte di San Carlo. The position of the town on the lake is favourable for trade, and the adjoining country abounds in excellent wine. Population 4000. 17 miles N. N. W. of Novar. Long. 6° 32' E. Lat. 45° 46' N.

ARONA, or ARONE, a small river of Italy, in the States of the Church, which issues from the lake of Bracciano, and falls into the Mediterranean.

AROUND, *prep.* } On round. It. rondin. Fr.
AROUND, *adv.* } round, from the Lat. rotundus,
from rota, a wheel. In A. S. (says Tooke) the place of this preposition is supplied by Hweil, and On-hweil.

The baron came to the green woods,
Wi mickle dale and care,
And there he first spied Gill Morice
Kameling his yellow hair;
That sweetly wa'd around his face,
That face beyond compare.

Gill Morice in Percy's Reliquia, v. 3.

Around him all the planets, with this our earth, single, or with attendants, continually move; seeking to receive the blessing of his light, and lively warmth.

Shaftsbury. Characteristics.

No war, or battle's sound
Was heard the world around:
The idle spear and shield were high up hanging.

Milton. On the Nativity.

Their embryon atoms; they around the flag
Of each his faction, in their several clans,
Light arm'd or heavy, sharp, smooth, swift or slow,
Swarm populous, unnumber'd to the sands.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book ii.

The golden beard, and hale the moun's raise
The golden trumpet of eternal praise;
From pole to pole the winds diffuse the sound,
That fills the circuit of the world around.

Pope. The Temple of Fame.

AROUND. The whole atmosphere glowed, and every thing around was in a state of perfect stagnation, not a leaf was in motion.

AROYNT.

Gilpin's Tower to the Ladies of Cumberland, &c.
The goodness of God, through his creatures, as his instruments, is every where spread abroad.

Gilpin's Sermons.

He who could have summoned twelve legions of angels to form a flaming guard round his person, or have called down fire from heaven on the guilty city of Jerusalem, on his false accusers, his unrighteous judges, the executioners, and the insulting rabble, made no resistance when his body was fastened to the cross by the Roman soldiers.

Horsley's Sermons.

AROUSE. Perhaps formed upon the past participle *arose*, of the verb *arise*.

The king aroused them,
More heedfully beheld them,
Till a crimson blush
His remembrance crost.

The King of France's Daughter. Percy's Reliques, v. 3.

This is the wine
Which, in former time,
Each wise one of the magi
Was wont to arouse
In a frolick boose,
Recumbant sub tergite fagi.

F. Beaumont. In praise of Sack.

But absent, what fantastic wren aroun'd,
Rage is each thought, by restless morn'g fed,
Chill the warm cheek, and blast the bloom of life?

Thomson. Spring.

With a pard's spotted hide his shoulders broad
He mantled over; in his hand uprear'd
His brazen helmet, and with rig'rous hand
Grasping his spear, forth issu'd to arouse
His brother, mighty sov'reign of the host.

Chaucer's Hild, book 2.

AROW. Arewe. On row. A. S. *arowa*. Angl.
row, row, and array. Battle row, battle array. Junius.
See **ARRAY**.

In an orderly line; or regular succession.

So hit come to Guldene, þy erle Godwyn þe were
Lete þy guldene seen sette al aroue,
An telle out eore þe to þe man, & þe nje þe man be none
And let smyke of her ale heuþy, & made a reful dom.

R. Glouceter, p. 327.

The pra'th the klinge, then pra'th the qene,
Forth with the lordes all aroue,
That be somme myrthe wolde shewe.

Gower. Con. A. book viii. p. 255.

All þei fied on rowe, in lþen white as milke,
For non mid þan knowe, þer arrowe whilk were whilk.

R. Bruce, p. 334.

But plainly for to make it knowe
Howe that the signes all a rowe,
Eche after other by degree,
In substance and in propriete.

Gower. Con. A. book vii.

For joye he heat hire in his armis two;
His herte bathed in a bath of blisse,
A thousand time a-row he gan hire kisse.

Chaucer. The Wyf of Bathes Tale, v. i. p. 275.

My master and his men be both broke loose,
Beates the maird, a-row, and bound the doctor.

Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors, act 3d.

The borders of their petticoats below,
Were guarded black with rubies on a-row.

Dryden's Fables.

AROYNT. Fr. *ronger*, *rodere*, *rodicare*, *rocare*,
roncare, *ronger*. Menage.

Fr. *ronger*, to gnaw, knap, or nibble off; to fret,
eat, or wear away. Cotgrave.

Begnawed thee; be thou gnawed, eaten, consumed; AROYNT.
similar to the common malediction—a plague take thee; a peck light upon thee. See Rooyon, Roynish, and Royn.

ARQUE-

BUSE.

A saylor's wife had chasteite in her lopp,
And inoucnit, and moucnit, and moucnit;
Glue me, quoth I.

Arrogat thee, Withe, the rumpo-fed Rooyon cryes.

Shakespeare's Much, fol. 132.

ARPEGGI. **ARPEGIATURA.** In Music, is a mark which signifies that the notes must be struck one after the other, in the style of harp music. *Arpeggio* accompaniment, consists chiefly of the notes of the several chords taken in returning successions.

ARPI. In ancient Geography, a town of Italy. in Apulia, between Luceria and Sipontum. It is now in ruins, but was a populous city in the time of Livy, and supplied Annibal with 3000 soldiers.

ARPINO. In Geography, formerly Arpinum, a town of Naples. It is chiefly remarkable as having been the birth place of C. Marius and Cicero. The villa of the latter, of which so agreeable an account is given, in his letters to Atticus, li. 11. is now called the villa of St. Dominic, and is possessed by a convent of monks. The residence of Marius is about 12 miles from the town; this is called Casa Mari, and is occupied by the convent of the Monks of La Trappe. 55 miles N. N. W. of Naples.

ARQUA. or **ARQUATO.** a village of Italy, in the Paduan territory, about three miles from Bataglia, celebrated as having been the place where Petrarch was born, and where he was also buried. There are two other places of this name, one is the march of Ancona, and the other in the duchy of Milan.

ARQUEBUSE. } In the Italian Archibuso, com-
ARQUEBUSA'DE. } posed of arco, an arc or bow,
A'ARQUEBUSE. } and husio, which signifies, (iron,) hole, in Italian. Menage. But the etymology of husio is unsettled. See however, the quotation from Lodge.

And now farewell both spear and shield,
Caliver, pistol, arquebus,
Ser, ser, what sights my heart doth yield
To think that I must leave you thus;
And lay aside my rapier blade,
And take in hand a ditching spade.

Nicholas Breton, in Ellis, v. ii.

Then pushed soldiers with their pikes,
And halberds with handy strokes;
The arquebuse in flecke it lightens,
And duns the eye with usky smokes.

Cupid's Assault. Percy's Reliques, v. ii.

There was a water-mau at the Towre staires, desired the sayd Lieutenant maane to take him, who did so, which being cayed of Wyats men, seuen of them with *arquebuzas*, called them to land againe; but they would not, whereupon each man discharged their piece and killed the sayde waterman.

Stowe's Chronicle.

Soldiers armed with guns, of whatsoever sort or denomination the latter, appear to have been called *arquebutiers*, though the weapon termed an *arquebus* (originally a *arque* or *arquebut*) is distinguished by a particular description in dictionaries and glossaries. It is probable, however, that *arque* or *arquebut*, antiently signified guns in general; in proof of which a glossary is still called in French an *arquebutier*. The strange alteration from *arquebut* to *arquebus* may be gradually traced in these papers; where the bearers of the weapons in question are variously stiled, 'as *arquebutiers*, or *arquebutiers*, or *arquebutiers*, &c.' from *arque*, a term of unknown derivation, and *bute*, Fr. to aim at.

Lodge's Illustrations, v. i. p. 238.

ARQUE-
BUSADE
ARRA-
GON.

ARQUEBUSADE, (eau d'arquebusade, from arquebuse, a gun or musket.) A spirituous water, distilled from a number of aromatic plants, and used as an application to gun-shot wounds, whence it derives its name.

ARQUES, a river of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, which passes by the town of Arques, and loses itself in the English channel, near Dieppe.

ARQUES, a small town of France, in the department of the Lower Seine, arrondissement of Dieppe, lying in what was called the land of CAUX, in Upper Normandy. It is situated on a river of the same name, two leagues S. E. of Dieppe, and 11 N. of Rouen. Population 1700.

ARQUES, a village of France, in Artois, arrondissement of St. Omer, with 600 inhabitants. 13½ leagues N. E. of Arras.

ARQUES, a village of France, in Lower Languedoc, department of the Aude, arrondissement of Limoux, with 115 houses. 6½ leagues S. of Carcassonne.

ARRAC, ARRACK, ARAC, RACK, SAMBU of the Chinese. An ardent spirit obtained by distillation from the external pulp of different species of palms, or from rice, which has been fermented. At Goa, and in Ceylon, the arrack is distilled from toddy, (tārī or tā'di,) the fluid obtained from cocoa-nut and palmyra, (cocos nucifera and elate sylvestris, in Portuguese palmeiryn,) by an incision made near the top of the tree. A pot sufficient to hold two quarts is fixed, at night, just below the place whence a shoot has been cut, and in the morning it is removed filled with juice. At Batavia, arrack is distilled from paddy, or rice in the husk. Good arrack should be clear, yellow, of a strong smell and taste, and have, at least, 52-54 per cent. of alcohol. That made at Goa, and thence rectified, is the best. The Batavian is not so clear or well coloured. The Parriar, Colombo, and Quilon arrack, are very strong and fiery. The Chinese increase its stimulus by the addition of bolothurias, a sort of worm found in the East Indies.

ARRACAN. See BARRA.

ARRACISSA, a sea-port town of Brazil, in the captainship of Pernambuco. It is esteemed the strongest maritime place in Brazil; overthrown James Lancaster, in 1595, with some English vessels, made himself master of the place, and obtained immense plunder. Since that time it has been greatly strengthened.

ARRAGON, a province of Spain, which before the union with Castile, in the person of Charles V. was governed by its own king and laws. The kingdom of Arrago comprised the provinces of Valencia, Catalonia, and Mallorkin; but Arragon proper is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, on the east by Catalonia and Valencia, by New Castile on the south, and by Navarre on the west. According to these boundaries, Arragon is not less than 240 miles in length, and about 160 in breadth. The name of Arragon has by some been derived from a small and obscure river of the same name; but as the province contains some of the finest rivers in Spain, as the Ebro, Xalon, the Cinca, it seems unlikely that it should have taken its name in preference from a stream; which, except from the accident of its appellation, would hardly have been noticed. The more common derivation is from the Roman province of Tarraconensis, by dropping the first letter, in the same way as the name of

Aedalousia is derived from Vandallia, or Vandelousia. Arrago enjoys a pure and sweet climate, but the great disadvantage under which it labours, is the want of water; a peculiarity the more remarkable, as there is no province of Spain through which so many and such large rivers take their course. It is only the districts near these that are susceptible of general cultivation; all the rest of the province being either parched and sandy, or else a rocky and mountainous tract, the wealth of which consists wholly in mines, which in this part of Spain are very abundant. It is said that in the time of the Romans the mines of Arragon were an object of great attention; and the remains of silver mines may still be found. Copper, lead, and iron, however, are extremely plentiful; and the Arragonese blades, of which Martial and Pliny speak, were celebrated to a late time. The cobalt, salt, and alum, of Arragon, are still in high repute, as is also its marble. The natural history of this province is only peculiar from the number of wild beasts, which infest it, in greater numbers than are to be found in any other part of Europe. The black bear, the lynx, the wolf, are commonly met with in the mountains towards the Pyrenees. The principal commercial wealth of the province is derived from its wool, of which large quantities used annually to be exported. The sum total of exports has lately been estimated at £230,000. The population is about 630,000, of which 10,000 were ecclesiastics, and 9000 belonged to the privileged class of noblesse. The chief town is Saragossa, a place that distinguished itself, by a most obstinate and courageous defence against the French, during the late peninsular war.

ARRAGONITE, in mineralogy, a species of mineral, which was, until lately, supposed to consist only of carbonic acid and lime, and in the same proportions in which those substances occur in common carbonate of lime. Its crystalline form, however, being incompatible with that of carbonate of lime, it was conjectured that some of its constituent elements had escaped the researches of former chemists. A new analysis was therefore undertaken by Stromeyer, who succeeded in detecting carbonate of strontian as one of its component parts. A translated notice of this discovery was published in the *Annals of Philosophy*, vol. iv. p. 244. The proportion of carbonate of strontian is asserted by Stromeyer to be chemically combined, and to be constant and definite.

The name of Arragonite was given to this substance from its having been first discovered in Molina, in Arragon, near a spot called *el salto del fraile*; it has since been found in many other parts of Europe.

It does not generally occur in masses of sufficient size to be applicable to any purposes of art; the large sarcophagus, however, recently brought from Egypt by Belzoni, and now deposited in the British Museum, is said to be arragonite. See MINERALOGY.

ARRAIGN, } Ad rationem, ponere, arraisonner,
ARRAIGNMENT, } and by contraction, arrainer (arriser and arraisner.) Vide Du Cange.

To arraign, is nothing else but to call the prisoner to the bar of the court, to answer the matter charged upon him in the indictment. This word in Latin, (Lord Hale says,) is no other than *ad rationem ponere*; and in French, *al reson*, or abbreviated a *reso*. Vide Blackstone's Comment. vol. iv. p. 392, and note.

ARRA-
GON.
—
AR-
RAIGN.

AR-
RAIGN.
—
ARRAN.

To whom also was assenting, sir Richard Scrop than treasurer of England, & sir Thomas Gray knight, were there arrested for treason, & arraigned, or so exannoyed 'pon y^e same, that the xxix day of July following they were there all the beheadyd.

Foljens.

And although the Erie of Arundell upon his arraignment pleaded his charter of pardon, he could not be heard, but was in most vile and shameful manner solely put to death.

Grafton, v. l.

The arraignment of a lover.
At beauties bare as I dyd stande,
When false suspect accused mee,
George (quod the Judge) holde up thy hande,
Thou art arraigned of battreye:
Tell therefore howe thou wylt bee tryde:
Whose judgement here wyll thou abyde.

Gaucoigne.

As for David George, and Seruete the Arrian, and etliche other the like, they were yowis, M. Hardinge, they were not of vs; you brought them up, the one in Spaine, the other in Flanders. We detected their heresies, and not yow, we arraigned them, and we condemned them: we putte them to the execution of the lawes.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

The late Marquis of Montrose, being betrayed by a lord in whose house he lay, was brought prisoner of war to Edinburgh; then the common hangman sent him at the town-end, and first pull'd off his hat, then he forced him up to a cart, and hurried him like a condemned person, tho' he had not been arraign'd, much less convicted, through the great street and brought him before the parliament.

Howell's Letters.

Then all thy saints assembl'd, thou shalt judge
Bad men and angels, they arraign'd shall sink
Beneath thy sentence; tell her numbers fall
Therewith shall be for ever shut.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iii.

When the day was come of his arraignment, I can find in no author, what was objected against the prisoner by his accusers, directly tending to prove the crime of aspiring to a kingdom.

Holland's Levy.

The dictator had absolute power and authority to imprison and put to death whom he thought good, without ordinary course of law or arraignment.

North's Pasture.

Home as they went, the mad discourse renew'd,
Of the restless dance to death pursu'd,
And of the sight obscure so lately view'd;
None durst arraign the righteous doom she bore;
E'en they who play'd most, yet blam'd her more:
The parallel they needed not to name,
But in the dead, they dam'd the living dame.

Dryden. Theodore and Hamelin.

Down, down, proud setre: tho' a realm he spoil'd,
Arraign no nightier thief than wretched Wild.

Pope. Epilogue to the Satires.

Censure, which arraigns the public actions and the private motives of princes, has ascribed to every, a conduct, which might be attributed to the prudence and moderation of Hadrian.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

One part, one little part, we dimly see,
Thro' the dark medium of life's feverish dream;
Yet dare arraign the whole stupendous plan,
If but that little part incongruous seem.

Beattie's Minstrel.

ARRAN, anciently Brundinon, an island on the west coast of Scotland, near the mouth of the river Clyde, 30 miles in length, by from 8 to 11 in breadth, and containing a superficial area of 165 square miles, or 105,814 acres, of which about 14,431 are cultivated. The surface is diversified by mountains and vallies, one of the former, Goatfell, rising, according to trigonometrical measurement, 2895 feet above the level of the sea. Marble, jasper, agates, cairngorms,

ARRAN.

and a fine species of rock crystal, commonly called the Arran Diamond, are found here. There are five small lakes in the island, from which two streams have their source. On the coast also are two good harbours, Lamnish and Loch Ransa; besides commodious small ones, some of which were lately formed. The island is intersected with excellent roads, lately made under the direction of parliamentary commissioners. A few red deer, the remains of a numerous breed, are said to find shelter still among the mountains; and goats, though exceedingly destructive to the plantations, are yet harboured there. The cattle and sheep were formerly small, but a larger breed of both has been lately introduced. Black cock and other species of grouse are plentiful. Serpents, of which three species have been described, abound; but it is not said that their bite is mortal, although productive of serious injury both to men and cattle. Shoals of salmon, herring, and white fish, frequent the shores in such abundance, that a fishing establishment, which has been since given up, was begun here, for the purpose of supplying the Glasgow market with fish. The ordinary herring fishery is still a profitable occupation, there being at least 900 fishing vessels, well manned and properly fitted out, belonging to the island, employed in it. The stile of agriculture, however, in this island, was formerly extremely rude and disadvantageous, and agricultural implements very imperfect, but the improved system of agriculture, in all its branches, is now generally practised. Most of the high land was at one time a common, which afforded a scanty subsistence to the cattle during summer; and although a considerable number were exported, some are said to have perished during the winter for want of food. The whole of the cultivated land is now subdivided and enclosed, and the hills laid out in sheep walks. Small patches of flax are cultivated, and an inconsiderable quantity of linen, and some woollens, are manufactured. Most of the inhabitants evince a strong attachment to their island, a propensity for the sea, and a decided aversion to a military life. The Gaelic was formerly the universal language; but English is now becoming general, and 12 schools for teaching this language are established throughout the island. Arran is divided into two parishes, Kilhride and Kilnory; and its principal town, or rather village, is Lamnish. Conjoined with Bute, it forms a county under the name of the latter. There is a castle at Brodick, in Arran, close to the sea, which was garrisoned, in the reign of Edward II. by Sir John Hawkins, and taken by Bruce; it was afterwards garrisoned by Cromwell; but the inhabitants, exasperated by the conduct of the soldiers, are said to have attacked and killed the whole when without the walls. There is another castle at Lochvanza, built by king Robert II. for a hunting seat. A tradition prevails that Christianity was introduced here by St. Molios, a disciple of St. Columba, who prohibited the presence of females on the island of Lamnish, where he resided, and where his cave, a rude altar, and his well, are still shown. It is also reported that Ossian passed his latter years and died on Arran. The island has been several centuries in possession of the family of the dukes of Hamilton. Population 6754.

ARRAN, (erroneously IRAN or ER-RAN.) The north

ARRAY.

The time of underne of the same day
Appereth, that this wedding shoulde be,
And all the peles put was in array.

Id. The Clerk's Tale, v. l. p. 328.

Then the Normans imbatel'd y^e footmen, and sette horsmen
for wynges on every syde, by which the Englyshe men
were desceyred, and some out of array, and the Normans
toured agayne upon the Englyshe men, & slewe theym downe
on every syde.

Falgon.

And yet mine another, as it is skill
To follow, I must let her ornament
She was full nice, soulden like to spill
As nice in countenance yet as in garment.

Chaucer. The Remede of Loue, fol. 323. c. 4.

Also arrayment in like wise as al other things ought to be re-
ferred to the husbands will, if he like simple arrayment, let her be
content to weare it.

The Instruction of a Christian Woman, by Fiers.

I shal leaue him for his part a whyte in the myre, in which
hymselfe hath couerthrowen his matter, and shall shew you shortly
how angrily he ryeth vp, and royally rayed in dyte.

Sir T. More, fol. 614. c. 1.

And vp I rose three houres after twelve,
About the springing of the day,
And on I put my gown and mine array,
And to a plessure groue I gan passe,
Long or the bright sonne vp risen was.

Chaucer. The Flower and the Leaf.

When chaunticleer the second watch had sung,
Scorning the scornee sleep from bed I sprung.
And dressing, by the moon, in loose array
Fam'd out in open air, preventing day,
And sought a goodly grove as fancy led my way.

Dryden. The Flower and the Leaf.

The Duke of Yorke is newly come from Ireland,
And with a puissant and a mighty power
Of gallow-glasses and stout kersey,
is marching hitherward in proud array.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. part ii. fol. 142.

Dele vp your teares, and sticke your rosemarie
Of this faire course, and as the custom is,
And in her best array beare her to church.

Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet, fol. 73.

—The gates wide op' stood,
That with extended wings a banner'd host
Under spread ensigns marching might pass through
With horse and chariots rank'd in loose array.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

In limp'd the blacksmith; after slept his queen,
Whose light arrayment was of lovely green.

F. Beaumont's Hermaprodite.

—The prime orb,
Incredible how swift, had thither row'd
Diurnal, or this less volub'd earth
By shorter flight to th' east, had left him there
Array'd with reflected purple and gold
The clouds that on his western throne attend.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iv.

A prudent chief not always must display
His pow'r in equal robus, and their array,
But with th' occasion and the place comply,
Conceal his force, say seem sometimes to fly.

Pope. Essay on Criticism.

A mountain is an object of grandeur; and its dignity receives
new force by mixing with the clouds; and arraying itself in the
majesty of darkness.

Gilpin's Tour in the Lakes.

The strength of the phalanx depended on sixteen ranks of long
pikes, wedged together in the closest array.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

And toward the western sun a streamlet fell,
Where, thro' the cliffs, the eye remote survey'd
Blue hills, and glittering waves, and skies in gold array'd.

Beattie's Poems.

VOL. XVI.

ARRAY.

In Law array is an old French word, signifying the
army or setting forth a jury impanelled to try
a cause. To challenge the array is to except against
all the persons arrayed or impanelled.

ARRE'AR, ^m Fr. arriere, from ad retro. Menage.
ARRE'AR, ^v To the rere or back; to back, to go
ARRE'AR, (or come back or behind; to put or
ARRE'AR, drive back; to remain behind.

Forth went kaysh & soeyn, & fote men alle in fere,
þe Walch com þam arýn, ðat our men alle arere,
þat turyng þer rathank, as þey was þe charge,
Vnder þam alle sank, both batelle & barge.

R. Gloucester, p. 241.

My blaspheming now haue I bought ful drewe
All earthly ioy and mirth I set arere;
Also this day, also this wofull tide
Whan I began with my Goddes to chide.

Chaucer. The Testament of Cresseid, fol. 196. c. 3.

For yet saw I never man that was of thy manere;
Sometime thou wilt erre, and some tyme arere;
Now thou wilt, and now thou wilt.

The Merchant's Second Tale in Chaucer.

Till be a man both overthowe,
Shall no man knowe by his chere,
Whiche is awant, and whiche arere.

Gower. Con. d. book iii.

Not with such friendly face
And brow of gladsome cheare
As eunt this hadst: those lovely looks
and blinks are all arere.

Turberville.

His lordes shepe, his arte, and his delite,
His swine, his horn, his store, and his pultrie,
Were holly to this reue governing,
And by his covenant yare he rekening,
Sin that his lord was twenty yere of age;
Ther coude no man bring him in arere.

Chaucer. The Princesse, v. l. p. 25.

Selde failleþ þe seruant, so depe to arreyge
As doþ þe reyre oþþe controller, þat rekene mot and accounte
Of al þat þat haueu hold.

The Vision of Petrus Plachman, p. 199.

As the lieutenant returned with a great bootie to the counsell,
one Athenagoras a captain under the king, charged upon the tails
of the arreygards, disordered the hindmost, and impached their
passage over the river.

Holland's Livy.

[Cato] rode himselfe to the second legion which was in the
arreygards for supply, and commanded to aduance the standards
and ensignes before him, to march apace, and to approach the
camp of the enemies for to give an assault.

Holland's Livy.

For they being always accustomed to pay their yearly rent as it
went before, by the help of the rest of the state that followed
after; perceiving now that they should not be able to pay the
arreygards of the rent due to the Commonwealth, and seeing no
other remedy, they prayed him to take a piece of money, and to
leave the bargain.

North's Plutarch.

And thus dividing of my fatal hours,
The payments of my love, I read, and cross,
Substrating, set my sweets into my soures,
My joy's arreygards leads me to my loss.

Dryden's Ideas.

LARCHANT. All these have serv'd against the heretics
And therefore beg your grace you would remember
Their wounds, and lost arreygards.

Dryden's Duke of Guise.

From hence it follows, that supposing the wicked should feel
the utmost severity of civil laws, yet there remains in another
world a dreadful array of misery to be endured as their just and
full recompence.

Bates. On the Immortality of the Soul.

50

ARREAR.

—

ARREST.

Well, I may make my will in peace and die,
For not one word in man's *arrear* am I;
To drop a dear dispute I was unable
Er'n tho' the Pope himself had sat at table.
Pope. The Wife of Bath.

For much I dread due payment by the Greeks
Of yesterday's *arrear*; since yonder chief,
Inactive now, will, likelest, feel again
His thirst for battle and regain the fight.
Couper's Hild, book xiii. p. 343.

ARRE'CT, v. } Arrigo, arrectum, to set up, to
ARRECT, adj. } raise.

Princes most posant of high pre-eminence
Browned lady above the sterry heurn
All other transference of very conourse
Madam regent of the sciences sayn
To whose astute all noblesse most leuen
My supplication to you I *arrect*.
Shelton's Poems, p. 237.

ARRE'PTION, arripio, arreptus, from adj; and
rapio, to seize, to snatch.

This *arreption* was sudden; yet Elisha sees both the chariot,
and the horses and the ascent.

Sp. Hall's Contemplations.

ARREPTITIOUS, arretzilio, It. from arreptitius,
from arreptus. Menage.

Arreptitius, qui arripit, vel arripitur, sicut demoniacus, et arreptitia dicuntur demoniaci. Du Cange.
Mad, crackbrained.

They stick not to term their predictions of Christ to be mere
mock oracles, and odd *arreptions*, fantastic extravagancies.
Hewell's Letters.

ARRE'ST, v. } Arrestare, Ital. Arrestar, Fr.
ARREST, n. } Arrestieren, Ger.

To stop, to stay, to retain, to detain, to seize, to
apprehend, from the A. S. *restan*, to rest, to be or put
at rest, to still.

And forth o'er rode a little more than pas,
Unto the watering of Saint Thomas:
And their our hosts began his hors *arrest*,
And saide; lookest, herewith if you list.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. i. p. 34.

This fals knight in his deverye
Arrested was, and put in hald.
Gower. Gen. A. book ii.

Now in the meane season, did master Tyrell ride to London,
and founde y^e messas that the Cardinal sent downe doctor
Capen, and a sergeant of armes, called Gybbs, which did *arrest*
mee in the universite, for to appeare before your graces counsell.
Barnes.

He [Richard the First] returned againe into England, and
landed at Sandwiche, and so came to London, where, when he
had *arrested* him a little while, he then rode with a certaine num-
ber of knightes to Nottingham, and wanne the castell by force.
Grafton, v. i.

And truly it sit wel to be so,
That bocheriers have often prynces and wo;
On broyl ground they bide, and bocheriers
They finden, whan they wene thynne;
They live but as a bird or as a beate,
In libertee and under non *arreste*.
Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. l. p. 374.

gas ones quai he ich was yherborwed. w^t an hep of chapmen
Ich aros and rifled here malen. wene y^e a rote were.
The Platen of Peter Plowman, p. 99.

And by the well, when the gas her drame
Alan, than cometh a wild lioness
Out of the wode, withouten more *arreste*
With bloody mouth.
Chaucer. The Legend of Good Women, fol. 201, c. 4.

Consent to pay thee that I never had:—
Arrest me foolish fellow if thou dar'st.
Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors, fol. 93.
Kne. ——— Or you prout it, He repay it backe,
Or yield up Aquitaine.
PRIN. Wa *arrest* your word.
Shakespeare's Lear's Labour's Lost, fol. 127.

Then by my honesty he shall briefly make his *arrest* in the yard,
in despite of his wonderful birth and famous adventures.
Shelton's Trane. Don Quixote. ed. 1652.

No more a lover but a mortal foe,
I seek her life (for love is none below:)
As often as my days with better speed
Arrest her flight is she to death decreed.
Dryden's Fables.

——— Well skill'd we be to
To rouse and with unerring sin *arrest*
All savage kinds that haunt the mountain wilds.
Couper's Hild, book v. p. 74.

Thus shall the suns of science sink away,
And thus of beauty fade the fairest flower,
For where's the giant who to time shall say,
Destructive tyrant, I *arrest* thy power.
Walcut. To my Candle.

ARREST, in Common Law, is defined to be the execution
of the command of some court of record, or officer
of justice, by which a man's person is constrained or
imprisoned. This, however, is correct only so as to ar-
rests in civil cases. In criminal cases of treason,
felony, or breach of the peace, private persons may
arrest without warrant or precept. By 51 Geo. III.
c. 124, § 3, no person can be arrested or held to
bail upon process, unless the cause of action be £15.
or upwards, except upon bills of exchange. When a
person has committed treason or felony, doors may be
broken and an entrance forced; but not in civil cases,
except it be in pursuit of one arrested.

Arrest of Judgment, is to shew cause why judgment
should be stayed, notwithstanding a verdict given.

ARRETON, or ARREXTON, in the south east half
hundred of east Medina liberty, in the Isle of Wight,
county of Southampton; a discharged Vicarage,
valued in the King's Books at £21; Patron, J.
Fleming, Esq. The resident population of this parish
in 1801, was 1374. The money raised by the parish
rates in 1803, was £760. 19s. 6d., at 2s. 6d. in the
pound. It is 3 miles S. E. from Newport.

ARRIDE, adrideo, to smile upon, from ad, and
rideo; which is of unsettled etymology.

To wear a smiling or pleasing aspect; to please, to
gratify.

PAST. 'Fore heavens, his humour *arrides* me exceedingly.
CAR. *Arrides* you?
PAST. I, please me (a pos on't) I am so hearted at the court,
and at my lodging, with your refined choice spirits, that it makes
me cleane of another garbe, another shade, I know not how! I
cannot frame mee to your harsh vulgar phrase, 'tis against my
grains.
B. Jonson. Every Man out of his Humour.

HEN. I made this ditty, and the note to it, upon a kisse that my
lamer gave me; how like you it, sir?
ANO. A pretty syre; in general, I like it well; but in particu-
lar, your long die-note did *arride* me most, but it was somewhat
too long.

Ben. Jonson's Cynthia's Revels.

ARRIEGE, a river of France, which rises among
the Pyrennees in the county of Foix, and discharges
itself into the Garonne. It is navigable as high as
Saverdun, and gold has been found in several parts
of it, near Pamiers. This river gives its name to n

ARREST.

—

ARRIEGE.

—

ARRIEGE, department, which includes the ancient governments of Foix, Couserans, and a portion of Languedoc. The population of this department is about 222,000, and it contains a superficies of 944 square leagues. The principal towns are Foix, which is the capital of the department, St. Girons, Pamiers, Ax, Tarascon, and Mirepoix. The surface of the country is wild and mountainous, and chiefly occupied in pasture. The corn which it grows is not sufficient for its home consumption. But its mines are productive; and it is principally in iron, turpentine, pitch, cork, resin, and other natural produce of that kind, that its trade consists.

ARRINGTON, (anciently Erminton,) is the hundred of Wetherley, county of Cambridge; a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £7. 6s. 3d.; Patron, Trinity College, Cambridge. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 190. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £95. 4s. 5½d., at 2s. 6d. in the pound. It is ½ mile S. E. from Caxton. The Petty Sessions are holden here.

ARRIVE, { Arrivare, It. Ariver, Fr. com-
Aas'val, } mostly derived from the unused Lat.
Aas'vance, } adipiare, that is ad ripam appellere, to come to a bank, or shore, venire alla riva. But probably the It. arrivare, the Fr. ariver, the English arrive, have the same origin as the Latio, derivo, are, the It. derivare, the Fr. derivier, the English derive, viz. from the Latin rivus, the Greek Pev, to flow. Arrive and derive may then be considered as much in opposition as ascend and descend.

Essequatur inde quam solennis derivatio esset. Liv. i. v. c. 15.

Then went he on still, and shewed what was the solemn and right manner of deriving the water. Holland's *Travels*.

Arrive will then mean to flow to, to sail to; and more generally to come to, to reach, to attain.

Je ferpe yer jut he hadde emperour y he
Mid grei out he wende here to jua londe,
Aboute Soujhamtū he a rynde ich vaderstonde.
po kyng Guyder vaderget, jut heo a rinde jere,
Hym Jongeic long mid ys out or he at hem were.

R. Gloucester, p. 62.

When he had repaid foure jere, one rynde upon his right,
A dake of Danmark, Kébrist he hight.

R. Brunne, p. 10.

Jue nice schippers kan ride jor wylt wind jūm drive,
Jei re wiat to wat rīde, ne wat haen in to rise.

Id. p. 149.

The fift sorrow jor after com, when William conqueurour,
Jut rynded on jis lōnd, Harold he slouk in stoure.

Id. p. R.

O wain of life to hem that go or ride
Hauens after tempest surst up to rise
On me howe mercede for thy ioyes fine.

Chaucer, *Ballade of our Lady*, fol. 330. c. 1.

The saw I eke all the arivante
That Eneas had made in Italie
And with king Latin his treute.

Chaucer, *Pamie*, book 1. fol. 277. c. 2.

But after that, as it be shulde,
Fre then he goth toward Italye
By ship, and there his arrivayie
Hath take, and shope jere for to ride.

Geuey. *Cen. A.* book iv.

And forth he goth, as sought he were
To Troie, and was the firste there,
Whiche landeth, and take arrivie.

Id. Ib.

The first [opinion] is that of Aristotle, drawn from the increment and perfection of this animal (the dove) that is, its sudden arrivance into growth and maturity, and the small time of its remainder in the womb.

Brown's *Vulgar Errors*.

—Who shall spread his arrie flight
Upborn with indefatigable wings
O'er the vast abrupt, ere we arrive
The happy ile.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book ii.

Known upon like misfortune, having fled his country, yet aspiring by the fatal direction of the destinies to greater affairs, came first into Macedonic, and after into Sicily, seeking an abiding place; and sailing with a fleet from Sicily, arrived at length, and landed in the country of Laurentum.

Holland's *Livy*.

When we act prudently, we have no reason to be disheartened; because, having good intentions, and using fit means, and having done our best, as no deserved blame, no considerable damage can arrive to us.

Burrow's *Sermons*.

It is a wonderful thing, and worthy the observation, in fleas, that a fly-maggot, in five days' space after it is hatched, arrives at its full growth and perfect magnitude.

Ray on the *Creation*.

Two friends, or brothers, with devout intent,
On some far pilgrimage together went.
It happen'd so that when the sun was down,
They just arriv'd by twilight at a town.

Dryden's *Fables*.

ALPH. Our watchmen, from the tow'rs, with longing eyes
Expect his swift arrival.

Dryden's *Spanish Fryar*.

Not that any man ever satisfied himself in the principles of infidelity, or was able to arrive to a steady and unshaken persuasion of the truth of them, so as not vehemently to doubt and fear the contrary.

Tillotson's *Sermons*.

In the epistles of St. Paul, St. Peter, and St. James, we find frequent mention of the coming of our Lord, in terms which, like those of the text, may at first seem to imply an expectation in those writers of his speedy arrival.

Hersley's *Sermons*.

ARROBA, 1. major or cántaro, a Spanish measure for wine, brandy, and honey. 1 m b azumbres=32 quartillos=505.5 arroba menor's, used for measuring oil=626.8 cubic inches of Paris measure. At Malaga it is equal 794 cubic inches, Paris measure. 2. A Spanish weight=25lb. avoirdupois.

ARROE, a small but fruitful island in the Baltic, containing three parishes and a population of about 7500. It is situated to the S. W. of Fumen. Long. 10° 30' E. Lat. 54° 53' N.

ARADE, a cluster of small islands in the Red Sea; they consist of one large and five small islands.

ARROGATE, { Arrogó, arrogatum, from ad,
A'ARODANCE, } and rogo; from ῥέγω, to stretch
A'AROGANT, } out, to reach after, to seek after.
A'AROGANTLY, } To seek after, ask, require,
A'ARODATION, } claim, demand.
A'AROGATIVE, } Arrogant; what arrogates too
undue demands. } much; makes unjust pretensions;

This place [Math. xvi.] the bysshops & priests not understanding, doe arrogate unto themselves some thing of the Phariseis pride; forasmuch as they think they may condemn innocents, or release sinners.

An Epitome of Bernard's Works, fol. 371.

But for ye speken of swiche gentleness,
As is decreed out of old richesne,
That therefore shulles ye be gentlines;
Swiche arragance u's not worth an hen.

Chaucer, *The Wife of Bathes Tale*, v. l. p. 274

ARRO-
GATE.

If a wise man well warned, aduisedly will way the sentence, he shall find the bole looks nothing else, but faded vnder pretence of playnesse, crucitie vnder the cloke of pietie, and in the colour of counsaile, proud arrogancie vnder y^e name of supplication.

Sir Tho. More's Works, fol. 296. c. 1.

Arrogant is he that thinketh that he hath those honours in him, that he hath not, or woe that he should have been by his deserting, or elles that deneth that he be that he is not.

Chaucer. The Pervous Tale, v. il. p. 312.

Which for none other purpose exalt eth of the for their part the dignity of their own apostle, but because themselves would be had in greater estimation, judging in this case as foolishly of themselves, as of them in whose behalfe they doe arrogantly bragge and crake.

Udall. I Corin. c. 4.

To be assured of our salvation, S. Augustine saith, it is no arrogant stoutness: it is our faith, it is no pride: it is devotion, it is no presumption: it is Goddes promise.

Jerol's Epistles of the Apologie.

Where shall the blood of those millions of sinners, which miscarried through this arrogant usurpation, be required, but at those hands, who would rather chase the world should perish, than their crest should fall?

Bp. Hall's Peace Maker.

— Pride hath no other glasse

To show itselfe, but pride: for simple knowes

Fewe arrogancie, and see the proud man's face.

Shakespeare's Troilus and Cressida, fol. 92.

Had not good warrant for so high a challenge, it could be no less than a blasphemous arrogancie, to lay claim to the royal blood of heaves.

Bp. Hall's Christ Mystical.

According to Chrysostome, the sequel of riches is pride, riot, intemperance, arrogancie, fury, and all irreverent courses.

Bernon's Anatomy of Melancholy.

To exclude all power of desall, seems an arrogancie, least of all becoming those who pretend to make their addresses in a humble and loyal way of petitioning.

Edon Basilike.

Not seeing humilitie and self denyal, and acknowledgement of their own unworthiness of such things as they aimed at, nor mortification, not of the body (for that's sufficiently insisted upon) but of the more spiritual arrogant life of the soul, that maketh ascribing to ourselves that is God's, for all in God's.

Notes annexed to More's Poems.

The particulars of this new arrogancie of Rome are so many, that they cannot be put up in a strait room. I only instance in some few. The Pope's infallibility of judgement.

Hall's Pastoral Works.

— Till one shall rise

Of proud ambitious heart, who not content

With fair equalitie, fraternal state,

Will arrogate dominion undeserv'd

Over his brethren, and quite dispose

Concord and law of nature from the earth.

Milton's Par. Lost, book xil.

These the common people of wit blow up with their breath of praise, and honour with the sacred name of poets: to which, as I believe, they can sever have any just claims, so shall I not dare by this way to lay any title, since more serious and oyle be most spend who shall arrogate so excellent attributes.

Habington. The Author.

It had perhaps been easier enough for me to have arrogated more to myself than was my due in the writing of this play.

Dryden's Pref. to Tempest.

The half-lettered are forward, and arrogate to themselves what a modest studious man dares not, tho' he knows more.

William's Religion of Nature.

Is it not monstrous arrogancie for us, in derogation to his will, to pretend giving law, or picking a station to ourselves.

Bernon's Sermons.

Whether my expectations are most fixed on pardon or praise, I think it not necessary to discover: for having accurately weighed the reasons for arrogancie and submission, I find them so nearly

equiponderant, that my impatience to try the event of my first performance will not suffer me to attend any longer to the tripudiations of the balance.

Rambler, No. 1.

Arrogance is always offensive; because in demanding more than its due (for this meaning appears in the etymology of the word) it manifests a petulant and injurious disposition, that disdains to be controlled by good breeding or any other restraint.

Boswell's Moral sciences.

ARROO, or ARRAU ISLES. See ARRU.

ARROTINO, L., in Sculpture, is a celebrated statue in the gallery of the great duke of Florence. It represents an old man resting upon one knee, and whetting a knife upon a stone, with his head in an attitude of listening, as if cautious not to be observed. The head and hair of this statue have been much admired.

ARROW, } A. S. *arwe*, from Ger. *arvian*, to pre-
A'arow. } pare, to make ready, to dress; q. d. prepared for battle. Skinner.

Applied to any material.

Prepared, dressed, to be shot from a bow.

Myd *arwes* & myd *quarrels* so much folk first me slow,
And *mye* with *spere* amytos a down, but deed was ynow.
R. Glouceter, p. 48.

A sheaf of peacecock arrows bright and keen

Under his belt he bare full thriffully.

Wd coude he drawe his takel remany.

His *arwes* drouped not with fetheres lowe,

And in his hand he bare a mighty bowe.

Chaucer. The Prologue, vi. p. 5.

And ten broad *arrows* held he there

(If which first in his hand were

But they were shaven well and dight

Nocked and fethered a right.

Id. Remant of the Rose, fol. 120. c. 3.

And this (how) best he close laid downe and bad his soldiers hold

Their shields before him; lest the Greekes (discerning him)

In tumults, ere the Spartan king could be his *arrows* prize.

Meane space, with all his care he chos'd, and from his quiver drew

An *arwe*, fethered best for flight, and yet that never flew;

Strong loaded and most apt to pierce; thus took he up his bow,
And nockt his shaft; the ground whence all their future griefe

did grow.

Chapman's Homer's Iliad, book iv.

This, by the Greeks unseen, the warrior breeds,

Scree'd by the shields of his surrounding friends,

There meditates the mark; and croning low,

Flies the sharp *arwe* to the well-strung bow.

One from a hundred feather'd deaths he chose,

Fated to wound, and cause of future woe.

Pope's Homer's Iliad, book iv.

— My *arrows*

Two slightly timber'd for so loud a winde,

Would have recoer'd to my bow againe,

And not where I had aim'd them.

Shakespeare's Hamlet, fol. 275.

This county, in fashion, is like a breasted bowe, the sea making the back, the rivers Wolland and Humber the two horns thereof, while Trent hangeth down from the latter like a broken string, as being somewhat the shortest. Such perrecute the metaphor too much, who compare the river Witham (whose curvatur is crooked) into the *arwe* crossing the middle thereof.

Fulter's Worthies. Lincolnshire.

— For this day will your downe,

If I conjecture aspert, no drifling show'e,

But rattling storm of *arrows* barb'd with fire.

Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

Mean time the virgin-huntress was thus slow

T^e exact the shaft from her instructed bow;

Beneath his ear the fowler's arrow stood,

And from the wound appear'd the trickling blood.

Dryden's Fables.

ARRH-
GATE.

— ARROW.

ARROW.
ARSE-
NAL

—As the freshy snows
Fall frequent, on some wintry day, when Jove
Hath rid's to shed them on the race of man,
And show his arrowy stores.

Cæsar's Dead, book xii.

ARROW, in Alcester division, in the hundred of Bortholway, county of Warwick, in the parish of Arrow, a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £10 10s 7½d. Patron, the Marquis of Hertford. The resident population of this hamlet, in 1801, was 945. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £345. 12s 1½d, at 6s. in the pound. It is 1 mile S.W. from Alcester.

ARROW-GRASS. See *TRIGLOCHIN*.

ARROW-HEAD. See *SAGITTARIA*.

ARROW-ROOT. See *MARANTA*.

ARROWAUKS, ARUACS, or ARAUACS, are a distinct race of people who live on the Atlantic, between the mouth of the Orinoko and Cape Nassau, and are supposed to be the aborigines of the original inhabitants of the West India islands. For an account of their manners and institutions, see Edwards's *History of the West Indies*, vol. i. 60. and Stedman's *Narrative of a Voyage to Surinam*.

ARRU, or ARRAU, (ARROO, AROU,) islands; five small islands on the western coast of Pupia, or New Guinea, 7° S. lat. 135° E. long. They are principally remarkable as being the place where the birds of Paradise, (or *manuk dewata's*, i. e. divine birds,) are principally found. Some, if not all the species of that remarkable family, breed in Pupia, and migrate with the western monsoon to the Arru Isles, where they remain during the whole of the dry season. Sago, the dried pulp of the *Sagrus*, or *Gomutus*, Rumphii, is the chief produce of these islands. The natives are negroes and quite uncivilized; they make frequent incursions on their neighbours the Papuans. See Forrest's *Voyage to New Guinea*. Valentyn's *Oud en Nieuw oost-Indien*. Buffon, *Hist. des Oiseaux*, ed. de Sonnini, p. 345, &c.

ARSACIDÆ, the name given to the kings of Parthia, from Arsaces, the founder of the monarchy. Blair dates his death at 945 n. c. and his dynasty continued till a. n. 929.

ARSANE, a town of Palestine, in which Aas king of Israel was buried, according to Josephus. *Antiq.* viii. 6.

'ARSENAL, a word of unsettled etymology. Junius conjectures that it is contracted from the It. arce navale. "An armoury, a store-house of armour; artillery, shipping or ships." Cotgrave.

This L. Quintus, the only hope of the Romans, the man who was to set upright their empire now distressed, occupied them a piece of ground, to the quantity of some four acres, called to this day *Quintus prato*, i. e. Quintus his meadow, on the other side of the Tiber, over against that very place where now the arsenal and ship docks are, and there was hee found digging a ditch, and bearing hard on his spade, or else a plowing the ground, I wote not whether, but busie and earnest about some critical worke, no doubt he was.

Holland's Lucy.

Thence to the famous orators repair,
Those ancients, whose resolute eloquence
Winked at will that fierce democracy,
Shook the arsenals and fulmin'd over Greece
To Mæcenas, and Artaxerxes throne.

Milton's Par. Reg. book iv.

His wise providence hath made one country the granary, another the cellar, another the orchard, another the arsenal of their neighbours, yea, of the remotest parts.

Rp. Hall. Quo Fado? A Censure of Travel.

By thee entrusted with supreme command,
When thou art absent, to Placeron's port,
Late arsenal of Athens.

Glover's Athenaid, book iv.

ARSENIC.
ARSON.

ARSENIC, is one of the brittle metals, and it is so brittle, that it may be reduced to powder under the hammer; when struck, it exhales a powerful odour resembling gunick. Its fresh fracture is bluish grey to silver white, and brilliant; but by exposure to the air it speedily tarnishes, and becomes black.

It occurs chiefly in primitive rocks, not forming veins, but frequently accompanying other substances, particularly the ores of silver, lead, antimony, nickel, and cobalt.

It is found in the metallic state, sometimes as an oxide, and frequently in combination with sulphur. This combination is known under the names of orpiment and realgar.

Arsenic will combine with most of the metals, and communicates a white stain to copper when heated in contact with that metal; the oxide has an acrid taste, and is highly poisonous. It is however sometimes used in medicine, in dying, and in the manufacture of glass.

Orpiment and realgar are used almost exclusively as pigments; but in China, realgar is formed into vessels for medical purposes: these are filled with some vegetable acid, which, after remaining some time in them, is used as a remedy in certain diseases.

Arsenic is capable of combining with oxygen in two different proportions; with the first it forms an oxide, with the second an acid. In its acid state it combines with the metallic oxides, and produces arseniates; several of which occur naturally, and form an interesting class of minerals. See *CHEMISTRY* and *MINERALOGY*.

ARSENIC, in Pharmacy. The white oxide is directed by the London Pharmacopœia, to be sublimed, after which it is to be boiled with an equal weight of carbonate of potash, in order to form the liquor Arsenicalis, Fowler's Solution, or the Tasteless Ague Drop. This solution, which contains one grain of arsenic in two drams, is given in doses of a few drops in intermittent fevers, and in several eruptive diseases. Great caution is necessary in the exhibition of so dangerous a remedy. Arsenic has been used externally in cancer, lupus, &c. in form of an ointment. For an account of poison by arsenic, the reader is referred to art. POISON.

ARSHIN, the most common Russian measure of length=16 vershok=315 $\frac{1}{2}$ Paris lines. It is also a Chinese measure, but 1 Chinese arshin=309 Paris lines. 3 arshins=1 fathom, and 500 fathoms=1 verst.

ARSON, saddle-bow, arçon de la selle. Fr. arci-one. It. Barh. Lat. arcin. Thus traced by Menage, arcus, arcus, arcuo, arcyo, arcin, arcione, arçon, arzon.

Between the saddle and the arcon,
The stroke of that false giddy sword,
Withouten wren or wound.

Guy of Warwick, in Ellis, v. ii. p. 81.

ARSON, in Law, from ardeo, I burn; signifies the act of wilfully setting fire to a house or other property, belonging to others. If the house be a man's own, the act is not felony, and punishable with death, but only a great misdemeanor, and punishable by fine, imprisonment, or pillory.

ART.

ART.

A'RTFUL,
A'RTFULLY,
A'RTFULNESS,
A'RTISAN,
A'RTIST,
A'RTLESS,
A'RTLESSLY,
A'RTIFICER,
A'RTIFICER,
A'RTIFICIAL,
A'RTIFICIALLY.

Lat. ars. ars tye apert. Apert
proprie sit fortitudo; manly
strength or skill.
Power, ability, skill, science,
cunning.
Artifice is now commonly
applied where deception is in-
tended. And
Artful where an evil design
is imputed.

Of arts he had ye maistrie, he had a courtes kying
In Castelegie to be derie, or his brother were kying.
Sijon was never man of arts so hot sped,
Ne bifore hot on, jut in Castelegie red.

R. Brunne, p. 336.

In fawship wel coude she laughe and carpe
Of remedies of love she knew purchace,
For of that arte she coude the oide dance.

Chaucer, *The Prologue*, v. l. p. 20.

Of hem that ben artificers,
Whiche ven craftes and misters,
Whose arte is depeit mechanike.

Gower, *Con. A. book vii.*

And so ye see a thing made by artifice perier, and a natural
thing lost: I am in great feare, that after my death, he will tourne
that way that his mother hath childed him, and not as I have
nourished him.

The Golden Booke.

So that the capitayn named Zanneus was slayne with many
other, to the number of aviiid. & shone, as wytnesseth y^e
Frenshe booke, ever many whiche were taken prisoners of
poore men and artificers, for the multitude of y^e gentylmen were
upon the cryp partie.

Folys.

The mindes of the faithful shal be more refreshed, & filled wth
this luscious fode, thus admynistred by a simple person, then if y^e
superstitious Plurary, the arrogant philosopher, or eloquent
rhetorician, would for the aduancing and setting forth of the-
mesim make unto the people an artificia oration or sermon, whiche
they had diligently studied, & long time provided for aforehand.

I. dail. Mark, c. 6.

The sayle author sayth also that the sforaside Romanus had
a little coffer scarcely two fote long, mercynless artifically
wrought, which is yet sayth he) to be seene there, wherinn
gyanates seeme to fight, besetes do sterle and stirre, and fowles
flyng in the syre, and fishes swin in the water, without any
mannes moing or helpe.

Grafton, v. l.

I marvelle mucher, that M. Harding be so greot an artificer
in so small cases, had no better eile to his owne entrie.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

Adrine, the emperor, mortally envied poets, and painters, and
artificers in works, wherinn he had a vein to exel.

Bacon's Essay on Essay.

The broad circumference
Hung on his shoulders like the moon, whose orb
Through optic glass the Tuscan artist views
At er'ning from the top of Vesvile,
Or in Valdemar, to descry new lands,
Rivers, or mountains, in her spotted globe.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book i.

Standing on slippers, which his nimble haste
Had falsely thrust upon contrary fecte,
Told of a many thousand warlike Ficht,
That were embattled, and rank'd in kicot.
Another leane, vvasnash'd artificer
Cuts off his tale, and talks of Arthur's death.

Shakespeare's *King John*, fol. 16.

For the Ergane (that is to say, Minerva,) all artificers and arti-
ficers acknowledge and honour their patronesse, and not fortune.

Holland's *Plutarch's Merits*, fol. 191.

But amongst all other things, he most wonder'd at the infinite
number of lights and torches hang'd on the top of the house, giv-
ing light in every place, so artifically set and ordered by devices,

some round, some square: that it was the rarest thing to behold
that eye could discern, or that ever books could mention.

Nietz's *Plutarch*.

Studium they appear

Of arts that polish life, inventors rare,
Unmindful of their maker, though his Spirit
Taught them, but they his gifts acknowledg'd none.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book xi.

And Plato, in his *Theatetus*, noteth well, "That particulars
are infinite, and the higher generalities give no sufficient direc-
tion; and that the path of all sciences, which marketh the sciences
differ from the inexpert, is in the middle propositions, which in
every particular knowledge are taken from tradition and experi-
ence."

Bacon, *Of Learning*.

This, my lord, is the duchess Bianca, a wood-rous sweet pic-
ture, if you will observe with what singularity the artizans hath
strive to set forth each limb in exquisitest proportion, not missing
a hare.

Ford's *Love's Sacrifice*.

In the unity of time you find them so scrupulous, that it yet
remains a dispute among their poets, whether the *artificial* day
of twelve hours more or less, be not meant by Aristotle, rather
than the natural one of twenty-four.

Dryden's *Essay on Dramatick Poesie*.

But till some genius as universal as Aristotle, shall arise, who
can penetrate into all arts and sciences, without the practice of
them, I shall think it reasonable that the judgment of an *artificer*
in his own art, should be preferable to the opinion of another man.

Dryden's *Pref. to All for Love*.

Though an author's natural parts may make his book abundant
with wit, yet without the help of art, he will scarce make it free
from faults.

Boyle's *Occasional Reflections*.

For though he were too artful a writer to set down events in
exact historical order, for which Lucan is justly blam'd; yet are
all the most considerable affairs and persons of Rome compar'd
in this poem.

Dryden's *Life of Virgil*.

The art of the most skilful painter cannot so mingle and temper
his colours, as exactly to imitate or counterfeit the native ones
of the flowers of vegetables.

Ray on the Creation.

These, and such as these, are the hopes of hypocrites, which
Job elegantly compares to the spider's web, finely and artifically
wrought, but miserably thin and weak.

Tillotson's *Sermons*.

If workmen become scarce, the manufacturer gives higher wages,
but at first requires an increase of labour; and this is willingly
submitted to by the artizans, who can now eat and drink better,
to compensate his additional toil and fatigue.

Hume's *Essays*. Of Money.

An artful pope would certainly be glad to furnish a heap
with artists who would encourage him in raising shrines and
temples.

Walpole's *Anecdotes of Painting*.

No: we are polish'd now! the rural lass,
Whom once her virgin modesty and grace,
Her artless manners, and her neat attire,
So dignified, that she was hardly less
Than the fair shepherdess of old romance,
Is seen no more.

Cowper's *Tack*.

Another vice of age, by which the rising generation may be
alienated from it, is severity and censoriousness, that gives no
allowance to the fallings of early life, that expects artificeless
from childhood, and constancy from youth, that is presumptuous in every
command, and inexorable to every failure.

The Rambler.

Who, satisfied with only pencil'd scenes,
Pretend to the performance of a God
Th' inferior wonders of an artist's hand!

Cowper's *Perns*.

They were plain artless men, without the least appearance of
enthusiasm or credulity about them, and rather show than forward
to believe any thing extraordinary and out of the common course
of nature.

Pretzel's *Lectures*.

ART.

ART. — The seducer flattered himself that our Saviour, indignant at the doubts which he *artfully* expressed of his being the son of God, would be eager to give him, and all the multitude that beheld them, a most convincing proof that he was so.

Parsons's Lectures.

He who works from imagination—that is, he who culls from nature the most beautiful parts of her productions—a distance here, and there a fore ground, combines them *artificially*.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

Thus dream they, and contrive to save a God
Th' incumbrance of his own concerns, and spare
The great artificer of all that moves,
The stress of a continual art, the pain
Of unremitted vigilance and care,
As too laborious and severe a task.

Comper's Task.

Off to the beech's deep-embowering shade
Pensive and sad this hapless shepherd stray'd;
There told in artless verse his tender pain
To echoing hills and groves, but all in vain.

Beattie's Virgil, poet. ii.

Rise, sons of harmony, and hail the morn,
While warbling larks on russet pinions float.
Or seek at noon the woodland scenes remote,
Where the gay linnet caw'd from the hill.
O let them o'er with artificial note,
To please a tyrant, strain the little bill,
But sing what Heaven inspires, and wonder where they will.

Beattie's Minstrel.

Most *arte* require long study and application; but the most useful sort of all, that of pleasing, requires only the desire.

Chertfield's Maxims.

Art can never give the rules that make an *art*. This is, I believe, the reason why *artists* in general, and poets principally, have been confided in no narrow circle.

Barke, on the Sublime and Beautiful.

If I was a philosopher, says Montaigne, I would naturalise *art*, instead of *artificial* nature. The expression is odd, but the sense is good.

Bolingbroke's Works.

ARTA, or LARTA, a TOWN of European Turkey, in Albania; the see of a Greek archbishop, near a gulph to which it gives its name. The inhabitants, who are mostly Christians, are supposed to be about 7000. N. Lat. 39° 28'. E. Long. 21° 20'. This town is remarkable for its cathedral, built by Michael Ducas Comnenos, Emperor of Constantinople, which is said to have as many windows as there are days in the year; it is supported by above 300 marble pillars.

ARTA, a district of Albania, of which the chief town is on the shore of the Ionian sea. It is the site of the ancient Ambracia. Its population has been estimated at 20,000 souls. It is placed near a river of the same name, anciently Aracthus, in a fine and fertile country. Its trade consists principally in grain, wool, oil, tobacco, wool, and cotton. Vaudoucourt.

Dr. Holland's *Travels in Albania*.
ARTABA, an ancient measure of capacity, used by the Egyptians and Persians. The Persian artaba, according to Herodotus, was bigger than the Athenian medimnus, by three chenixes; from which it would appear to have contained about 166lbs. of wine or water, and 126lbs. of wheat. The Egyptian artaba was less than the Attic medimnus, and held about 133 pounds of water, and about 100lbs. of wheat.

ARTAXATA, in Ancient Geography, the capital of Armenia, and the residence of the Armenian kings. It was situated on an elbow of the river Araxes, and was considered so strong, that Lucullus, after the defeat of Tigranes, thought it useless to besiege it. At a subsequent period it was called Neronia, in honour

of Nero. Its ruins are shewn at a place called Ard-achant.

ARTE, the adjective artus, says Vossius, denotes the same as angustus, i. e. narrow.

To narrow, to constrain, to force.

And o'er all this, full moul'd more be thought
What for to speak, and what to holden in
And what to *arten*, her to lose be sought
And on a song alone right to beginne.

Chaucer's Troilus, book i. fol. 134. c. 2.

When I was young at XVIII year of age
Lusty and light desirous of plesance
Approaching on full sad and ripe courage
Lose arted mee to doe my obsequence
To his estate.

Id. The Court of Love, fol. 348. c. 4.

ARTEDIA, in Botany, a genus of umbelliferous plants, consisting of a single species, a native of the Levant.

ARTEMISIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Syngenesia, order Polygamia Superflua.
Generic character. Receptacle naked or subvillosus; pappus none; calyx imbricate, with rounded connivent scales; florets of the ray wanting.

The following are the most important species of this genus:—

A. Absinthium, Common Wormwood, leaves multipartite, hoary; flowers hemispherical, pendulous; receptacle hairy.

This well known plant has been employed in medicine for its bitter qualities, which reside chiefly in its essential oil. The subcarbonate of potash was formerly obtained from its ashes, whence the old name of salt of wormwood.

A. Abrotanum, or Southernwood, is commonly cultivated in gardens; it is a native of the south of Europe. The *A. Maritima*, and *A. Gallica*, (Sea Wormwood,) were formerly used for the same purposes as the *A. Absinthium*. The seeds of the *A. Santonica*, or Wormseed, have long been a popular remedy for worms.

This plant is a native of Tartary and Siberia, and the seeds are brought from the Levant.

ARTEMISIUM, in Ancient Geography, a promontory of Eubœa, on the northern side of the island, which is famous for the great naval victory gained by the Grecians over Xerxes.

ARTERY. } *Arteria, spiritus semita; artu te tuu*
ARTERIAL. } *Arterialis, spiritus semita.*

—Vainersall plodding, poysons vp

The nimble spirits in the arteries:

As motion and long during action tyres

The slowness vigour of the transires.

Shakespeare's Love's Labour's Lost, fol. 135.

As for the bone, or rather induration of the roots of the *arterial* vein, and great artery, which is thought to be found only in the heart of an old deer, and therefore becomes more precious in its rarity, it is often found in deer, much under thirty.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

He struggles, and he bears my aged trunk

With holy fury, my old *arteries* burst.

Dryden's Oedipus.

The purple masses of the veins display'd,

And all th' *arterial* pipes in order laid;

What gave the bounding current to the blood,

And to and fro convey'd the restless flood.

Blackmore's Creation.

For further explanation of this word, see ANATOMY.

ARTE.
ARTERY.

ARTHING-
WORTH.

ARTICLE.

ARTHINGWORTH, is the hundred of Rothwell, county of Northampton; a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £13. 2s. 8½d.; Patron, T. Rokeby, Esq. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 207. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £235. 18s. 4d., at 3s. 2d. in the pound. It is 8 miles W. N. W. from Kettering, and 4½ miles S. by E. from Market Harborough, in the county of Leicester.

ARTHRITIC. *Ἀρθριτις*, pain or disease in the joints; from *ἄρθρον*, a joint.

Tho' some want bones, and all extended articulations, yet have they *arthritical* analogies; and by the motion of fibrous and muscular parts, are able to make progression.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Oh may I live exempted (while I live)
Guillem of pumper's appetite observe
From pangs *arthritic*, that infest the toe
Of libertine excess.

Copper's Task.

Unhappy! whom to beds of pain,
Arthritic tyrannous consigns;
Whom smiling nature courts in vain,
Though rapture aches and beauty shines,

Johnson's Ode on Spring.

ARTHRITIS, is *Physic*, a name of the gout. In the *Materin Medicine*, medicines that are useful in the gout, or other diseases in the joints, are called *arthritical*.

ARTHRODYNIA, (from *ἄρθρον*, a joint, and *δύω*, pain,) in Medicine, chronic pains in the joints, without pyrexia, chronic rheumatism, or chronic gout.

ARTHOPODIUM, in Botany, a genus of liliaceous plants, inhabiting New South Wales.

ARTHURET, or **ARTHER'S HEAD**, in Eekdale Ward, county of Cumberland, in the parish of Arthuret; a Rectory valued in the King's Books at £2.; Patron, Sir James Graham, Bart. It is 1½ mile S. from Longtown. The Vicarage of Arthuret is valued in the King's Books at £1. 2s. 1d. This parish includes the English part of the Debatable Lands.

ARTICHOKE. See *CYNARA*.

ARTICHOKE, JERUSALEM. See *HELIANTHUS*.

ARTICLE, *n.* } Articulus, a small joint, from
} artus, a joint. As artus is ap-
ARTICULATE, *n.* } plied to greater members, as the
} arms; so articulus, to the less, as
ARTICULATE, *adj.* } the fingers.
ARTICULATELY, } the fingers.

ARTICULATION. } To set forth the separate
} particulars of a whole; to state separately the terms or
} conditions.

To articulate, is to utter or emit distinctly, disjoined, separate sounds.

So that for these injuries and many more, which at the time of his depoyment, were articulated agayne hym in xxxvi. sundry articles, with also the manner that name vpon hym that he had letten to frime the revenue of y^e crowne to Bunsheye, Bogot, & Grewe, which covered as well y^e noblenesse of y^e realm to agayne hym as other of the common people.

Polyan.

To make new articles of our faith contrary to God's worde (and to set them in their prophane secular setes of politick parlements armed with sword and fyer) is not els then to be exalted above God himself.

The Expressions of Daniel by Jey.

She her throne makes reason stumbe,
While wild passions captive lie.

And, each article of time,
Her pure thoughts to heaven flie.

Habington. Description of Castara.

Lady Kent *articled* with Sir Edward Herbert, that he should come to her when she sent for him, and stay with her as long as she would have him, to which he set his hand; then he *articled* with her, that he should go away when he pleased, and stay as long as he pleased, to which she set her hand.

Selden's Table Talk.

A minister should preach according to the *articles* of religion established in the church where he is.

Selden's Table Talk.

Of whom (excepting Antiochus himself, with whom Scipio had *articled* peace and alliance, and yet also had expressly given order therefore) they all were our enemies no doubt, who had borne arms against us in the quarrell and behalf of the said Antiochus.

Holland's Liry.

The hint and ground of this opinion might be the gross and somewhat cylindrical compassure of the legs, the equality, and less perceptible disposition of the joints, especially in the former legs of this animal (the elephant) they appearing when he stands, like pillars of flesh, without any evidence of articulation.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

The first at least of these I thought deal'd

To leav's, whom God on their creation-day
Created most to all *articled* sound.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

If a man only speak *articulately* words of volubility formation and arbitrary imposition; yet even brutes have such natural language, as whereby each of the same kind do mutually understand each other.

Dy. Hall. St. Paul's Combat.

This (Sir George Villiers) predecessor the Earl of Somerset hath got a lease of 90 years for his life, and so has his *articulate* lady, called so, for *articling* against the frigidity and impotence of her former lord.

Since as who will speak without any mouth at all *articulately* returning the voice of man, by only ordering the vocal spirit in concave and hollow places; whether the muscular and motive parts about the hollow mouths of beasts, may not dispose the passing spirit into some *articulate* notes, seems a *querie* of no great doubt.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

If a good man be passing by an infern building, just in the article of falling, can it be expected, that God should suspend the force of gravitation till he is gone by, in order to his deliverance?

Wollaston's Religion of Nature.

Some again have searched, and obtained satisfaction, they say, concerning every *article* of morals; but will not concern themselves about religion.

Seker's Sermons.

Another indenture of 1336, for glazing some of the west windows, *articles*, that the workmen should have six-pence a foot for white glass, and twelve-pence for coloured.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

They must be got into his (the catechist's) hands the moment they are capable of articulating their words, and their instruction must be pursued with unremitting diligence.

Porteus on the Civilization of Negro Slaves.

For the general history of the article, the reader may refer to the *Trentise upon GRAMMAR*.

ARTICLE, (*Lat.* *Articulus*, *Gr.* *ἄρθρον*, 'a joint.') A part of speech which has been the subject of much discussion, amongst those who have written on the construction of the Greek language, of which alone we shall here treat. The Stoics defined the article to be "a part of speech, distinguishing the genders and numbers of nouns," the facility of which definition is exposed by Apollonius Dyscolus, who has written the first of his four books *περί συρρέσεων* on the nature and use of the article. The definition which Aristotle has given (*A. P.* 20.), is not very intelligible, even with Mr. Hermann's explanation. The most philosophical and probable account is that, which has been so ably illustrated by the learned Bishop Middleton; viz. that the Greek article is neither more nor less than the demonstrative or relative pronoun (for both were originally the same). The article, together with its

ARTICLE

ARTICLE. adjunct, forms in fact a proposition, in which the participle of existence is either expressed or understood, and which involves a relation to something before said by the speaker, or which is supposed to pass in the mind of the speaker. Thus, *ἦναι* signifies generally "old man"; but *ὁ ἦναι* is equivalent to *ὁ ἦναι ὢν*, where the pronoun *ὢ*, "this," implies that the old man now spoken of has been mentioned before, or that he is in some way or other known to the hearer or the speaker.

The identity of the article with the pronoun is very conspicuous in the language of Homer; as in the expressions ὁ γὰρ βασιλεὺς χροὺς, ὁ φίλος, &c. And in almost every instance where it occurs in his poems, it may be explained as a pronoun. In the words ὁ γὰρ ἀνὴρ εὖναι εἰς φίλον Ἀχαιοῖ, it is acknowledged that ἀ is a pronoun. Why then should it be supposed to change its nature upon the addition of γάρ in the phrase ὁ γὰρ ἀνὴρ φίλος? It is plain, that in the first case, the pronoun is used by itself, with reference to the word φίλος understood; and in the second, that word is added, to make the reference more clear. The pronominal use of the article, or rather the use of the pronoun, without an adjunct was common in the Ionic dialect, long after the age of Homer.

The principal difficulty, concerning the Greek article, relates to its usage with proper names, and with the names of abstract ideas. The only way in which we can account for its being used with proper names is to suppose, that the speaker first uses the pronominal article, as a designation of the person of whom he is speaking, and then subjoins the name itself, by way of explanation to his hearers; thus in Homer, when the poet says *ὄϊσιν αἰνέειν ἄνθρωπον*, he knows of whom he is speaking; but because his reader does not know, he recollects himself, as it were, and adds *Χρύσηος*. *ὄϊσιν αἰνέειν Χρύσηος ἄνθρωπον*, "him, that is to say, Chryses." For, in fact, the name is added to define the article; and not the article to define the name.

It appears then, that, generally speaking, the name is necessary to the article, but not the article to the name, except in cases of particular reference. The poets therefore frequently omitted the article, in the case of proper names, where a prose writer would have used it; but did not insert it, where correctness of language required its omission. The general rule is, that with proper names the article is used, where the same person has been recently mentioned, or is of such importance, that the article may be supposed to suggest his name; but in the case of historical allusions of this rule are ably stated and illustrated by Bishop Middleton in his work on the Greek article.

With regard to its usage with the names of attributes, the same learned writer observes, that in the very few instances, where Hooner employs abstract terms, he employs them without the article; and that it is inserted in later writers. 1. When the noun is used in its most abstract sense. 2. When the attribute, &c. is personified. 3. When the article is employed in the sense of a possessive pronoun. 4. When there is any reference.

It is obvious, from this brief statement of the nature and use of the Greek article, that it was not employed or neglected at random, without any alteration of or influence upon the meaning of a sentence: and that,

consequently, a proper attention should be paid to it by those who interpret any Greek author. In fact, as the article involves in all cases a reference, it is plain that it may oftentimes limit the sense of a passage, and preclude all interpretations but one. For a full view of the manner in which the doctrine of the Greek article is to be applied to the criticism of the New Testament, we refer the reader to the work before mentioned.

It may be proper to observe, that in every language which possesses an article, there is an evident connexion between the article and the simplest form of the pronoun. In Greek, *ὁ, ὁ, οὗτος*. In English, *the, this, that*. In French, *le, il, le, (him)*, and so in the other European languages, and also in the Arabic.

ARTICLES OF THE CLERGY, *Articuli Cleri*, are certain statutes which were passed in the reign of Ed. II. 1316, for terminating the disputes between the temporal and spiritual courts, respecting the limits of their several jurisdictions.

ARTICLES OF FAITH, are certain points of doctrine, which we are obliged to believe, as having been revealed by God, and so declared to have been by the church of which we are members.

ARTICLES OF LAMRETH, were nine articles on the subject of predestination, and the limitation of saving grace, which were drawn up by Arch. Whitgift, and recommended to the attention of the students of Cambridge, in consequence of some disputes which were raised in the University, at that time, on the above-mentioned points. They were, however, merely declaratory of the doctrines of the church of England, and were not imposed as of public authority. An account of the 39 articles of the church of England will be found in another part of the work. See GENERAL INDEX.

ARTICLES, *Statute of the Sex, or the Bloody Statute*, was enacted for abolishing diversity of doctrine in certain articles of opinion concerning the Christian religion, 31 Henry VIII. c. 14. By this law the doctrine of the real presence, the communion in one kind, the perpetual obligation of vows of chastity, the utility of private masses, the celibacy of the clergy, and the necessity of auricular confession, were confirmed; and the denial of them made punishable with death.

ARTICLES OF WAR, are certain regulations for the better government of the army in the United Kingdom and in foreign parts dependent on Great Britain. With respect to the army, these may be altered at the king's pleasure, and they have the force of law only in virtue of an annual act of Parliament, styled the Mutiny Bill; but the Articles of War by which the navy is regulated, are founded upon statutes which are fixed, and in which every offence and the punishment of it are set down and defined by law.

ARTICLES, LORDS OF, were an ancient institution in the history of the Scottish parliament appointed by the king, whose business it was to prepare and digest all matters that were to be laid before Parliament; and that these lords possessed a virtual negative upon all its proceedings, as no business could be proposed or debated there, which had not previously received their sanction.

ARTICLES OF DEATH, *Articulus Mortis*, the last pangs or agony of a dying person are sometimes so called.

ARTILLERY.

ARTIL-
LERY.

ARTILLERY, barb. Lat. *artillaria*. Fr. *artillerie*. Caseneuve thinks it may be formed of *arcus* and *telum*. Vossius from *arcubus*. Menage and Du Cange from the old Fr. *artiller*, to render strong by art; from *ars*, *artis*.

Certes, I understand it in this wise, that I shall warrenstore min
boon with toures, swiche as han castelles and other manere ed-
fices, and armure, and *artilleries*, by which thinges I may use per-
sones and myn hows so kerpys and defenden, that min enemies
shalt ben in drede min hows for to appoche.

Chaucer. *The Tale of Melibee*, v. li. p. 100.

& ypo the morewe soloweyge cōsoudyd all the armoure and
artillery belonging vnto y^e towne, to be brought to a place by
hym amynged, and there to be kept by his officers.

Fabyen, p. 327.

The gods forbid (quoth he) one shaft of thine
Should be discharged against that discourteous knight,
His heart vntothie is (shootrewe diuine)
Of thine *artilleries* to feele the might.

Fairfax's *Tasso*, book xvii.

They are persecutors even of Horace himself, as far as they are
able, by their ignorant and vile imitations of him; by making an
arbitrary use of his authority, and turning his artillery against his
friends.

Dryden's *Pref. to All for Love*.

It is related by some historians, that Edward, besides the re-
sources which he found in his own genius and presence of mind,
employed also a new invention against the enemy, and placed in
his host some pieces of artillery, the first that had yet been
made use of in Europe.

Hume's *Hist. of England*, p. 432.

And if thou hast the mettle of a king,
Being wrong'd as we are by this pernicious house;
Turne thou the mouth of thy artillery;
As we will ours, against these sallow walls.

Shakespeare's *King John*, fol. 6.

As when two black clouds
With heav'n's artillery fraught, come rattling on
Over the Campsie, then stand forth to front
Howling a space, till windle the signal blow
To joys their dark encounter in mid air.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book li.

Now was Eretia for all forcible means assaulted, for not only
the rumsels of three joynt armies had brought thither all sorts of
cannons and artillery devised for to shake and batter the walls of
cities, but also the fields and country hard by, yielded them pleatye
of timber and other matter to make new.

Holland's *Lies*.

ARTILLERY, is originally a French word, signi-
fying archery, and was formerly used to denote all the
offensive apparatus of war, particularly those of the
missile kind. At present we employ it only to the
larger firearms, as cannon, mortars, howitzers, &c.
Rockets are also now considered as forming a part of
artillery.

Artillery likewise signifies the art or science which
has for its object the management, arrangement, and
application of the above arms to the purposes of of-
fence and defence, and hence that part of the army
which is specifically charged with this service is called
the artillery.

According to the latter extended signification of
this term, it includes Gunnery, or the art of throwing
balls, shells, &c. with accuracy and precision; Py-
rotechny, or the composition of fireworks, as rockets,

fuzes, portfires, &c.; Fortification, or the construc-
tion of works for offence and defence. The manage-
ment of pontoons, the construction of military bridges,
the working of mines; and all the most important
operations of a siege, or defence of a garrison, are
considered generally to appertain more or less to the
engineer and artillery service.

We propose, however, in this article, not to treat
of artillery as a science, but simply to describe the
several apparatus, appointments, &c. which according
to our first definition constitute what is commonly
understood as the artillery of an army; prefacing that
description by an historical sketch of the progress
and successive changes which have taken place in
this important branch of the military art.

In the most ancient times, when war was made
with quickness and impetuosity, the use of artillery
was unknown; the club and the dart were at this
time the only instruments of attack and defence; and
it was probably sometime before the bow and arrow
were thought of as offensive weapons.

As the destructive means of attack were by the lat-
ter invention made to operate at a distance, corre-
sponding means of defence became necessary, and
trunks of trees interlaced with branches and supported
with earth, constituted the first fortification; which
was afterwards improved by substituting a wall with
a parapet, for shooting arrows at the assailants.
Afterwards the walls were carried higher, and holes
left in them of sufficient size only to enable the archers
to discharge their arrows effectually upon an enemy.

To attack, therefore, with any chance of success,
some powerful engine became necessary to batter
down the walls; this gave rise to the battering ram,
which was probably one of the first engines of
ancient artillery. To what date we are to refer the
invention of this powerful machine is uncertain. We
are informed in the Second Book of Chronicles that
Uzziah, who began his reign 809 years before the
Christian era, "made in Jerusalem engines, invented
by cunning men, to be upon the towers and upon the
bulwarks to shoot arrows and great stones withal."
It is therefore probable, that the ram was at least
known in those days, although we have no distinct
mention of it till the time of Pericles the Athenian,
409 years, a. c. To oppose this powerful engine of
attack further means of defence became necessary,
and the invention of ballistæ and catapultæ resulted
probably from this necessity. But these soon became
instruments, not only of defence, but of attack; for
in the siege of Mityla, about 370 years before Christ.
Dionysius, after having battered down the fortification
with his rams, advanced to the walls towers rolled
upon wheels, whence he galled the besieged with
continual volleys of stones and darts, thrown from his
catapultæ. *Æsc. Univ. Hist.* vol. vi.

A number of other instances are mentioned soon
after this time, in which machines of various descriptions
were employed both for defence and attack, of which

ARTIL-
LERY.

ARTIL-
LERY.

we may mention in particular the siege of Saguntum by Hannibal, 219 a. c., in which the Saguntines prevented his soldiers from using the battering ram, by a continual hurling of darts, stones, and other missiles. From this time, these warlike engines increased both in number and in magnitude, to an almost incredible extent; of which the reader may form some idea by the inventory that different historians have given us of those found in certain cities, which had been obliged to capitulate to the enemy; and by the enumeration of those which accompanied particular armies. Thus we are informed, that Titus employed in the siege of Jerusalem three hundred catapultæ of divers magnitudes, and forty ballistæ, of which the least projected stones of 75lb. weight. And when the consul Cæstorius marched against Carthage, and obliged the inhabitants to give up their arms, they surrendered to him two thousand machines proper for throwing darts and stones: and afterwards, when Scipio made himself master of the same city, there were no less than one hundred and twenty catapultæ of the larger size, two hundred and eighty-one of the smaller; twenty-three of the larger ballistæ, fifty-two of a smaller kind, and an innumerable number of scorpions of different sizes, arms, and missile weapons.

Two years previous to this, Marcellus had laid siege to Syracuse, a city proverbially fatal to the armies that attacked it. Archimedes was at that time resident in the city; and, at the earnest solicitation of Hiero, king of Sicily, exerted the powers of his mind in the invention of artillery, and other warlike instruments. Marcellus had brought with him an enormous engine mounted on eight galleys, called *asmbuca*, which Archimedes destroyed by discharging at it single stones of enormous weight, while it was at a considerable distance from the walls: this was effected by ballistæ; but he also employed *crows*, *grapples*, and *scorpions*; by the former of which the Roman vessels were lifted out of the water by the prow, and plunged to the bottom of the sea.

It would be useless to record the numerous other sieges, which took place between this period and the invention of cannon, where these instruments were employed. We shall therefore now endeavour to present the reader with the description and figure of these several machines according to the best authorities; at the same time it must be acknowledged, that the account of many of them is so very obscure, that it may be questionable whether they are precisely such as those described by the ancient historians.

The ancient artillery may be divided into three classes of machines; viz. first, those intended for projecting bodies; secondly, those for approach and demolition; thirdly, a miscellaneous class, used for various offensive operations.

Of the first class, the most important are the ballistæ and catapultæ; which are, by some authors, confounded with each other; but, according to their etymology, ballistæ, from *βέλλω*, to shoot or throw, is an engine for propelling stones, called also *λιθόβολος*, *πετρόβολος*, *Petræus*, &c.; while catapultæ, in Greek, *καταπέλτης*, from *πέλτης*, a spear or dart, was an instrument employed to dart forth spears or arrows.

The force of the ballistæ was prodigious. The stones cast from them were of enormous weight, and of any form; and for the further annoyance of the besieged

place, they would throw into it from the ballistæ dead bodies of men and horses, heads and detached limbs. Athenæus mentions one of these ballistæ that threw a stone of three talents, viz. about 360lbs. weight. Cæsar employed these machines not only to destroy men, but to batter down strong and high towers. We have already mentioned the machines employed by Titus against Jerusalem, some of which Josephus states, projected stones of a hundred weight, and Archimedes is said to have cast bodies of 1,200lbs., by means of his ballistæ, against the Roman fleet, in his defence of Syracuse.

Description of the *Ballistæ*, AAA (fig. 1.) is a strong frame work, susceptible of easy separation, for the purpose of conveyance, and then of being rejoined in frame. The upper beams are pierced on the opposite sides of the frame with two orifices as at the points, B B. Two toothed wheels, *y*, have the form shown at Fig. 2, in which may be seen a strong cross piece. A strong cord, well stretched, passes several times from the cross piece of one wheel to that of the opposite wheel, and forms thus several intersecting twists; at the centre of one of which is inserted the handle or stem *c c*, of the capacious spoon S. The leaves of the pincion *x*, play into the teeth of the wheel *y*. And thus, by turning the pincion through the intervention of the handle, the wheel *y* is turned, and the cords fastened to its cross piece *a*, are made to twist more and more about each other. When by this process the twisted cords have received a sufficient tension, the wheels and pincions are retained in their places by the application of a pall or ratchet. This done, the stem *c c*, which has waxed cord coiled closely about it to give it additional strength, is brought down to the horizontal position by means of the windlass *v v*, and retained there by another pall or detent. In this state of things the body, which it is intended to throw from the ballistæ, is placed in the cavity S. At a given word the detent is struck away with a mallet, and the stem *c c*, obeying the enormous elastic force which now acts upon it, remounts and discharges the projectile with great impetuosity. At the moment of the discharge, the stem *c c* strikes against the frame at F (whose position evidently affects the length of the range): where to soften down the shock a thick horse hair cushion is placed.

The machines called by the Romans *tormentum*, were only varieties of the ballistæ, and served to project stones and other ponderous masses: according to Vitruvius the cords employed in these machines were made sometimes of hair, at others of the bowels of animals prepared like our cat-gut. All were not twisted by the same process; but sometimes by means of a windlass, at others by toothed wheels. The ultimate effects, however, were the same in all cases.

Of the *Catapultæ*. These, as we have before observed, were employed in throwing darts or arrows; which, it is said, were sometimes poisoned, and at others set on fire.

A Catapultæ of the smaller kind is shown in fig. 2-a. It consists merely of an immense bow of elastic wicker work, placed on a suitable carriage, and having its upper part drawn down by the force of several men applied to a strong rope. Several arrows are lodged upon a suitable frame, and at different elevations. The tightened cord being set at liberty by drawing out a

ARTIL-
LERY.

ARTIL-
LERY.

pin, the bent surface recovering itself by its natural elasticity, advances to its original vertical position, and thus drives before it all the arrows with considerable velocity. This kind of catapulta is mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, as being employed at the siege of Cyprus.

Catapultæ of the larger kind were much more powerful, and were used to shoot darts and arrows of great length and weight. One of these is represented in fig. 3. It is not unaptly assimilated to a broken bow, although there is this difference, that in the latter the elastic force resides in the bow itself, whereas, here, as in the ballista, the elastic force is in the twisted cords; between which the two arms are inserted, not vertically as in the stem of the ballista, but horizontally. At the extremity of the two arms *a*, is attached a strong rope *b*. The twisted cords *c*, receive their tension by means of the wheel work at *d*, and are kept at the requisite twist by means of detents as in the ballista; the arms are also strengthened by ligatures of waxed cord as in the latter machine.

When the engine is at rest, the two arms *a*, rest against the cushions at *m*, and as the twisting of the cords *c*, proceeds by means of the toothed wheels *d*, these arms press more and more against their respective cushions. Then drawing the rope *b*, by means of the grappling hook *z*, and cord, worked by the windlass *y*, a projecting pin detains the cord *b*, at an assigned point, where it is known to have acquired the requisite tension. The darts are then placed in the grooves *rr*; and the pin being struck from its place, the arms *a*, yielding to the elastic impulse of the twisted cords, move rapidly till they strike the cushions *m*; the cord *b*, as rapidly tightened strikes the darts, and sends them forth with astonishing velocity; which might however be modified to greater or less by different degrees of tension.

The impulsive energy of these machines far exceeds the ideas we should form of them from their description. It is said that Montfaucon possessed a small model of a catapulta, only five inches in length, which projected its dart to the distance of 400 feet; and Follard, the learned editor of Polybius, had a model only a foot in each dimension, which propelled its dart with such force as to cause it to enter and remain in hard freestone at the distance of 1300 feet; Caesar also relates that at the siege of Marseilles the besieged propelled from the top of their walls, beams of 12 feet long, armed at one end by pointed iron heads, which pierced four ranks of stout hurdles and then stuck firmly into the earth.

Of the scorpion. This is another of the propelling machines of the ancients, and is probably of anterior date to those we have been describing, being far inferior to them in its action, although still a very powerful engine. We have represented one of the forms of the scorpion in fig. 4. by which it will be perceived, that the propelling power was produced by the descent of the weight placed at the shorter arm of the machine, which raising the longer arm, the stone was delivered from the sling attached to it with a very considerable force; but as we have stated above, by a very inferior one to that produced by the twisted cord in the ballista and catapulta. It is needless to add that the stone being discharged, the long arm was drawn down by manual strength, and the machine re-

charged by another stone. This is by some authors called a *fundibula*.

The *arcoballista* is a smaller propelling apparatus, which might be worked by one man; it is little more than a fixed bow with a simple mechanical contrivance for bringing back the line, as shown in fig. 5.

The above are the principal machines which the ancients possessed for distant means of annoyance; it still remains for us to describe those employed on a near approach to an enemy's works for the demolition of the same, and the opposing engines of the besieged.

Machines of Approach and Demolition.

Of the Battering Ram. The ancients employed two different machines of this kind; the one suspended, and which was vibrated after the manner of a pendulum, and the other movable on rollers. These were denominated the swinging and rolling ram; and when either of these was worked under a cover or shed to protect the assailants from the annoyance of the besieged, they were denominated tortoise rams, from the shed being assimilated to the tortoise shell.

The swinging ram, fig. 6, resembled, as well in its magnitude as in its form, the mast of a large vessel, suspended horizontally at its centre of gravity, by chains or cords from a moveable frame of carpentry. Ligatures of waxed cord surrounded the beam at short intervals, and cords at the extremity furthest from the head, served for the purpose of applying human force to supply the oscillatory motion. Other cords at intermediate distances were also sometimes thus employed. The frame of carpentry was often encased at its sides by a double cover of wicker work, between which horsehair and marine herbs were stuffed. The top was covered with sloping hurdles plastered with mortar, and in case of necessity, the whole was kept moist by vinegar, to prevent its being set on fire by the enemy. In this form it became what was denominated the *tortoise ram*. See fig. 8.

The rolling ram was much the same as the above in its general construction; except that instead of receiving a pendulous motion, it was a motion of simple alternation produced by the strength of men applied to cords passing over the pulleys P.P. fig. 7. This construction seems to have been first employed at the siege of Byzantium.

These machines were often extremely ponderous, Appian declares, that at the siege of Carthage he saw two rams so colossal that one hundred men were employed in working each. And Vitruvius affirms that the beam was often from 100 to 120 feet in length, and Justus Lipsius describes some as 180 feet long, and 2 feet 4 inches in diameter, with an iron head weighing at least a ton and a half.

In contrasting the effects of the battering ram with those of the modern artillery, we must not merely judge of them by the mechanical measure of their respective momenta. Such a ram as one of those described by Lipsius, would weigh more than 45,000 lbs., and the momentum of this, supposing its velocity to be about two yards per second, would be nearly quadruple, the momentum of a 40 lb. ball, moving with a velocity of 1600 feet per second. But what would be the different operation of these bodies upon a wall. The ball would penetrate the opposing

ARTIL-
LERY.

ARTIL-
LERY.

substance, and pursue the almost undisturbed tenor of its way; but this is not the case with the ram. Its efficacy in the work of demolition would depend upon the due apportioning its intervals of oscillation. At first it would produce no obvious effect upon the wall; but the indidious repetition of its blows, would in a short time give motion to the wall itself. First, there would be just perceptible tremors, then more extensive vibrations; these being evident, the men would adjust the oscillations of the ram to that of the wall, till, at length, a large portion of it, partaking of the vibratory impulse, would, by a well timed blow, fall to the earth at once. This recorded effect of the ram has nothing analogous in the results of modern machinery.

Movable Towers, Tortoises, &c. The moveable towers they called by the ancients in their sieges, and which they called *Helepoles*, were often of an astonishing magnitude, Vegetius describes them as being formed of strong planks. To preserve them from risk of fire thrown from the walls of the besieged place, they were covered with raw hides, or with pieces of woven horse hair. Their height was proportional to the dimensions of their bases, which were sometimes 30 feet square, and their height 40 or 50 feet. Sometimes their height was still greater, that they might be above the walls, and even above the stone towers of the city. They were supported upon several small wheels, by means of which they might be moved from place to place, notwithstanding their enormous size and weight. It was generally reckoned that the besieged place was in eminent danger whenever the besiegers had succeeded in placing one of these near the walls. The *helepole* was supplied with ladders, by which to mount from stage to stage, and each stage presented its particular means of attack. In the lower one there was commonly a ram; and the middle stage, or a higher one, was furnished with a bridge, made of mutually intersecting levers, which could be easily projected out, and thereby form a communication between the tower and the wall. Sometimes baskets fixed to projecting levers, carried men who were let down upon the wall. On the upper stages were soldiers armed with halberds, and archers who continually played upon the besieged.

Vitruvius states, that the weight of the *helepolis* brought against Rhodes by Demetrius weighed 250,000 lbs., and that to man and manœuvre it, employed 3400 soldiers. (See figs. 10, 11).

The *Tortoise*, as we have already stated, was a kind of moving sheet, used to defend the assailants in their advance upon the place, these were also of great magnitude. One of those employed by Cæsar, at the siege of Marcellæ, was 60 feet long, and served to cover the space between the *helepolis* and the city wall. In some instances a long rank of these was placed end to end, and served as a complete protection to the soldiers. They were covered, as we have already said, with raw hides or with moistened horse hair, to protect them from the fire of the besieged. (See figs. 8, 9).

Miscellaneous Machines.

Of Crows (Corvi) and Cranes. As in the application of the engines last described, it was necessary for the besiegers to approach close under the walls of the

besieged city, it was natural, that the latter should attempt a means of annoyance, or defence against their enemy, which might counteract their efforts. This probably gave rise to the machines we are about to describe, which were of different kinds, some being used in sieges, and others in engagements at sea. The description we have of these engines, and of the effects produced by them is scarcely credible. Plutarch informs us, that when Marcellus had advanced his galleys close under the walls of Syracuse, Archimedes directed against them enormous machines, which being projected forward, there were let down suddenly from them large beams, from which were suspended long vertical arms of rope, terminated with grappling hooks; which laying hold of the vessels, and rapidly elevating them by the operation of counter weights, upset and sunk them to the bottom of the sea; or, after raising them by their prows, and setting them as it were on their poops, plunged them endwise into the water. Others, it is said, he swung round towards the shore by the application of his cranes, and after whirling them in the air, dashed them to pieces on the rocks beneath. Although it is impossible not to suspect some degree of exaggeration in these statements, yet we cannot at the same time doubt, that very powerful means of this kind were employed in this celebrated siege; in which Archimedes, the prince of Grecian mathematicians, performed an important part, and where he at length fell beneath the sword of one of the soldiers of the conqueror.

A more simple engine of this description is shown in (fig. 12). It consisted of a long and strong crane, armed by a strong iron crow head, and suspended on a moveable carriage. It was employed principally for destroying the parapets of walls, for dismantling the sides of the sheds under which the rams were worked, and for other similar purposes.

The *telleiro*, fig. 13, was a machine employed for raising a few soldiers higher than the top of the enemy's wall, to ascertain what was going on within them, and sometimes for taking possession of them, and thus facilitating the escalade. In the former instance, it was formed by a great pile driven into the ground, which served as a fulcrum to a long lever, which was placed across it, and balanced. At one of its extremities was a light wooden, or wicker case, capable of holding a certain number of men, when the opposite end was drawn down by cords, were raised so as to be enabled to look over the walls, or to mount upon them. Others were mounted on carriages, as shown in the figure.

Such was the artillery of the ancients, or their machines of attack and defence, which the invention of gunpowder has rendered useless and obsolete. In fact, few of the machines we have described are sufficiently illustrated by the early historians, to enable us to say with certainty that our representation is perfectly correct, and some are mentioned, of which only the names remain. What we have given are drawn from the most authentic sources, and for most of which we are indebted to Dr. Gregory, who has been at considerable pains in collecting them for his lecture on the ancient artillery, delivered at the Royal Military Academy, and who has very obligingly allowed us the perusal of his manuscript.

ARTIL-
LERY.

ARTILLERY.

Of the Modern Artillery.

At what time gunpowder was first employed for the purposes of war, is very uncertain; but it is pretty evident that cannon were in use very early in the 14th century, but they were, in course, of the rudest and most uncultivated character. Their first denomination was *bombards* from *bangor*, or "a bombo et adora," on account of the great noise produced by the discharge. In the early use of these machines, they were employed like those they supplanted, and which we have described, in throwing enormous stones. They were therefore of immense calibre, and as the means of boring iron masses of such magnitude were then wanted, they were necessarily formed of iron bars, fitted together lengthwise, and confined by strong hoops of iron; sometimes the bars were soldered together, but still the hoops could not be dispensed with. There are some specimens of these early cannon preserved as curiosities in the Repository and Royal Arsenal at Woolwich. All the ancient cannon are unnecessarily long and clumsy, and we may easily imagine that their carriages and appointments were equally heavy and unmanageable. We are informed indeed by Guicciardini, in the first book of his history, that so cumbersome and unmanageable were the cannon in the 14th and 15th centuries, that they could only be discharged at considerable intervals; viz., two or three times in a day, so that the besieged had sufficient time to repair, at their leisure, the damage which they had sustained; and it not unfrequently happened that the pieces burst, and thus did more injury to those who employed them, than to those they were intended to annoy. In 1453, when Mahomet II. battered the walls of Constantinople, he is said to have used bombards, which projected masses of 1200 pounds weight, and even during the late war the Turks employed enormous stone mortars to oppose our passage of the Dardanelles. To trace, however, the various changes that have taken place in the construction, management, &c. of these arms, would far exceed the limits of this article; we must pass therefore from these early applications of cannon to the purposes of bombardment, to the time when they began to be employed in the open field, at which period they must have undergone considerable changes and improvements. The English indeed appear to have been the first to employ cannon in the field, and as early as 1346, at the celebrated battle of Cressy, five of them were placed on a small hill near that village, and which are said to have greatly contributed to the attainment of that victory. Cannon, however, were not cast in England till sometime in the 16th century, viz., brass cannon about the year 1535, and those of iron in 1547; we read, indeed, of brass guns of a much earlier date, but whether they were formed of bars, or in what other way they were constructed, we are not informed. Notwithstanding the improvements thus introduced in the formation of cannon, yet they were still, from a mistaken idea of the necessity of great length, exceedingly large and unwieldy. Louis XII. had one cast at Tours, which carried a ball of 100lb. One of these extraordinary cannon was taken at the siege of Dien, in 1546, by Don John de Castro, and was very lately preserved in the castle of St. Julian de Barra, near Lisbon.

The length of it is 80 feet 7 inches, its diameter in the middle is 6 feet 3 inches; and it threw a ball of 100lbs. There is an Indian inscription upon it, which says it was made A.D. 1400.

Although, during the 16th century, the size of cannon was considerably diminished, and a more tasteful form given to their exterior, still some few were made of what we now consider a prodigious magnitude; highly ornamented, and bearing a variety of mottoes, and dignified with names of various import. Thus Louis XII., in 1503, had twelve brass cannon founded of an extraordinary size, which he named after the twelve peers of France. The Spaniards and Portuguese dedicated theirs to their saints, and the Emperor Charles V., when he went against Tunis, had twelve cannons cast, which he called the twelve apostles. Several of these singular specimens of the early art of founding, and of the mistaken ideas of the first artillerymen, are preserved in different arsenals. At Milan there is a seventy pounder, called the Pimontelli, and another at Bois le Duc, called the Devil. At Dover Castle we have a sixty pounder, called Queen Elizabeth's Pocket Pistol; and in the Tower of London, an eighty pounder, brought from Edinburgh, bearing the name of Mounts Meg. There is also an eighty pounder in the arsenal at Berlin, denominated the Thunderer, and one of the same calibre at Malaga, called the Terrible. At Bremen there are two curious sixty pounders, called the Messengers of Bad News; and lastly, one in the castle of St. Angelo, at Rome, made of the nails that fastened the copper plates which covered the ancient Pantheon, with the following inscription, "Ex clavis trabalibus porticus Agrippæ."

In the royal arsenal at Woolwich, there were very lately a great number of cannon of unusual construction, although not of very great size, and many are still preserved; but by far the greater part have been sold or re-cast.

Without proceeding further in this historical sketch of the first invention, and subsequent improvements in the construction of cannon, we shall endeavour to lay before our readers some particulars relative to the present state of the English artillery, which is on all hands admitted to be the most perfect, both in its form and appointments, of any in Europe.

Artillery for the Field.

This was formerly divided into three classes; viz., battalion guns, artillery of the park, and horse artillery.

The *battalion guns* included all the light pieces attached to regiments of the line, which they accompanied in all their manœuvres, to cover and support them. In the English service there were two 6-pounders attached to each battalion.

The French	had	two	4-pounders	per battalion.
The Danes		two	3-pounders	ditto.
The Austrians		three	6-pounders	ditto.
The Prussians		two	6-pounders	ditto.
			first line.	
		two	3-pounders	ditto.
			second line.	
The Hanoverians		two	3-pounders	ditto.

This practice is however now discontinued in the

ARTILLERY.

ARTIL-
LERY.

British service, and in lieu of battalion guns, the artillery is formed into brigades of foot, and troops of horse artillery, the former being attached to the infantry, and the latter to the cavalry. This change has taken place on the supposition that the condensed fire of these brigades and troops, produces a much greater effect than could be expected from the divided action of battalion guns.

The brigades of foot artillery have either five medium 12-pounders, and a heavy $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzer; five 9-pounders, and a heavy $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzer; five long 6-pounders, with a heavy $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzer; or six 3-pounders, when acting in a mountainous country. The 9-pounders, however, were much in use in the late campaigns, as they answered better to the French 8-pounders to which they were generally opposed.

Horse artillery. A troop of horse artillery in the British service has generally five light 6-pounders, and one light $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzer. The French have

commonly 8-pounders, and a 6-inch howitzer attached to their troops of horse artillery.

Park of artillery. This, in addition to the requisite proportion of light guns, to re-place such as may be disabled or taken, contains some ordnance of a heavier calibre, but the nature and quantity of it depend on particular circumstances. These are 18-pounders, 12-pounders, and 8-inch howitzers, for the purpose of forming batteries of position; defending entrenched posts; breaking down bridges, dislodging an enemy from temporary works, or old castles, fortified in order to impede the march of an army for a short time, &c. These do not always follow an army in all its movements; but still they are generally so placed, that they may be brought up in a short time when circumstances require it.

The park also should contain spare carriages, stores and ammunition for every description of ordnance to be employed; a pontoon or boat equipage, and a moveable magazine in waggons or carts for infantry and cavalry.

ARTIL-
LERY.

following Table exhibits the latest regulations, for the quantity and disposition of the ammunition, attached to the particular pieces specified in it.

Medium 12-pounder.

Nature of Limber.	Where carried.	Round Shot.	Case shot.			Cartridges.		
			Heavy.	Light.	Spherical.	Total Shot.	4-lb.	1-lb.
New patent	Ammun. Carriage { Gun limber... { Off Box... Near Box... Limber { Off Box... Near Box... Body { Fore Box... Hind Box...	5	1	—	—	6	6	—
		5	—	1	—	6	6	—
		12	—	4	—	16	16	—
		12	4	—	—	16	16	—
		12	1	—	8	20	12	8
		16	2	2	—	20	20	—
		62	7	7	8	84	76	8
		Total.....	35	35	40	420	390	40
		Total for 5 guns ..	310	35	35	40	420	390
		Total for 5 guns ..	310	35	35	40	420	390
One box on ammunition carriage.	Ammun. Carriage { Gun limber... { Off Box... Near Box... Limber Box Body { Fore Box... Hind Box...	5	1	—	—	6	6	—
		5	—	1	—	6	6	—
		24	12	2	6	32	26	6
		13	2	2	—	17	17	—
		13	2	2	—	17	17	—
		58	7	7	6	78	73	6
		Total.....	35	35	30	390	360	30
		Total for 5 guns ..	290	35	35	30	390	360
		Total for 5 guns ..	290	35	35	30	390	360
		Total for 5 guns ..	290	35	35	30	390	360

ARTIL-
LERY.

9-Pounder.

ARTIL-
LERY.

Description of carriage.	Where carried.	Case Shot.				Cartridges.		
		Round shot.	Heavy.	Light.	Spherical.	Total Shot.	3 lb.	14 oz.
New patent limber.	Gun limber... { Off Box... { Near Box... { Limber { Off Box... { Near Box... { Body { Fore Box... { Hind Box...	13	3	—	—	16	16	—
		13	—	3	—	16	16	—
		13	3	—	—	16	16	—
		13	—	3	—	16	16	—
		12	—	—	12	28	16	12
		24	—	—	—	24	24	—
		88	8	8	12	116	104	12
		Total.....	88	8	8	116	104	12
		Total for 5 guns ..	440	40	40	580	520	60
9-wheel Carriage.	Gun limber, two boxes Ammunition Carriage..... Total..... Total for 5 guns ..	26	3	3	—	32	32	—
		52	3	3	10	72	62	10
		78	8	8	10	104	94	10
		390	40	40	50	520	470	50

Heavy 6-pounder.

Description of carriage.	Where carried.	Case Shot.				Cartridges.		
		Round Shot.	Heavy.	Light.	Spherical.	Total Shot.	2 lbs.	12 oz.
Patent limber.	Gun limber... { Off Box... { Near Box... { Ammun. Carriage { Off Box... { Body of limber. { Near Box... { Fore Box... { Hind Box...	90	5	—	—	25	25	—
		90	—	5	—	25	25	—
		20	5	—	—	25	25	—
		20	—	5	—	25	25	—
		25	5	—	10	45	35	10
		35	—	—	10	45	35	10
		140	15	15	90	190	170	20
		Total.....	140	15	15	190	170	20
		Total for 5 guns ..	700	75	75	950	850	100

Light 6-pounder.

Description of carriage.	Where carried.	Case Shot.				Cartridges.		
		Round Shot.	Heavy.	Light.	Spherical.	Total Shot.	8 lb.	25 oz.
Patent limber.	Gun limber... { Off Box... { Near Box... { Ammun. Carriage { Off Box... { Body of limber. { Near Box... { Fore Box... { Hind Box...	8	—	—	—	8	—	—
		16	5	—	—	21	25	—
		16	—	5	—	21	25	—
		16	4	—	—	20	20	—
		16	—	4	—	20	20	—
		25	5	5	10	45	35	10
		35	—	—	10	45	35	10
		132	14	14	20	180	160	20
		Total.....	132	14	14	180	160	20
		Total for 5 guns ..	660	70	70	900	800	100

* These are only 1½-lb. cartridges.

Heavy $5\frac{1}{2}$ -inch Howitzer.

Description of carriage.	Where carried.	Round Shot.	Case Shot.			Total Shot.	Cartridges.		
			Heavy.	Light.	Spherical.		2-lb.	10 ozs.	6 ozs.
Patent limber.	Howitzer limber { Ammun. Carriage { Limber { Body. {	Off Box....	8	2	—	10	10	8	—
		Near Box...	8	2	—	10	10	8	—
		Off Box....	11	—	—	11	11	11	—
		Near Box...	11	—	—	11	11	11	—
		Fore Box...	10	2	4	18	18	10	4
		Hind Box...	10	2	4	18	18	10	4
		Total.....	58	8	8	78	78	58	8
		<i>Light $5\frac{1}{2}$-inch Howitzer.</i>							
		Off Box....	8	2	—	10	10*	8	—
		Near Box...	8	2	—	10	10	8	—
Patent limber.	Howitzer limber { Ammun. Carriage { Limber { Body. {	Off Box....	11	—	—	11	11	11	—
		Near Box...	11	—	—	11	11	11	—
		Off Box....	12	3	4	21	21	12	4
		Near Box...	12	3	4	21	21	12	4
		Total.....	62	10	8	84	84	62	8
		* These are only 1-lb. cartridges.							

Artillery for a siege. This of course contains, besides a number of pieces of the kind we have been describing, a quantity of heavy ordnance; the particular number of which, however, depends upon circumstances; but the proportion of the different kinds is generally something like the following; viz. —

The number of heavy guns being determined upon, the number of

Mortars (from 8-inch to 13-inch) about one-third.

Small Mortars ditto. about one-fourth.

Heavy Howitzers ditto. about one-eighth.

The following are the numbers and calibre of the ordnance demanded for the siege of Lisie, by the late Sir Wm. Congreve.

64.....34-pounders.

28.....10-inch mortars.

8.....8-inch mortars.

20.....5 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch mortars.

These numbers, it will be perceived, do not exactly agree with the above rule, and indeed no rule can be made to apply generally to all cases.

The artillery for the defence of a garrison is very similar to that employed in the siege. The following is generally supposed to be a proper proportion of men, guns, &c., according to the nature of the garrison; that is, according to its class. The strongest places being considered of the first class, and so on in order to the eighth.

CLASS.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Garrison	12,000	10,000	8,000	5,000	3,500	2,500	1,600	400
Cannon	100	90	80	70	60	50	40	30
Triangle gins	4	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
Sling Carts	4	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
Jacks of sizes	4	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
Truck carriages	6	6	4	4	2	2	2	2
Ammunition carts	12	12	12	6	6	6	2	2
Tools for pioneers	9,000	6,000	5,000	4,000	3,500	3,000	1,000	1,000
miners	300	200	100	100	100	100	50	50
Axes and bill-hooks	1,200	900	600	500	450	300	150	150
Forges complete	6	4	2	2	2	2	1	1

ARTILLERY.

The guns will be of the following calibre, one-third 19-pounders, one-third 12-pounders, and one-third of 8, 9, and 4-pounders in equal proportion; and if the place do not possess any very extraordinary means of defence, 800 rounds of ammunition per gun for the two larger calibres, and 900 for each of the smaller will be a sufficient supply.

Gun carriages one-third more than the number of guns.

Mortars about one-fourth of the number of guns in the three first classes, and one-fifth or one-sixth in the other classes. Of these two-fifths will be 13-inch or 10-inch mortars, and the rest of a smaller nature.

Howitzers one-fourth of the number of mortars.

In the preceding enumeration of the description of artillery for the field and garrison duties, we have only referred to those in most general use; but it may not be amiss to state briefly the various calibres at this time known in the British service.

These are,

Brass guns . . . 42, 24, 18, 12, 9, 6, 3, and 1-pounders.
Iron guns . . . 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, 6, 4, and 3-pounders.
Cannonades . . . 68, 42, 32, 24, 18, and 12-pounders.
Howitzers . . . 10, 8, 5½, and 4½-inch.
Mortars . . . 13, 10, 8, 5½, and 4½-inch.

Mortars . . . { for throwing stones to small distances,
which are brass, about 15 inches in
(Stone.) . . . { diameter, of a lighter construction than
the above.

Eighteen inch mortars were formerly employed, but they have for many years been laid aside.

For the particulars of the construction, weight, &c. of these several pieces, see CANNON.

Exercise of artillery. When fifteen men are attached for the service of a gun in the field, they are numbered from 1 to 15; but when the gun is not to be advanced by the men, the first six numbers are omitted, and the nine men are numbered from 7 to 13. The exercise of heavy field guns differs but little from the light ones. It will therefore be sufficient to confine our description of the exercise to one case only.

Line of March, nine men to a gun. Here numbers 7, 9, 12 and 15, are on the left of the gun; 8, 10, 13, 14 and 11, on the right; numbers 7 and 8 opposite to the muzzle of the gun; 9 and 10 opposite the breech; 12 and 13 opposite the trail; 14 opposite the axle tree of the limber; 11 opposite the shafts; 15 leads the limber horse; the driver leads the fore horse.

Position, duties, &c. of nine men prepared for action.
Light gun. Number 7 sponges, 8 loads, 9 serves the vent, 10 fires, 11 commands, 12 carries the match and water bucket; 13 serves 8 with ammunition from 14, who carries a cartouch and a pair of drag-ropes, 15 holds the limber horse, and carries a cartouch.

Number 7 is between the right wheel and the muzzle; 8 between the left wheel and muzzle; 9 clear of the near wheel; 10 clear of the left wheel, both in a line with the vent; 11 on the left of the hand-spoke; 12 on his right, clear of 9; 13 covers the left wheel, five yards in the rear; 14 covers the right wheel, ten yards in the rear. The limber is 25 yards directly in the rear of the gun.

Heavy gun. This is the same as with the light guns, except that 7 and 8 stand outside the wheel, and 8 assists 7 to ram home if necessary.

ARTILLERY.

Howitzers. The positions here are the same as with the heavy guns, but the duties are different: 7 sponges, uncaps the fuse, and puts in the shell; 8 takes the sheep skin out of the piece, lays it on the ground, with the woollen side up, (when 7 holds it up) puts in the sheep skin again, and pulls it out with his left hand on the word *ready*. He stops the muzzle with it immediately that the piece is fired; 9 serves the vent; 10 fires; 11 commands; 12 carries the match and bucket; 13 serves 8 with cartridges from a cartouch; 14 serves 7 with shells from the limber, which he lays on the sheep skin; 15 attends the limber. As from unavoidable accidents, the number of men attached to a gun, may be reduced, it will be necessary if the vacancies happen amongst those doing the most essential duties, to immediately replace them by those doing the most subordinate duties.

Exercise of a field gun with fifteen men.

When a light gun has six drag-rope men attached to it, the duties of the standing numbers, that is the numbers from 7 to 15 continue the same in all the exercises just mentioned; but they assist also in the movements of the gun by drag-ropes. In the line of march, 1, 2 and 3 are on the left of the gun in the rear of 7; 4, 5 and 6 on the right in the rear of 8.

In the position for action, 1, 2 and 3 hold the right drag-rope, and 4, 5 and 6 the left, and dress in a line with the axle-tree. On the word *load*, 3 and 4 unhook the drag-ropes from the drag washers, 3 holds the hook in his left hand, and 4 in his right, and they hook on again at the word *cease firing*.

On the word *prepare to advance quick*, 2, 3, 4 and 5, slip under the drag-ropes; 2 and 3, man the loop ends on the inside; 3 and 4 the first pins on the inside; 7 and 8 move to the second pins on the inside; 1 and 6 remain at their pins, 9 and 10, move to the second pins on the outside, and 12 and 13 to the near pins on the outside; 14 assists 11 at the traversing handspike; 13 lifts up the trail for 11 to put in the truck; and 12 gives his mate to 10, then the word being given,

Prepare for action—2, 3, 4 and 5, slip back again under the drag-ropes, and the whole resume their places for action.

Word—With two pairs of drag-ropes *prepare to retreat quick*—3 and 4 unhook from the drag-washer, and march from the rear; 2 and 5 follow, and 1 and 6 hook the loop end of the drag-ropes to the trail hooks; 12 sticks his linstock in the ground, and with 13 brings the spare drag-ropes from 14, and gives the chain ends to 7 and 8 to hook to the drag washers; 7, 9 and 12 man the right drag-rope; and 8, 10 and 13 the left. To resume the position for action on the

Word, prepare for action—7 and 8 unhook the spare drag-ropes, and 12 and 13 carry them back to 14; 1 and 6 unhook from the trail, and 3 and 4 hook the other end to the drag washers.

Word—*Prepare for action retreating.* The drag-rope men change as in retreating, upon the word *load*, 1 and 6 unhook from the trail, and hook on again at the word *cease firing*. It must be here remarked, that in the exercise with 15 men, only the additional duties have been detailed; the duties of the standing numbers in action, advancing or retreating, being still the

ARTIL-
LERY.
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AR-
VERNI.

same as without drag-rope men. In limbering and unlimbering, the drag-rope men have no duties; but are ready to assist with drag-ropes, the truck is always put on in all movements with the drag-ropes, and thrown off at the word load.

Description of the plates to this article.

Plate I. and II. are intended to illustrate our description of the machines of war or artillery of the ancients.

ARTIL-
LERY.
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ARUN-
DEL.

The figures are referred to in a foregoing page of this article. In Plate II. are also illustrated the positions, &c. in artillery exercises, as above described.

Plate III., figs. 1 and 2, are correct representations of a brass 6-pounder field-piece; fig. 1 is the elevation, and fig. 2 the plan.

Plate IV., fig. 1, is an elevation of the limber to the preceding; fig. 2 is the elevation of a 13-inch mortar on its bed; and fig. 3 is a perspective view of an 8-inch howitzer with its limber.

ARTOCARPUS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Monocotyledon, order Monandria.

Generic character. Male, amentum cylindrical, calyx none, corolla of two petals, filaments the length of the corolla; female, calyx none, corolla none, germs numerous in the form of a globe, style filiform, drupe compound.

The *A. Incisa*, or Bread-fruit Tree, is a native of the South Seas, it grows to the height of about 40 feet; the stem is about the thickness of a man's body. The whole tree is full of a tenacious milky juice, which may be drawn out into threads. The fruit is an important article of food to the inhabitants of the South Sea islands. For a more detailed account of this interesting production, the reader is referred to Capt. Cook's *Voyage*.

The Indian *Juca* tree, *A. Integrifolia*, is a species of this genus.

ARTOIS, a province and government of France before the Revolution, which is now included in the departments of the Pas de Calais, and the Somme. It was formerly one of the 17 provinces of which the Netherlands were composed; and in the time of Cæsar was occupied by the *Atrebates*, from whom it is supposed to derive its name. It was bounded on the south and west by Picardy; by French Flanders on the north; and to the east by French Hainault and Cambresis; and was about 22 leagues in length, and 12 in breadth. This district is one of the most fertile in France; but is deficient in wood, and it produces little or no wine. Its manufactures are inconsiderable, and the only articles of export consist of agricultural produce. The principal town is Arras, where before the revolution the provincial states used to assemble, consisting of two bishops, eighteen abbots, eighteen deputies from chapters, and about seventy nobles and representatives of the *tiers état*. It was in the possession of the houses of Austria and Spain until the year 1640, when it was conquered by Louis XIV. and finally ceded to France by the treaty of Nimègue, in 1678.

ARVANS, (Str.), in the upper division of the hundred of Caldicot, county of Monmouth; a Chapel, (not to charge), of the certified value of £10. Patron, the Duke of Beaufort. The resident population of this parish in 1801, was 282. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £301. 11s. 6d., at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 2½ miles N. W. by N. from Chepstow.

ARVERNI, the name of one of the most powerful

nations of ancient Gaul. When Cæsar took possession of this last country it was divided between the Arverni and the Æqui. According to Strabo this country was situated between the ocean, the Pyrenæes, and the Rhone; it is from them that the modern name, Auvergne is derived, and their capital was the city now called Clermont.

ARVILS, or ARVALS, is the name of a species of funeral entertainments, of a very old date. These feasts, we are informed by Brand, are still kept up in the north of England, and are called by their old name. The custom seems to have been borrowed from the ancients. Juvenal in his Fifth Satire mentions the *cena ferialis*, and it is in allusion to it that Hamlet says—

—The funeral baked meats,
Did coldly furnish forth the marriage supper.

Monsin tells us that in his time it cost more to bury a dead wife in England, than to portion off a daughter. The truth of which remark is illustrated by the following extract from Stowe's London, book i. p. 259. "Margaret Atkinson, widow, by her will, dated Oct. 18. 1543, orders that the next Sunday after her burial, there be provided 2 doz. of bread, a kilderkin of ale, two gammons of bacon, three shoulders of mutton, and two couple of rabbits. Desiring all the parish, as well rich as poor to be partakers thereof; and a table to be set in the midst of the church, with every thing necessary thereto." See Brand's *Popular Antiquities*, by Ellis, vol. ii. 150.

ARUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Monocotyledon, order Polyandria.

Generic character. Spathe of one leaf, convolute at the base, perianth none, Spadix with germs at the base, stamens sessile near the middle of the spadix which is naked above, berry one-celled, one-seeded. Hooker, *Fl. Scot.* 258.

This genus contains one British species, the *A. Maculatum*, Cuckow-Pint, or Lords and Ladies, not uncommon to hedges. It is an extremely acrid plant. The root contains a large portion of starch.

ARUNDEL, in the hundred of Avisford, Rape of Arundel, county of Sussex; a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's Books at £5. 0s. 10d.; Patron, Mrs. Groomer. The resident population of this town in 1801, was 1855. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £1341. 3s. at 8s. in the pound. It is 10 miles E. by N. from Chichester, and 60 miles S. S. W. from London. The river Arun is navigable up to the tow for ships of 100 tons burden. The

ARUN-
DEL-
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ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

Petty Sessions are held here. This town sends two Members to Parliament, chosen by the inhabitants paying scot and lot; the Mayor is the returning officer. It is a borough by prescription, and is governed by a Mayor, 12 Burgesses, a Steward, and other officers. The Mayor, who is chosen annually, is Judge at the Court Leet of the Lord of the Manor, which is holden every three weeks; he appoints the collectors of the package and stallage, the ale-conners and flesh-tasters; and no writ can be executed within the borough, without his permission; he has also the authority of a Justice of the Peace. The castle (to which the manor is inseparably annexed), belongs to the noble family of the Howards, Earls of Arundel, and Dukes of Norfolk; and it is declared by an act of parliament, passed in the reign of Henry VI., that whoever hath

the castle, becomes thereby an Earl without any other creation. It is supposed to have been built during the reign of King Alfred, or not long before. Bevis, a giant of ancient times, is said (by tradition), to have been the founder. He was able (says Gilpin), to wade the channel to the Isle of Wight, and frequently did so for his amusement. He was warden of the gate to the Earls of Arundel, who weekly supplied him with two hogsheds of beer, a whole ox, and bread, &c., mustard in proportion. Soon after the Norman Conquest, this castle was given by William I. to his kinsman, Roger De Montgomery, whom he at the same time created Earl of Arundel and Shrewsbury. Here the Empress Maud was first received when she landed in England to dispute her claims with Stephen.*

ARUN-
DEL-
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ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

ARUNDELIAN MARBLES.

ARUNDELIAN MARBLES. Thomas Howard, Earl of Arundel, who lived in the time of James and Charles the First, devoted a large portion of his fortune to the collection of monuments, illustrative of the arts, and of the history of Greece and Rome. He himself resided a long time in Italy, where he had frequent opportunities of adding to his store; but, not satisfied with his own individual exertions, he employed men of learning to travel at his expense in quest of such treasures; and among them, one peculiarly fitted for such an undertaking, Mr. William Petty, who explored, sometimes at the risk of his life, the ruins of Greece, the Archipelago, and the shores of Asia Minor: and succeeded in procuring above two hundred relics of antiquity. Among them were those of which we are about to speak, and which, in honour of their noble collector, have been called the Arundelian Marbles.

Gassendi tells us, in his life of Peiresc, that a Jew who was employed by that celebrated antiquary to purchase antiquities for him, had paid fifty pieces of gold for these marbles, but was seized, together with the antiquities which he had collected, by the Turks, who wished to extort a higher price; and that the whole was redeemed from the latter by Petty, the agent of Lord Arundel. This story has much the air of a fable, and has not, we believe, been generally credited: at all events it does not appear that Petty was ever charged with having used any unfair means to get possession of these treasures. They arrived in England in the year 1627, with the rest of the collection; which then consisted of 37 statues, 128 busts, and 250 inscriptions, together with a large number of altars, sarcophagi, fragments of sculpture, and an invaluable assemblage of gems. The inscriptions were inserted in the wall of the garden at the back of Arundel House, in the Strand, and were examined, soon after they had been placed there, by Selden, and two other scholars, at the recommendation of Sir Robert Cotton. Those learned men used their utmost endeavours in cleaning and deciphering these monuments, and succeeded with great labour and difficulty in deciphering 29 of the Greek, and 10

of the Latin, inscriptions, those which Scledeo judged to be of the greatest importance; and in the following year he published them, in a thin folio volume, under the title of *Marmora Arundelliana*.

It might have been supposed that curiosities (and such these stones must have appeared to the ignorant as well as the learned) procured at such an expense, and preserved with so much care, would, in a civilized country, have been secured from further depredation; but such was not the case. The noble family of Arundel was compelled to abandon its mansion, during the civil wars, to the commonwealth; and the parliament, who put it under sequestration, suffered the collection of marbles, deposited in its garden, to be plundered and defaced in the most shameless manner; and it is supposed that not more than half of the original number escaped dispersion or destruction in that disastrous period.

A better fate awaited that portion of these reliques which was preserved; for it was presented by Henry Howard, Duke of Norfolk, grandson of the collector, to the university of Oxford. These inscriptions were now in the hands of men who could appreciate their value, and give them to the world, accompanied by such illustrations as were requisite to make them eminently useful to the scholar and the antiquary. Humphrey Prideaux, afterwards dean of Norwich, a man of profound and various learning, undertook the publication of the whole collection, and brought out his work in 1676. They were again reprinted in 1732, under the care of Maittaire; and, subsequently, in a more exact and splendid manner, by the learned Dr. Chandler, in 1763, nearly a century after the original publication. Those who have ever attempted to transcribe almost obliterated inscriptions, will feel no surprise, when they learn, that there is a considerable disagreement be-

* From the time of the civil war in the 17th century, Arundel Castle continued little better than a mass of ruins, till the last Duke of Norfolk undertook to restore it to its ancient magnificence. The only parts now remaining of the ancient ruins are the keep, and some of the walls.

ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

tween these different copies of the Arundelian Marbles; and it is to be lamented, that the learned university to which they now belong, has not caused fac-similes of the most important ones to be engraved. The art of lithography, which is extremely applicable to such purposes, offers the means of perpetuating, as it were, the original inscriptions themselves, by a method unattended by any considerable expense.

Some of these inscriptions record treaties and public contracts; others, are memorials of the gratitude of the state to patriotic individuals; but by far the greater number are sepulchral, and entirely of a private nature. One, however, has deservedly attracted more notice than the rest, and it is that to which we chiefly direct the reader's attention. It is commonly known by the name of "The Parian Chronicle;" because it is in fact a chronological table of events, and appears to have been made in the island of Paros. This stone was, in the time of Schlden, two feet seven inches in height, and six feet six inches in breadth: containing 93 lines, arranged in two columns. It originally contained a chronological account of the principal events in Grecian, and particularly Athenian, history, during a period of 1318 years, from the reign of Cecrops to the archonship of Diognetus, n. c. 264; but it has suffered considerable injury, much of it having been effaced, so that it now terminates with the archonship of Diotimus, n. c. 354; about 90 years earlier than the period to which it originally extended. Had not Schlden most fortunately transcribed it with peculiar care, a great portion of it would have been irrecoverably lost; for no less than 31 out of the 79 epochs, legible upon it, in his time, have been knocked off, for the purpose, it is said, of repairing a fire-place.

The epochs are all dated retrospectively from the archonship of Diognetus at Athens, 264 years before Christ, and briefly record the most important events, in the order in which they took place. This monument therefore is invaluable, if its authenticity can be depended upon; the more so, as several facts are recorded here, of which no account is to be found elsewhere. Its authority, indeed, was never called in question, till of late years; but in 1788, a Mr. Robertson published an essay, entitled *The Parian Chronicle*, in which he has assailed its genuineness with considerable learning, and a great appearance of candour, such as has caused it to be considered by some persons as a fabrication of no very ancient date. But the truth is, that it would be difficult to find any inscription, professing to be of considerable antiquity, which answers all the conditions required by that writer, who seems to have reversed the usual order of reasoning on subjects of this nature, and begins by maintaining, that no inscription can be admitted as genuine, till it has been shown that no probable arguments can be adduced against its authenticity; instead of allowing, as seems more equitable, that its genuineness ought not to be doubted, till such arguments have been produced.

Whether those alleged by Mr. Robertson are such, our readers will be best able to determine, by seeing them, in his own words, as they are summed up by himself; and we shall not hesitate to add, very briefly, our own estimate of their real value, as their ingenuity and speciousness might easily mislead the un-

ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

swary, and foster a spirit of groundless scepticism, by carelessly or artfully giving to plausible conjectures, the authority of positive facts.

Mr. Robertson's 1st objection is, that "the characters have no certain or unequivocal mark of antiquity;" but it may be asked, what such marks are? and till it has been shown that those unequivocal evidences are wanting in the Arundelian inscription, it can hardly be deemed reasonable to give it up as a forgery. The best evidence, surely, that can be adduced in such a case, is a resemblance, in style and execution, to other monuments of nearly the same age: now, by Mr. Robertson's own confession, "the characters" of this inscription "seem to resemble, more than any other, those of the Marmor Cyzicenum; and they agree in many respects with those of the Marmor Sandvicense;" which are the two inscriptions, to the age of which it most nearly approaches.

His 2d objection is, that "it is improbable that the Chronicle was engraved for private use: 1. because the expense was such as few learned Greeks could afford; and 2. Because a manuscript would be more easily circulated." But if there was one both able and willing to incur such an expense, that would be sufficient: and whence does it appear, that the cheapest and most convenient method of executing a work is always preferred to one more laborious and expensive? If there were no examples of records engraved on marble, of so late a date as the probable age of this Chronicle, Mr. Robertson's argument would have some weight; but even then, it would give nothing more than a probable surmise: and of public monuments of this nature we have some in almost every collection down to a much later period than that of the Ptolemies.

But Mr. Robertson objects, in the 3d place, that "this marble does not appear to have been engraved by public authority." Be it so; yet, is it so extremely improbable, that some wealthy individual should be willing to confer a benefit on his countrymen, by leaving them such "a memorial of his learning and magnificence?" And though there is no evidence that this marble was engraved by public authority, it must be remembered, that there is also no evidence that it was not; inasmuch as the usual formulae, naming the authorities by whom the inscription was ordered, are often omitted in monuments indisputably raised at the public expense—such as the survey of the Temple of Minerva at Athens.

The 4th objection is drawn from "the darkness and confusion of the Grecian history;" for "the Greek and Roman writers complain, long after the date of this work, that they had no chronological accounts of the affairs of ancient Greece." But had they no materials to work upon? And was it not possible for any one to attempt to reconcile the discordant accounts found in different writers? Were there not many works extant, at the time when this Chronicle is supposed to have been compiled, which are now lost? And unless it differed from other ancient authorities where they all agree, what inference can be drawn against its genuineness? May it not have followed one in preference to another? And even, if it did disagree with them, where they are unanimous, what proof would this afford of its being a modern compilation?

ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

5th. "This chronicle is not once mentioned by any writer of antiquity." But if that circumstance be a proof of its being surreptitious, most of the inscriptions allowed to be ancient, must be given up as modern; for few, if any of them, have been distinctly noticed by ancient writers; it must, however, always be borne in mind, that only a small portion of the works of antiquity are known to the moderns; and that, consequently, such arguments as this are deserving of very little attention; for the suspected inscription might have been mentioned by many authors whose writings are lost. The stone, moreover, on which this chronicle is engraved, is not so large as to have been necessarily placed in a conspicuous situation; and if it were not, it would not necessarily attract the notice of any ordinary traveller: so that it might have remained long in so small an island as Paros, without being generally known in Greece.

6th. "Some of the facts seem borrowed from writers of a later date." To this objection it is surely fair to reply, by asking—whether later writers may not have borrowed from this inscription? or, what is more probable, from the same source as the compiler of this inscription? The only instance adduced by Mr. Robertson, which has any thing of a suspicious character, is the agreement between the catalogue of the twelve cities of Ionia, given on the marble, and that found in *Ælian's Various History*. But what proof is there that *Ælian* did not derive his list from the same source, as the author of this chronicle? The silence of *Ælian*, as to his authority, can prove nothing, for abundant instances of similar omissions might be produced from his work. It may also be asked, whether one, who had skill enough to forge such a monument as the *Parian Chronicle*, would not take special care to avoid all appearance of copying so modern a writer as *Ælian*?

7th. "Parachronisms appear in some of the epochs, which we can scarcely suppose a Greek chronologer in the 129th Olympiad would be liable to commit." Admitting that there are errors in the dates here recorded, it seems difficult to discover how it can be thence inferred that the inscription is a forgery. Such errors are to be found in many of the principal Greek and Roman writers; and those observed on this monument are of very small importance. Would not a forger have obviated such objections by taking some known author for his guide? The instances, indeed, in which this marble is at variance with other authorities, might be as reasonably alleged as arguments for its genuineness.

8th. "The history of the discovery of these marbles," Mr. Robertson says, "is obscure and unsatisfactory." The only facts, however, which he has mentioned as corroborating that opinion, are the imperfect account which has been preserved of the circumstances under which the marble was discovered and procured, together with the omission of any mention of it in Sir Thomas Roe's negotiations. But if there was nothing calculated to excite suspicion in the conduct of the persons from whom Petty purchased the marble, why should he be solicitous to preserve a minute account of all the circumstances attending the purchase? If no suspicions arose when the marble was first brought to light, when it was

easy to inquire into all the details of its history, while the persons who discovered it were yet alive, is it reasonable to entertain suspicions now, when such inquiries can no longer be made? What ground is there for supposing that this stone would be mentioned in Sir Thomas Roe's correspondence? None, we may venture to say, whatever; for it is well known how little such objects interest the Turks, and the mention of their interference, in the bargain between Samson, Poirce's Jew, and the original proprietors, is one of those circumstances which give that story so much the appearance of falsehood.

9th. The concluding objection is contained in a proposition to which, with some limitations, every one will assent, that "the world has been frequently imposed upon by spurious books and inscriptions, and therefore we should be extremely cautious with regard to what we receive under the venerable name of antiquity." That such impositions have been occasionally practised, is certainly true, and that caution is requisite in forming a judgment on the genuineness of monuments which may be spurious, will not be denied; but when it is considered how much skill and knowledge; what a variety of means and resources; what a concurrence of favourable circumstances, are all requisite to enable any modern to forge an inscription like that of the *Parian Chronicle*, in such a manner as to deceive any one at all accustomed to the examination of such works; it will, we think, be readily allowed, that the supposition of its having been forged in modern times, is in the highest degree improbable. That it is an ancient forgery, does not appear to have been ever suggested; nor is there any ground for such a surmise. Those who are acquainted with the state of learning and arts among the present inhabitants of Greece and Asia Minor, will agree with us, in affirming that it would be now nearly impossible to find any persons in those countries capable of executing such a forgery in a style which should escape detection; but the Greeks of the present day are far superior in wealth and knowledge, and therefore far more capable of succeeding in such an attempt than their forefathers were two centuries ago; while they were yet smarting under the lash of Turkish despotism, and but just beginning to emerge from the mists of ignorance and barbarism, which had enveloped their country ever since the extinction of their empire. It may also be observed, that of Mr. Robertson's nine arguments, three only are positive; nor are they even strictly applicable to this case; but negative arguments afford, at best, only a tottering basis for an hypothesis, and can never be allowed to have any weight except when supported by unexpected coincidences.

Such of our readers as have any desire to see this question more fully and ably discussed, will find a very able vindication of the *Parian Chronicle* in Professor Porson's *Review of Mr. Robertson's Essay*, in the *Monthly Review*, Jan. 1789, p. 690; or Porson's *Tracts*, by Kidd, p. 57.

See also *Marmora Ozoniensia*, ut supra; *Mémoires de l'Acad. des Inscriptions*, xxvi. 157; Lenglet Dufresnoy, *Tablettes Chronologiques*, l. 39. ed. 1778, 12mo.; Robertson's *Parian Chronicle*, Lond. 1788; Hewlett's *Vindication of Ditto*; *Archæologia*, ix. No. 15; Brewster's *Encyclopæd.* ii. 530.

ARUN-
DELIAN
MAR-
BLES.

ASAM

considerably more, and its superficial area may be estimated at 60,000 square miles on a very moderate calculation. It is intersected by a great number of streams, and though mountainous, is highly fertile. It is in fact an extensive valley on the banks of the Berhām pooter, (Brahma putra,) lying between the 25th and 28th degrees of north lat. and 94 and 99 of east long. But its extent northwards has not yet been determined by actual observation. The kingdom is divided into three districts—1. Uttar-kol, or Uttar-parh, the northern district to the north of the river (Brahma putra). 2. Dekin-kol, or Dekiu-parh, the southern district to the south of the same river: and 3. Majuli, a large island enclosed by branches of it. It is also subdivided into Upper and Lower Ashm. The former terminates at Kolyapah, (Goyālpah), where the river divides into two considerable streams, and the mountains diverge to the south east. The latter comprehends the lower and western provinces annexed to the kingdom by Surg-Dō, and governed by a viceroy. The divisions mentioned above, Uttar-kol and Dekin kol, do not, strictly speaking, apply to the lowland district.

Asam is bounded on the N. W. by Bengal and Bissu, on the north by the successive ranges of the Būtan, Anka, Dīfula, or Dīp'hla, and Miri mountains; on the south by the Garra, (or Garō) hills. Of the two divisions above mentioned, Uttarcol, in the northern side of the Burrampooter, is in the higher sinter of cultivation; it surpasses Dekinkol also in population. But there is no produce peculiar to the east which is not grown, or might not be cultivated either in the high or low lands, with which Asam abounds. Mangoes, plantains, citrons, limes, pine apples, &c. in great abundance, and of excellent flavour, are found here, as in other parts of India. There are also cocoa-nut trees, pepper vines, and various species of spices, in great plenty. The sugar-cane of this part of India is remarkable for its softness and sweetness; and the silks resemble in quality those of China. Gold and silver are found in most of the rivers, by washing the sand; and form so considerable a source of revenue, that the number of persons employed in this occupation has been computed to amount to 15,000; some raise the number to 20,000; of whom, each individual pays a fixed tax of a tola of gold to the rajah. Of this people, the only account of which we know, is to be found in the second volume of the *Asiatic Researches*. The paper alluded to, is a translation of *A Description of Asam*, written by Mohammed Amin, and translated from the Persian, by Henry Vansittart, Esq. In justice to the people which it describes, it should be remembered, that the author was a rigid Mahomedan, resident at the court of Aurenzebe, and particularly hostile, as such, to the people of Asam. According to this author, however, they are a base, unprincipled race, without piety, or any laws, except their own vicious inclinations. They indulge in polygamy, live upon unclean food, and would not refuse to eat an animal that had died a natural death even though dressed by the follower of a religion which they abhorred. Their dress consists of a cloth tied round their loins, and a sheet thrown over their shoulders; but they neither wear turbans, nor drawers, nor shoes. Except the gates of the city of Gherong, and some of their idolatrous temples,

they have no buildings either of brick or stone; the habitations of the rich and poor, are all equally constructed of bamboos or straw. The country produces neither camels nor horses; and the people are so afraid, says our author, of the latter animal, that if one trooper should attack 100 armed Asamiens, they would all throw down their arms and fly; but if one of this detestable race should encounter two men of another nation, on foot, he would defeat them. The military weapons which the Asamiens use, consist of muskets, swords, spears, bows and arrows; and at all events it says much for their courage and love of their country, that with these they have invariably succeeded in defeating every attempt which has at various times been made, to reduce them to subjection. See *Asiatic Researches*, vol. ii. p. 171—185.

ASAPH, ST., a town of North Wales, in the county of Flint, which has the rank of a city from being an Episcopal See. It consists of little more than a single street. The cathedral, in which the service is no longer performed, is a plain building, of about 190 feet long. The Episcopal palace is a commodious residence, having been almost rebuilt by Bishop Shopley. The diocese extends through Flint, Montgomery, Merionethshire, and part of Denbigh, and contains 131 parishes, and 131 churches and chapels, the greater number of which are in the patronage of the Bishop. Population 1530; distant 28 miles W. of Chester, and 217 N. W. of London.

ASARABACCA. See *ASARUM*.

ASARUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dodecandria, order Monogynia.

Generic Character. Calyx trifid, superior; capsule six-celled.

The *A. Europæum*, or Asarabaccæ, a native of England, has long been in use as a sternutatory. The powder is made from the root or leaves.

ASBECK, a town of Westphalia, in the bishopric of Munster, balliwick of Hoorstmar, annexed to the possessions of the house of Salm in 1803, but for the present in the occupation of Prussia. Here is a convent for noblemen's daughters. 4 miles S. E. of Anhaues.

ASBESTUS, in chemistry, from a privative, ἀβυστος, 'I extinguish,' is a mineral consisting principally of a composition of silica and magnesia, with a small proportion of alumina, lime, and iron. There are five varieties of this substance, Common Asbestos, Elastic Asbestos, Mountain Leather, Mountain Wood, and Amianthus. It is a greenish, brittle substance, somewhat unctuous to the touch, and slightly elastic. The Egyptians, according to Herodotus, made a sort of cloth of this substance, which they used for the purpose of wrapping up the bodies of the dead. Some modern attempts have been made to produce this cloth, which has been effected by a mixture of asbestos with flax and oil. See Kirwan, *Mineralogy*, v. i. 189. Brockhaus, *Mineralogy*, v. i. 427.

ASCALON, a town of Palestine, 14 miles N. of Gaza, and 30 S. W. of Jerusalem. It is a maritime town, and was formerly one of the five Satrapies of Egypt. It is now merely a village, and is called Jenona; but it continued a place of note until the time of the Crusaders, among whom it was considered a place of importance. It is known in history as the birth-place of Herod the Great.

ASAM.
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ASCA-
LON.

ASCALABOTES.

ASCALABOTES, (from *ασκαλαβος*, a kind of lizard.)

Cuv. *Gecko*, Daudin, Shaw. In *Zoology*, a genus belonging to the family *Gekotiæ*, order *Sauria*, class *Reptilia*. Generic character: body four-footed, elongated, tailed; toes broad and lamellated beneath; head large and triangular; skin granulated, and studded with tubercles above and beneath with little scales; a row of pores or papillæ generally on the inside of the thighs.

This genus is said to derive its name, *Gecko*, from a peculiar cry made by one of its species which inhabits Batavia, according to Bontius: it is of a thicker form than the other lizards; the feet are very remarkable, from the under part of the toes being covered with such fine folds of skin, as to enable them to walk on the ceiling: their nails, which are wanting in some species, are retractile in different ways, for the purpose of preserving their points, and to give them a better grasp: the pupil of the eye contracts very much in the light, like those nocturnal animals who pass the day in their holes. From this form of their nails and eyes they seem, Cuvier thinks, to occupy the same place among the saurian reptiles, that the cats do among the carnivorous *Mammalia*.

They are a very numerous genus, and scattered over the warm countries of both continents. They have been accused of being poisonous, in consequence of their dull air and partial resemblance to the salamanders and toads; but the charge is without foundation.

For information respecting structure and classification, see *COMPARATIVE ANATOMY AND ZOOLOGY*.

Cuvier has subdivided them into several subgenera, of which the most numerous is,

a Platydactyli, or Broad-fingered *Gekos*.

These have the toes very broad, and covered beneath with transverse scales: some have no nails, and the thumbs very small: they are covered with tubercles, have very vivid colours, and are natives of the Isle of France. Some want the subfemoral pores; such are the *A. Inunguis*, Cuv. or Nailless *Gecko*; and *A. Ocellatus*, Cuv. *Gecko* Ocell. Oppel, or spotted *Gecko*. Others have the papillæ very remarkable; as the *A. Cepedii*, Cuv. *Gecko* Cepedien, Peron. Cepedian *Gecko*, which inhabits the Isle of France, and is of a yellow colour spotted with blue, having a white line extending along each side.

Others have no nails on the thumbs, the second and fifth toes of all the feet, and no subfemoral papillæ; such is,

A. Marula, Cuv. *Lacerta* Manritanica et Turcica, Gmel. *Gecko* Fascicularis, Daud. Stellio of the ancients. *Gekotte*, Shaw. This hideous animal is of a greyish colour, living in holes of the wall, under tiles, &c. covered with dirt and filth. It is called *Tarente* in the south of France, and is very common in the south of Europe.

The greater number of the *Ptyndactylous* *Gekos* merely want nails on the four thumbs: they have a row of pores about the vent.

A. Stellio, Cuv. *Gecko* à gouttelettes, Daud. *Stellio* *Gecko*, Schn. Spotted *Gecko*. The colour of this animal is red with spots of white, and tuberculated; its tail covered with square imbricated scales; is a native of India.

A. Fittatus, Cuv. *Lacerta* Vitt. Gmel. *Pandang* Lizard of Amboyna, White-striped *Gecko*, Shaw. About seven inches long, of a brown colour, with a

VOL. XVII.

white stripe on the back, becoming forked on the head, and at the root of the tail, which is surrounded with white rings. It is a native of India; it is caught at Amboyna, on the branches of the tree, called *Pandang* of the banks.

b Hemidactyli, or Half-fingered *Gekos*.

These have the base of their toes provided with an oval disc, formed below by a double tier of scales, from the middle of which springs the second phalanx, slender, and supporting the third, or nail: all these have five nails and pores on both sides of the vent; the scales on the under part of the tail are large bands, like those on the belly of serpents.

A. Tuberculatus, Daud. Cuv. Tokaie of Siam; Tokai, Shaw. About a foot long, varied with red and blue, and studded with small blue conical tubercles.

The *Java Gecko*, is similar to the preceding, but smoother; the natives believe it to be poisonous.

To these may be added the *G. à tubercules tridres* et *G. à queue épineuse*, of Daudin.

c Tæcadactyli, having the fingers provided with scales like the last subdivision, but divided longitudinally by a furrow, in which the nails can be entirely received: they generally have no nails on the thumbs; have no subfemoral papillæ; and the tail is completely covered with small scales.

Among them we find the *G. Lævis*, Daud. Perforated *Gecko*, Shaw; which is a native of Surinam; and indeed it is probable that the *G. Squandus* of Herm. and *G. Surinam*, of Daud. are the same as the *G. Lævis*.

d Ptyodactyli, or Fan-fingered *Gekos*, have the extremities of the fingers expanded, and the underparts marked like a fan; the middle is split, and the nail received in it; the nails are all much hooked.

A. Domestica, Cuv. *Lacerta* *Gecko*, Hasselquist, Gmel. Common *Gecko*, Shaw. Rather more than a foot long, of a reddish grey spotted with brown; the scales and tubercles very small; its toes are marked beneath with numerous transverse lamellæ, and furnished with small claws except the thumbs; as it creeps along the skin it produces some redness, probably owing to the fineness of its nails; the tail is round, longer than the body, and marked with rings; it has the subfemoral papillæ: its voice resembles that of the frog. It is very common in the houses of those countries which are south-east of the Mediterranean: at Cairo, it is called *Abu Burs*, "the leper's father," because they say it poisons with its feet the food and salt provision of which it is very fond.

A. Fimbriatus, Cuv. Tête plate, La Cep. Fimbriated *Gecko*, Shaw. About eight inches long. *Cepede*, who first described it, thinks it connects the *Chamaeleon*, *Gecko*, and *Water Newt*; the head, skin, and general form of the body resembling the *Chamaeleon*; but there is no crest on the head, which that animal has; and from the head a prolongation of the skin is extended down the sides of the body like a fringe which extends down the legs; the tail is like that of the Newt, but compressed horizontally instead of vertically, whilst the feet resemble those of the *Gecko*, but the toes are half-webbed; its colour also is variable like the *Chamaeleon*. It inhabits Madagascar, and the inhabitants are afraid of it, but without reason.

A. Cavifrons, Cuv. *Lacerta* Caudin. Lin. *Gecko* du Peron. Feuillée. Scollop-tailed *Gecko*, Shaw. About

5 K

ASCALABOTES.

ASCALA-
BOTES. a foot long, black, having no fringe on the body, but only on the sides of the tail.

The two preceding species Cuvier thinks are probably aquatic.

e Phylluri. *A. Phyllurus*, Cuv. *Stellio Phyllurus*, Schneid. *Lacerta Pictura*, White broad-tailed Lizard, Shaw. Broad-tailed Gecko: this single species has been found only in New Holland; it has all the

habits and characters of the Gecko, except in the toes, ASCALA-
being small; it is grey, spotted with brown above; and covered with little sharp tubercles; the tail is smooth, and flattened horizontally. BOTES.

See Linnæi *Systema Naturæ et a Gmelin*; Schneider's *Histoire Amphibiæ*; Daudin's *Histoire Naturelle des Reptiles*; Shaw's *General Zoology*; Cuvier's *Règne Animal*.

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